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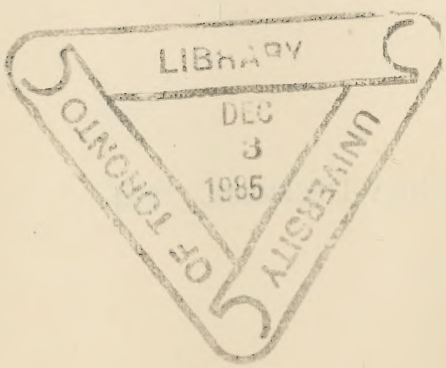
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THEODORE ROOSEVELT.

(Nominated for President by the Republican National Convention, at Chicago, June 23, 1904.)

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THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

The Republican Conventions of 1900 and 1904.

The Republican hosts were gathered at Chicago last month under circumstances resembling in many respects those that attended the great convention at Philadelphia four years ago. No man came to Philadelphia to object to the renomination of William McKinley, to whom it had been unanimously agreed in advance that a renomination should be granted. Neither were there at Philadelphia any pronounced differences touching any point of public policy; so that the platform-makers had an easy task before them. The selection of a Vice-Presidential candidate at Philadelphia involved no struggle or controversy as between candidates. Mr. Roosevelt did not wish to go on the national ticket; but inasmuch as he was the most striking and popular figure present at the convention, the demand for him grew to such proportions that it took the form of a party mandate which no member of the party in public life and in vigorous health could well have refused. The party had won its great money fight in 1896, and a revival of prosperity had justified its financial and business policies. The Spanish War, meanwhile, had been fought, the Philippines had been acquired, and Cuban reconstruction had been fairly entered upon. The policy of expansion as pursued by Mr. McKinley's administration and supported by a Republican Congress had held the firm and undivided support of the party,—as had all other policies of a more or less traditional sort with which Republicanism had by cumulation and accretion become identified.

Theodore Roosevelt in 1904.

Thus, the Republican convention at Philadelphia was a veritable love feast, so far as the rank and file of the party were concerned. It is true enough that there were undercurrents of strife and controversy among political leaders; but this will always be true in every political party, even when the tides of harmony and enthusiasm rise to their very highest. Mr. Roosevelt had been placed upon the ticket by the united efforts of men whose motives were as different as could well be imagined. The regular political leaders in New York and Pennsylvania had brought him forward for the Vice-Presidency at the peremptory dictation of trusts and franchise corporations, for the purpose of removing him from his sphere of political activity in the State of New York. No sooner had he been nominated than the heads of these corporations, together with their political tools, boasted openly that they had shelved him, and that his political career was at an end. As early as the preceding February, he had definitely declared himself a candidate for a second term as Governor of the State of New York. He had given a highly efficient State administration, and had set on foot various important reforms which could not be completed until another year or more. But so solidly had public opinion placed itself behind these well-launched projects that their momentum carried them to a safe issue,—Governor Odell's influence aiding powerfully in securing the adoption by the Legislature of such notable reforms as those proposed by the Tenement House Commission and the New York City Charter Commission, not to mention various other matters.

The Original Anti-Roosevelt Group.

It was not for these things, however, that Governor Roosevelt had aroused the ill-will of the corporation managers, but rather for a measure which touched some of them in their most sensitive spot. Against powerful pressure, he had cordially supported and cheerfully signed the Ford franchise bill, which subjected street-railway, gas, electric, and other public-service corporations to taxation upon the basis of the actual value of their property, precisely as other property-owners are subjected to taxation. The corporations seemed to think that if they could banish Roosevelt from New York State affairs they could secure a repeal of that measure. They have not succeeded

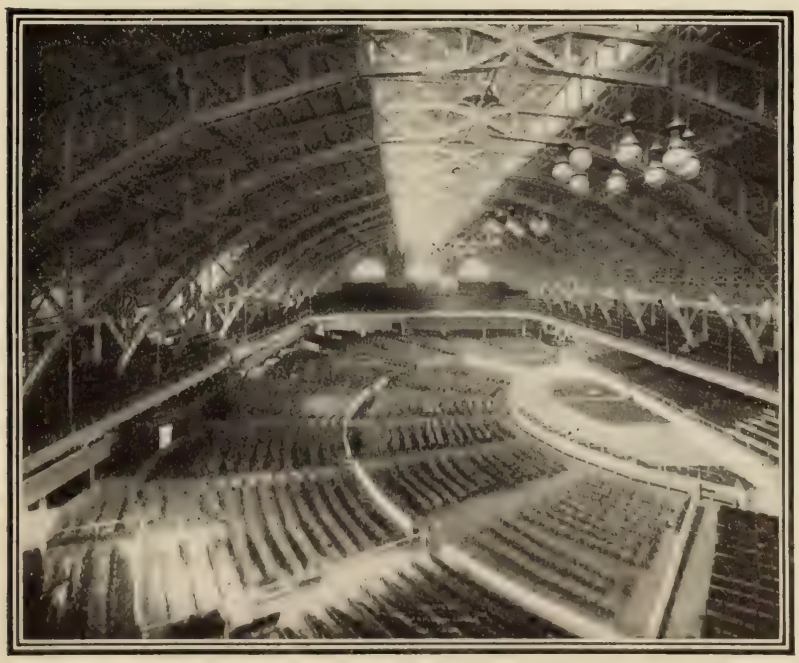
(let it be said in passing), for the reason that the same processes of argument and discussion which convinced the governor convinced the public at the same time; and so the Ford tax law is likely to stand for many years to come as a mark of the courage and fidelity shown by Mr. Roosevelt when governor of the Empire State.

The Two Pro-Roosevelt Groups.

Another set of men at Philadelphia who took up the cry for Roosevelt as the second member of the ticket of 1900 were delegates from Kansas, Colorado, and other States in the trans-Missouri and so-called cowboy regions, where the combination of Populism and Democracy under Bryan's leadership had swept everything before it in 1896. These men were considering nothing but their own concrete situations. They wanted to gain local Republican victories, and they believed that Roosevelt's name on the ticket would help them in their work. Third, and most numerous by far, among the supporters of Roosevelt at Philadelphia were those who might fairly be called his personal followers. They were the men who had set their hearts upon having him for President of the country in due time, and their only chance to do him honor at Philadelphia was to support him for the second place on the ticket. He begged them not to do it, and their attitude was very illogical. Their enthusiasm, however, was sincere and unselfish, and they made no secret of their intention to do everything in their power to place him at the head of the ticket in 1904.

If McKinley Had Lived.

Mr. Roosevelt accepted the situation like a good soldier, although it was wholly contrary to his desires. He made a great campaign, and added everywhere to his acquaintanceship and popularity. Even if Mr. McKinley had lived, President Roosevelt would have been the foremost Republican candidate for nomination this year. His friends, however, would probably have been obliged to make quite as hard a fight for his nomination as McKinley's friends had made at St. Louis in 1896. The young men of the country would have bestirred themselves in a way almost or quite without precedent in the history of our politics. Yet the conditions would have been so different that it requires a very active imagination to conjure them up. For it is hard to think of Roosevelt apart from the record he has made as a public man in the past three years. With McKinley surviving, Roosevelt as Vice-President would indeed have added every day to his knowledge of public men and contemporary affairs, but there would have been no opportunity for him to impress upon the country his decisive and courageous methods as an executive officer, and very little opportunity to give expression to his opinions, in view of the traditions that surround the Vice-Presidential office and the unwritten law that restricts the incumbent's activities.



INTERIOR VIEW OF THE COLISEUM, THE REPUBLICAN CONVENTION HALL AT CHICAGO.

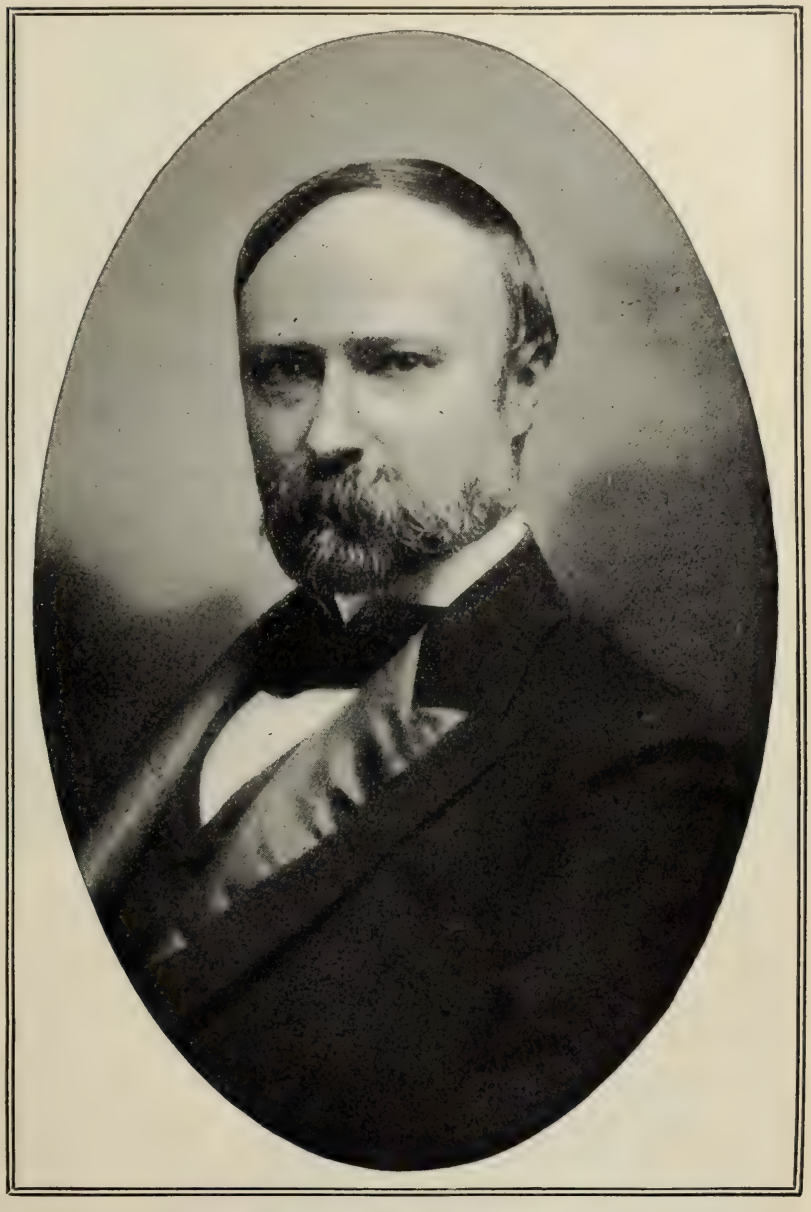
Roosevelt as President.

The death of Mr. McKinley almost immediately made clear to the country the great qualities of the man who had been named as his "running mate." Mr. Roosevelt stepped into the Presidency with modesty, but not with weakness. He accepted the McKinley cabinet, and worked with every member of it in most perfect harmony and personal loyalty. To all policies or specific actions where Mr. McKinley had to any extent committed himself, President Roosevelt gave full and prompt support. Gradu-

ally, but inevitably, he took his rank as one of the greatest executives in the history of the country, and as the dominant intellect and master-spirit of the Republican party,—while yet showing himself President of the whole people, and never a partisan in a narrow sense unbecoming to the chief magistracy. Thus, as President, Mr. Roosevelt's earlier hold upon the younger men of his own party throughout the country was vastly strengthened from month to month.

The Offended Corporations.

The chief strain of his administration came again, as in the case of his term as Governor of New York, through the effort of private corporate interests to control the making and execution of laws in this country. It is unnecessary here to review once more the familiar story of President Roosevelt's attempt to enforce the Sherman anti-trust law, and that other familiar story of his successful efforts to break the deadlock in the anthracite-coal strike and secure at once two great boons, —first, that of providing the public with fuel in the dead of winter, and, second, the employment of arbitration as a means for settling the most serious labor trouble in the history of the country. For his undertaking to enforce the anti-trust law, and for his breaking the coal strike, the men who control the great corporations were deeply offended, and were determined to punish him by preventing his nomination in 1904. Their futile attempts to play an astute and winning game in politics, if narrated in full, would make a long and interesting chapter. Working hand-in-hand with them were many Republican leaders who joined with apparent good-will in making Mr. Roosevelt's nomination unanimous at Chicago, a few days ago.



SENATOR CHARLES W. FAIRBANKS, OF INDIANA.
(Republican candidate for Vice-President.)

Loved for the Enemies He Had Made.

The very stars in their courses had fought for Roosevelt's nomination. One after another, the props of the anti-Roosevelt movement had fallen away. The last of them had disappeared some months ago. The exposures and disasters that had overtaken many Wall Street enterprises, with the discomfiture and loss of prestige of many so-called captains of industry and leaders of finance, had greatly strengthened the Roosevelt position and correspondingly weakened the attacks of his adver-

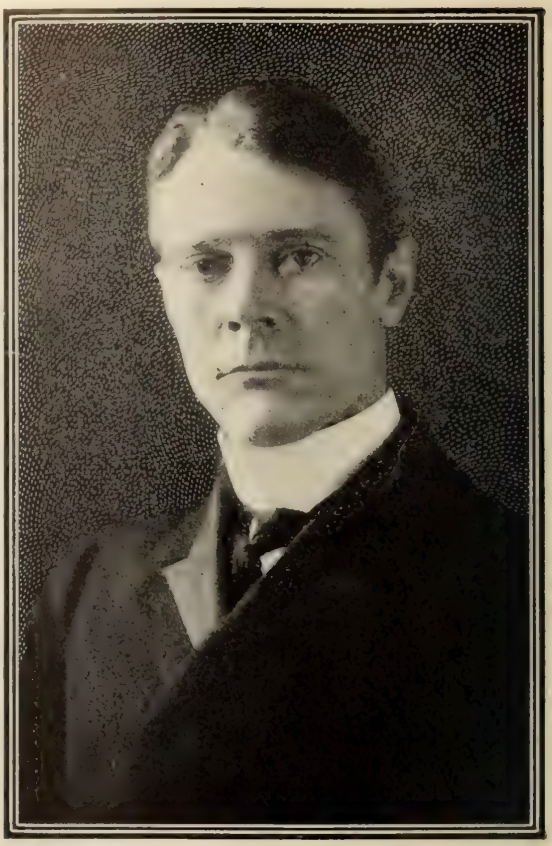
saries. Furthermore, there began to echo up and down throughout the country, in ever-increasing volume, a chorus of which the refrain was "We love him for the enemies he has made." It became plain enough that for every word and for every dollar Wall Street could offer against Roosevelt's nomination, a new Roosevelt voter was sure to step forward to resent Wall Street's attempt to govern the country. And so, seeing the total uselessness of trying to stem such a tide, the anti-Roosevelt movement, which had in fact proposed to dictate nominations for both parties, gave up the Republican situation as hopeless and concentrated its attention upon the effort to secure in the Democratic party the return to so-called "conservatism" and "sanity."

The Democratic Situation.

What the result of these efforts may be we shall know better a week or ten days after this magazine reaches its subscribers than any man could tell in the latter days of June. It is certain, however, that the widespread belief that the great preliminary canvass for Judge Parker's nomination had been chiefly organized and financed by Wall Street interests was causing apprehension in many

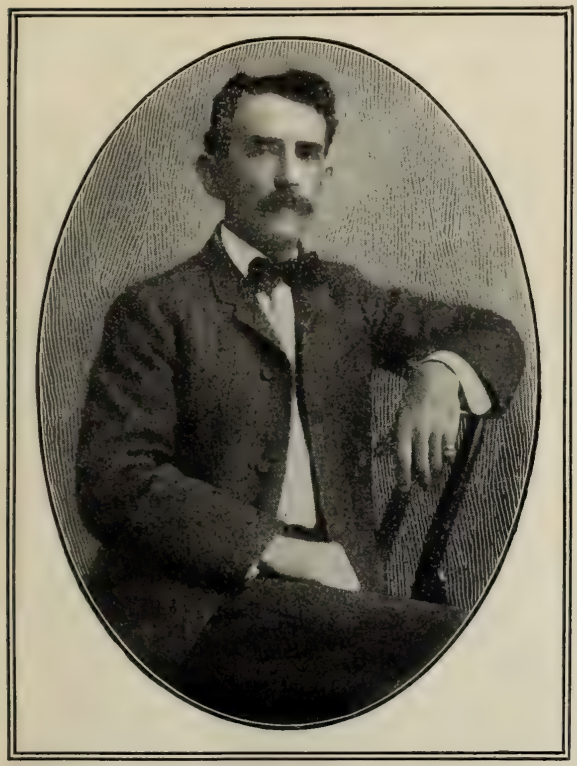


HON. FRANK S. BLACK, OF NEW YORK.
(Who made the speech nominating President Roosevelt.)



SENATOR A. J. BEVERIDGE, OF INDIANA.
(Who seconded President Roosevelt's nomination.)

Democratic circles. And it began to be thought that this impression might not improbably result in Judge Parker's failure to secure the coveted honor at St. Louis. As these pages were written, everything pointed to a spirited and highly interesting Democratic convention. Mr. Bryan's renomination in 1900 was inevitable; his nomination in 1896, on the other hand, had been wholly unexpected, and the convention had made a striking and important chapter in American political history. Whatever the fallacies or delusions which held the minds of a majority of that convention, it was a truly democratic body, made up of men who knew their own minds and obeyed their own wills and consciences. And thus, the Democratic convention of 1896 will go down to history as a splendid body, swayed by strong convictions and moved by a spirit of political idealism that is a more reassuring and valuable quality in a self governing people than merely correct opinions without ardor or ideals. The convention of 1904 will not be "cut-and-dried."



MR. HARRY STILWELL EDWARDS, OF GEORGIA.

A Prearranged Republican Programme.

The executive group of the National Democratic Committee, in session at St. Louis for several days last month, could not approach an agreement even upon the name of a temporary chairman. Nothing whatsoever had been worked out in advance by common consent. It was plain that the convention would be a fighting body, and would make its own choices and decisions from the first hour to the last. In all this it was to be the precise antithesis of the Republican convention at Chicago. Never, indeed, had any great convention had its plans more carefully worked out in advance than the one which opened in the Coliseum on June 21. The death of Senator Hanna, who was chairman of the National Committee, had left that position to be filled by Postmaster-General Henry C. Payne, of Wisconsin, who had long been vice-chairman. The retirement of Mr. Perry Heath had been followed by the temporary appointment to the position of secretary of the committee of Mr. Elmer Dover, who had been Senator Hanna's private secretary. It was known that Mr. Payne would call the convention to order, and that the Hon. Elihu Root would be made temporary chairman and would in a carefully prepared speech set forth the dominant principles of the administration and of the party, recount Republican achievements, and strike the keynote of the campaign. We publish elsewhere in this number an epitome of Mr. Root's notable effort. It was also known that Speaker Cannon would be made permanent chairman of the convention, that the Hon. Frank S. Black would make the speech placing Mr. Roosevelt in nomination, and that the first seconding speech would be made by Senator Beveridge, of Indiana, who would be followed by Messrs. Knight of California, Edwards of Georgia, Cotton of Minnesota, and one or two others. It was known that Senator Lodge, of Massachusetts, would be chairman of the Committee on Resolutions, and that a document prepared by him well in advance would,—after due criticism and more or less revision at the hands of his committee colleagues,—be reported and adopted by the convention. Furthermore, it was well enough known, through semi-official report and by unavoidable inference, almost exactly what this platform would say upon all topics of major importance. It was known, again, what man in every State, with a possible exception or two, would be selected for national committeeman, and it was known that these gentlemen upon coming together would choose Mr. Cortelyou, Secretary of the Department of Commerce and Labor, as chairman of the committee, for the purpose of managing the campaign.



MR. JOSEPH B. COTTON, OF MINNESOTA.

Candidates for the Vice-Presidency.

About the only matter of high importance which was not determined in advance by common agreement had to do with the choice of a candidate for the Vice-Presidency. As the time for holding the convention approached it still seemed fairly probable, as set forth in these pages a month ago, that Congressman Hitt, of Illinois, would be the successful candidate. Senator Fairbanks, of Indiana, however, had come forward as a so-called receptive candidate, and in many quarters there were evidences of active work done on his behalf. Geographical considerations also entered into the question. By the time the convention had assembled, the opinion prevailed among the delegates that Indiana would be a more "doubtful" State this year than Illinois. Finally, the action of the delegates from New York, President Roosevelt's own State, in accepting Fairbanks as their candidate, assured him the nomination.



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HON. GEORGE B. M'CLELLAN, OF NEW YORK.

Results of the Hearst Movement.

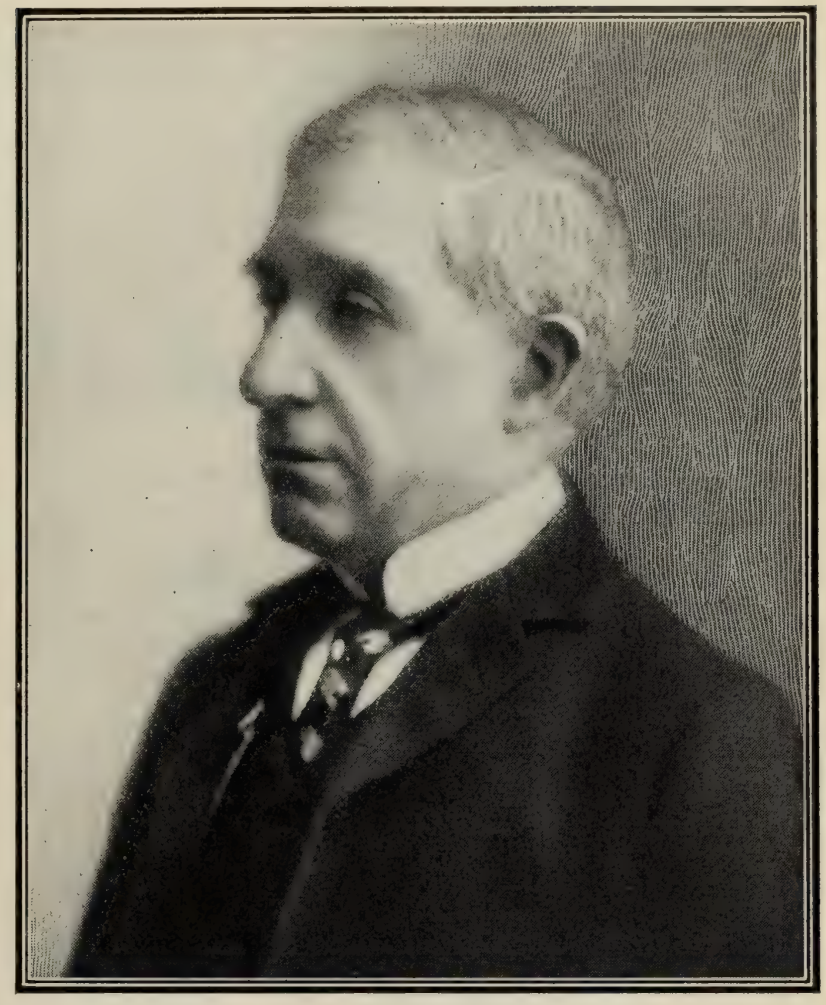
The last hard preliminary struggle made by supporters of the Hearst movement was for control of the convention which named delegates-at-large from Illinois, and it was successful. It had for some time been evident to everybody that Mr. Hearst could not be nominated under any circumstances. It was known that the votes pledged to Parker, as well as those of several other State delegations, would not under any circumstances lend their countenance to Mr. Hearst's ambitions, and they were sufficient, under the two-thirds rule, easily to prevent his nomination. It began to appear, however, that the Hearst vote, together with that of certain uninstructed delegations known to be unfriendly to the Parker movement, might effectually block the progress of the candidate who was certain to have the lead on the early ballots. Although, as we have already said, predictions are useless, the remark may be ventured that if the Democrats, like the Republicans, nominated by a simple majority instead of by a two-thirds vote, Judge Parker's chances would have been very substantial. Meanwhile, there were increasing rumors of mysterious consultations and tentative schemes looking toward the nomination of a so-called dark horse.



HON. WILLIAM R. HEARST, OF NEW YORK.

Folk as a "Dark Horse."

Among Eastern men, the man most likely to be brought forward was supposed to be Mayor McClellan, of New York. Among Western men, the name most to be conjured with was that of Mr. Folk, of Missouri. Mr. Folk, after a long canvass before the Democratic voters of his State, had made himself certain of the nomination for governor this fall; and in that case nomination is equivalent to election. He had repeatedly declared that he must not for a moment be thought of as a Presidential candidate; nevertheless, so great was his reputation as a foe of corrupt practices in government and as a rising star in the political firmament that an increasing number of thoughtful Democrats were of the opinion that in his nomination there might lie the only possible chance of defeating the popular Roosevelt. Like Judge Parker, Mr. Folk has the advantage of being wholly without record in national affairs, and he has the added advantage of having recently made a great personal reputation in a fight for high principles against heavy odds and powerful interests. It was understood that among the men prepared at the proper moment to turn away from Judge Parker and lend support to a dark horse like Mr. Folk were the New York Tammany leaders, to whose fellowship has been restored Tammany's quondam orator, Mr. Bourke Cockran. As a convention speaker, perhaps no man of our day has surpassed Mr. Cockran in power and eloquence. If at an emergency in the affairs of the convention an orator like Cockran or Bryan should make a plea for the nomination of McClellan or Folk, or some other dark horse, with the approval of the Hearst and Bryan following, there might easily come about a stampede that would secure the necessary two-thirds vote. Such an outcome would seem by no means impossible, in a convention like that at St. Louis. But about all this, one man's guessing is as good as another's.



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HON. W. BOURKE COCKRAN, OF NEW YORK.

The Campaign and Its Management.

Candidates this year will signify much more than platforms. Conditions were such that the Republican platform could not contain any innovations or set forth any bold proposals looking toward changes of policy or important new legislation. So far as the party in power is concerned, it can do little else but present the McKinley-Roosevelt administrations to the country and ask for a vote of confidence and a renewed lease of power. No political strategy or finesse, such as the old-fashioned campaign-managers delighted in, can be of much use for the Republicans this year. All they can do is to present the Roosevelt administration on its merits, believing in it themselves and asking the country to exercise the same faith. It is for this reason that Mr. Cortelyou has almost ideal qualifications for the



Hon. C. H. Weisse.



T. E. Ryan.



Neal Brown.



Edward C. Wall.

THE WISCONSIN DELEGATES-AT-LARGE TO THE DEMOCRATIC NATIONAL CONVENTION.



THE DONKEY: "I guess he's tattooed on."
From the *Leader* (Cleveland).

management of this year's campaign. He is a firm believer in the administration and its methods, he is widely acquainted with public men, he is a good organizer,—as has been shown in his long official experience,—he has a cool head and great executive talent, he is not wedded to obsolete tradition, and he will make no campaign pledges or promises that it would afterward humiliate the President to be obliged to redeem.

From the Democratic View-point.

On the other side, the Democrats will not be able to make much headway merely upon the strength of what they may say in their platform avowals. The country is still protectionist in its actual way of doing business, quite apart from tariff theories; and neither party would be allowed by the business community to make a radical tariff change in the near future, although some modification of schedules must certainly be made and some further attempt at reciprocity will be required by public opinion. The country has come around so firmly to sound money that neither party can gain for that topic the slightest attention in this campaign. Everybody except an infinitesimal minority knows that we are managing Philippine affairs ably and conscientiously; and that subject will be almost wholly ignored by the voters when they make up their verdict in November. The one issue, therefore, before the



Homer S. Cummings.

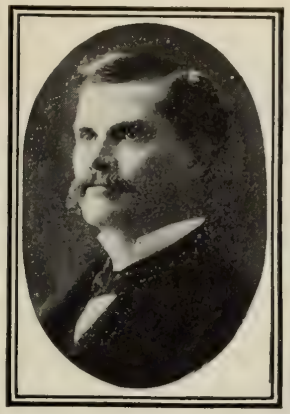


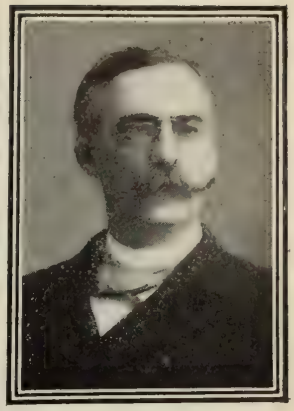
Hon. Bryan F. Mahan

THE CONNECTICUT DELEGATES-AT-LARGE TO THE DEMOCRATIC NATIONAL CONVENTION.


Hon. A. J. McLaurin.


Governor Vardaman.


Hon. John S. Williams.


Hon. H. D. Money.

THE MISSISSIPPI DELEGATES-AT-LARGE TO THE DEMOCRATIC NATIONAL CONVENTION.

country is going to be the direct and simple one whether or not Theodore Roosevelt is the man to be intrusted with the guidance of our national affairs for the period from March 4, 1905, to March 4, 1909. This question, if no other, will be thoroughly discussed in the coming campaign.

Roosevelt as the Issue.

We publish elsewhere in this number a spirited article by a gentleman who was a delegate to the Chicago convention, setting forth the reasons why, in his opinion, the President ought to be kept at the helm. If we mistake not, this article expresses the views of the disinterested rank and file of the Republican party. Next month, the claims of the Democratic nominee and the position of the party supporting him will be set forth in this magazine by a writer who will have the same freedom to express his mind as our contributor has shown this month in defending and eulogizing President Roosevelt.

Two Changes in the Cabinet.

The retirement of Mr. George B. Cortelyou from the cabinet in order to become chief manager of the Republican campaign leaves a vacancy which has been looked forward to with a good deal of interest. As remarked in these pages last month, there was a prevalent notion that Mr. James R. Garfield, now at the head of the Bureau of Corporations, might be promoted to the cabinet seat; but, on the other hand, it is understood that in the very difficult position he now holds Mr. Garfield's services are regarded as so efficient that he may be called indispensably the right man in the right place. The man most prominently mentioned last month as likely to succeed Mr. Cortelyou is a well-known California Congressman, the Hon. Victor H. Metcalf. Another vacancy in the cabinet will be created in the near future by the retirement of Attorney-General Knox. Senator Matthew Stanley Quay, of Pennsylvania, died last month, and it was soon after-


Hon. Patrick A. Collins.


William L. Douglas.


John R. Thayer.


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William A. Gaston.

THE MASSACHUSETTS DELEGATES-AT-LARGE TO THE DEMOCRATIC NATIONAL CONVENTION.



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THE LATE SENATOR MATTHEW S. QUAY, OF PENNSYLVANIA.

ward announced that Attorney-General Knox, whose home is in Pittsburg, would be appointed to serve out the unexpired term.

Knox and Quay.

It is further understood that the dominating elements in the Republican party of Pennsylvania will regard Mr. Knox as permanently selected for the Senatorship. A State of such high rank in wealth and population as Pennsylvania ought to be represented in the United States Senate by men qualified in all respects to take commanding rank in the councils of the nation. Mr. Knox possesses such qualifications. He has vigor and brilliancy of mind, rare acumen as a lawyer, eloquence and cogency as a public speaker, and habitual courage and independence in dealing with public questions. His presence will add distinctly to the intellectual assets of the Senate, and will decidedly increase the prestige and influence of Pennsylvania. Senator Quay was a man of real ability as well as of political skill and finesse; but he did not acquire a reputation for dealing with public questions upon their merits. He was a dangerous antagonist in the Senate if he had made up his mind either to carry or to defeat a pending proposal; but his zeal and effort were seldom expended in the disinterested pursuit of ideal ends. The sum total of his influence upon political life in Pennsylvania cannot justly be approved. His dominance in Pennsylvania affairs through a long period did not make the State a model for reformers of political method.

Deneen, Yates, and Illinois Politics.

When the Illinois Republican convention (which had adjourned on May 20, after more than fifty unavailing ballots for a gubernatorial nominee) came together again, on May 31, there seemed to be no marked change in the situation, except that the support of Mr. Lowden had increased enough to make him clearly the foremost candidate. It also remained evident, as it had been from the beginning to outside observers, that Governor Yates could not possibly secure the convention's support for another term. The Yates contingent, however, was stubborn, and would not surrender without compensation. The nomination went to Mr. Charles S. Deneen, who from the beginning had been one of the two chief candidates for the honor. The entire Yates force went over to Deneen in consequence of a definite understanding which is commonly said to include a promise that the Deneen influence shall be used to elect Yates to the United States Senate to succeed the venerable Senator Cullom. Whatever may be thought of bargains of this kind, they are certain to be made and likely to be carried out in any State where the boss system grows up, or where the small-fry politicians are willing to be known as wearing the tags or collars of one State leader or another. United States Senatorships ought not to be traded off as pawns in a contest for the nomination of a governor. Bad bargains are better broken than kept, and it will be cause for congratulation if the Illinois Legislature declines to recognize any obligation in the terms of the convention bargain at Springfield. Mr. Deneen, the successful candidate, is still a very young man, who has made a good reputation as a State's attorney in Chicago, and he is highly spoken of as a man of character and ability. On June 15, the Democrats of Illinois nominated Lawrence B. Stringer for the governorship.

La Follette and the Wisconsin Situation.

The Republican split in Wisconsin is a matter far more serious than the temporary strain of factions in Illinois. It is not easy to foresee any solution in Wisconsin except a fight to the finish. To recapitulate what was stated in our issue for last month, Governor La Follette and his faction, through control of the State Central Committee, succeeded in organizing and dominating the State convention. Each faction had nearly one-half of the delegates without dispute. There



HON. CHARLES S. DENEEN.
(Republican candidate for governor in Illinois.)

were contested seats of sufficient number to make the control of the convention depend upon the settlement of the contests. The Central Committee made up the temporary roll of the convention, and seated delegates of the La Follette faction in almost every case of contest.



"DON'T KNOW WHETHER I OUGHT TO HAVE ANYTHING TO DO WITH HIM."
From the *Pioneer Press* (St. Paul).

The convention thus formed acted as a committee of the whole on credentials, took up all contests county by county, and settled them by a strict factional vote in favor of La Follette. The other faction then withdrew, organized a separate convention, seated the rejected contestants, nominated a State ticket of its own, and named Senators Spooner and Quarles, Representative Babcock, and Judge Emil Baensch as delegates-at-large to the Chicago convention. The rival body meanwhile had renominated Mr. La Follette for governor for a third term, together with a full State ticket, and had chosen four delegates-at-large, including the governor himself.



HON. LAWRENCE B. STRINGER.
(Democratic candidate for governor in Illinois.)

Wisconsin and the National Ticket.

It had also named a list of Presidential electors; and with a view to protecting President Roosevelt's interests, the bolting convention had ratified the La Follette electoral ticket. As respects what has been former custom in Wisconsin conventions, and as respects the plain, objective facts in the proceedings of the last convention, the accounts given by the rival factions are in many particulars at complete variance with one another. Questions of legality affecting the printing of the tickets under the Australian system will take the whole matter into the Wisconsin courts; but a decision is not likely to be rendered before

August or September. By that time, it is to be expected, the gulf between the two factions will be yawning and impassable. Since the same names cannot be printed in two columns on the voting paper, it will be found, in practice, very difficult for the Republicans of Wisconsin to work and vote unitedly for President Roosevelt while fighting one another desperately through the campaign on State issues. Prominent Democrats of Wisconsin like ex-Senator Vilas are of opinion that the situation not only gives them easy promise of carrying the State ticket, but also affords them at least an even chance of carrying the electoral ticket of the State against President Roosevelt. Much as both Wisconsin factions would like to make a good showing for the national ticket, each cares a hundred times more for its own local interests than for those of the party at large. Either faction would rather see the Democrats capture the State than see its own party rival carry off the local honors and prizes.

La Follette Defeated at Chicago.

Such were the complications that it was impossible for the convention at Chicago to deal conclusively with the merits of the rival cases as ably set forth on both sides in *ex parte* statements. Many Republicans had hoped that the Chicago convention would seat both groups of delegates-at-large or exclude both. The National Committee, however, considering contests in a preliminary way at Chicago in the week before the convention, decided unanimously, on June 17, in favor of seating the Spooner-Quarles delegation, thus shutting out the La Follette group. It was, of course, well understood that the subject would be further reviewed by the convention's own Committee on Credentials, and after the report of that committee would be passed upon in open convention; but no one expected that the unanimous action of the National Committee would be reversed by a well-disciplined convention that had come to Chicago to carry out a programme and to do as it was told in almost every respect.

A Remarkable Leader.

The great La Follette movement in Wisconsin had begun some years ago with an attempt to give the plain Republican voters an opportunity to carry out their wishes as against the clique of leaders who had been accustomed to control conventions and "run" the State. It is unquestionably true that some of these leaders were closely in touch with the railroad interests that in Wisconsin, as in all the Northwestern States, have in years past played so high-handed a part in politics, legislation, and administration. The two great reforms with which La Follette identified himself were —first, a radical change in the method of nominating men to office, and, second, a new system of taxing railroads and corporations. To make any headway at all as a leader, Mr. La Follette had to show a remarkable combination of qualities. His worst enemies will not deny that he has courage of a high order; the tenacity of a bulldog; an almost fanatical belief in himself and in the value to the State of his principles and projects; superb gifts as a manager and organizer; a talent for political strategy unequaled by any of his opponents, and the sheer force of a man of destiny who throws prudence to the winds, burns bridges behind him, and stakes everything without regret or misgiving. Such a man makes devoted followers and makes bitter enemies. His followers believe that all the railroad and corporation interests, together with the old-line political leaders, are conspiring to break him down in order to defeat the causes to which he stands committed, and to which he has already devoted so much energy.

A Comparison or Two.

They believe him, in short, to be marked for destruction by those interests, precisely as Mr. Roosevelt has been similarly marked by the Wall Street leaders, the trust magnates, and the class of men who manipulate city councils and legislatures in order to filch from the public the monopoly public-service franchises, and in order to keep such franchises from paying a fair amount of taxes. The difference between the two men is that La Follette has from the start played the *rôle* of fighting reformer, while Roosevelt,—who is also a reformer on occasion,—is first and foremost the impartial, efficient executive whose instinct is to get the best results out of existing laws and systems rather than to make radical changes in statutes and institutions. In Wisconsin, men are either for La Follette or against him; and there remains no man in the entire State who is capable of a dispassionate judgment in the matters at issue. In this regard the situation is like that which existed some years ago in South Carolina, when men were for Tillman or against him with a factional feeling a hundredfold more intense than the normal feeling between the two great national parties. Mr. Tillman is now recognized, with all his faults of manner and indiscretions of speech, as an upright leader and a valuable public man. Wisconsin will yet learn to be proud of possessing two men so brilliant and so highly fitted for public service and leadership as Senator Spooner and Governor La Follette.

Progress of La Follette's Measures.

Respecting La Follette's policies, it should be stated that his primary-election measure has been adopted by the Legislature and merely awaits the ratification of the voters of the State at the polls, where it will undoubtedly secure a strong indorsement. His views about the taxation of railroads have also to a considerable extent been embodied in law. He now holds, however, that the State must assume and exercise control over the making of railway rates, in order to prevent the companies from increasing their charges and thus taking from the people with one hand what they pay with the other hand in taxes to the State. It is held by Governor La Follette and his friends that average railroad rates are higher in Wisconsin than in Iowa and other neighboring States.

Politics in Minnesota.

Minnesota Republicans last month were occupied with a preliminary contest between the supporters of two rival candidates, Messrs. Dunn and Collins, for the honor of succeeding Governor Van Sant. One of these gentlemen was locally said to have the support of the railway and corporation interests as against the other. It was not clear, however, that the railways were exerting themselves very actively in Minnesota politics, although the echoes of the Northern Securities litigation were heard throughout that State, and the terms "merger" and "anti-merger" were upon the lips of all men who take part in the game of politics.

Iowa's Sect of "Stand-Patters."

In the State of Iowa, there has been a great tariff debate raging among the Republicans; and men of the mercurial and emotional temperament have started a new political religion. The late Mr. Hanna is its patron saint, and it bears the scarcely euphonious name "stand-patism" as its denominational title. It is not, however, in reality so much a question of "what's what" as of "who's who" with the Iowa Republicans. Everybody of discernment in this country knows that, in due time and in the early future, the Republican party must either overhaul the Dingley tariff to a considerable extent or be beaten soundly and allow the Democrats to try once more the experiment of tariff-tinkering. Governor Cummins, of Iowa, who is rather outspoken by nature and habit, has seen no harm in stating the obvious; nor has he thought it wrong to look ahead a little and to recognize the profound truth that our relations with the northern half of our own continent are destined to become the most important concern of a wise American statesmanship. Iowa will make a great mistake if she allows the boss system to take firm root in her soil, and if she encourages the methods that, in those States where boss rule prevails, strike wrathfully at men when they show signs of growing to the stature of statesmen on the national plane. Heresy-hunting in politics is as futile and petty as in religion.

Development of the Northwest.

The old Northwest and the newer States of the Louisiana Purchase have now grown to so commanding a position in wealth, population, intelligence, and institutional life that they hold the balance of power in the affairs of the United States. And the fate of the country depends upon the kind of civilization and social character that they shall work out for themselves. If they are still raw and crude, theirs is no longer the rawness and crudity of frontier settlements, but of the American people as a whole. Illinois, Wisconsin, Minnesota, and Iowa have caught up with western New York, Pennsylvania, and Ohio. In the prices of farming land, for example, they have gone decidedly ahead of those older States. In the finish and charm of the rural landscape they are also equal, if not superior. In the appointments and modern character of their towns and cities they are decidedly ahead of New York and Pennsylvania. In their support of charitable and educational institutions they are not only more progressive and generous, but decidedly more intelligent and up to modern requirements.

Educational Progress.

The propaganda for undergraduate students in the West to be sent East to Harvard, Yale, and Princeton is still continued; but the turn of the tide will come very soon, inasmuch as undergraduate work is not merely as well done in the Western universities and colleges as in the Eastern, but, school for school, the impartial outside critic would find it better done in the West,—just as he would find the common-school system, from the primary to the high school and the normal school, much better carried on in the Northwest than in the East. The conclave of educators and public men at Madison, Wis., last month to celebrate the State University's semi-centennial and to inaugurate President Van Hise seemed, without any premeditated design, to take the form of a recognition of the equal development of the higher education in the West as compared with the progress thus far made by the Eastern universities and colleges. Those not previously familiar with the Wisconsin system, for example, were amazed to discover the success with which the university had been lifted high upon

the broad and well-founded pedestal of the public schools. Apropos of general educational progress, it is interesting to note that the parent of all our American State universities.—Thomas Jefferson's University of Virginia,—has just elected as its first president Dr. Edwin A. Alderman, whose contributions to the cause of university education in the South as president of Tulane University, at New Orleans, have already received frequent mention in these pages. After having been administered for eighty-five years by a faculty and board of trustees, without centralized control, the university is now to have an executive head, like other institutions of its class.

The Progressive West and the Fair.

The past decade has for the most part been a period of great prosperity in the Northwest, and the results are now apparent in a hundred directions. At Cornell College, Mount Vernon, Iowa, and at the college town of Grinnell, in the same State, there were also semi-centennials last month, and it seems almost impossible to believe that the elderly men present on those occasions had with their own eyes witnessed transformations which elsewhere and in other times would have required a century or two for their accomplishment. Such splendid commonwealths as Illinois and Iowa, Wisconsin and Minnesota, Missouri, Kansas, Nebraska, and Colorado, are contributing a prodigious share toward the aggrandizement of the richest and most powerful country the world has ever known. Such States should contribute strong, clear-headed, far-seeing, and independent men to represent them in the councils of a nation whose actions and policies are henceforth to be fraught with consequences affecting all mankind. The progress of these remarkable States can, of course, best be understood,—indeed, it can only be understood,—by riding across their rich and beautiful stretches of farm land, now as fair as the best parts of England or France, and by visiting their well-shaded and well-kept towns and cities. Much can also be learned by inspecting their State buildings at the world's fair at St. Louis, and by studying the exhibits which show their products, illustrate the work of their institutions, and exemplify their methods in agriculture and industry. The Eastern man who does not know the middle West and thinks of visiting the fair would do well to plan his trip in such a way that he could at the same time see something of a number of Northwestern States, traveling in daytime in order to note the beauty and wealth of the farm country, and breaking journey at the leading towns and cities in order to get some notion of their achievements and charms.

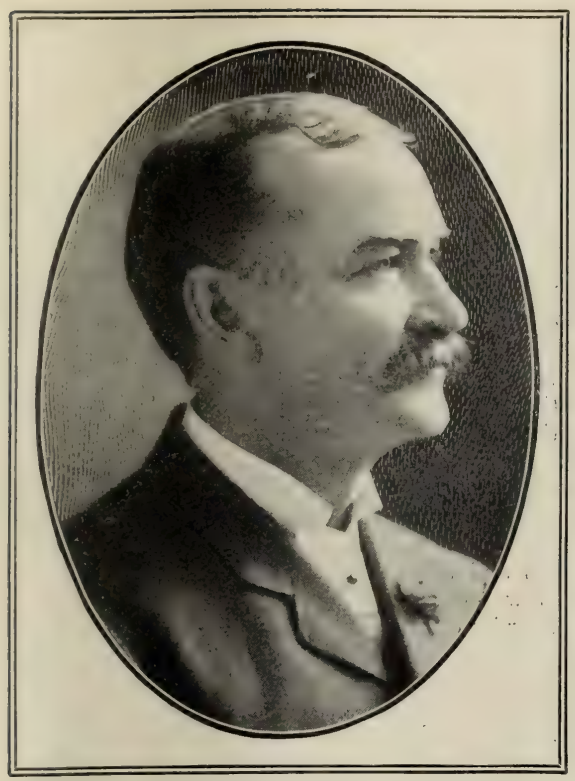


DR. EDWIN A. ALDERMAN.

(Chosen president of the University of Virginia.)

The Vast Show at St. Louis.

The fair at St. Louis is more to be criticised for its bewildering magnitude than for anything else. It was not wholly finished even late last month; but it was complete in most respects, and the completed parts—it should be said—were greater in extent than the whole of any previous exposition. On the 15th of June, which was the appointed date, the exposition authorities made their first installment payment to Uncle Sam on the four or five million dollars recently loaned. Since it is not to close until December 1, the great fair has five full months yet before it, and it will grow steadily in the numbers of its visitors and the perfection of its arrangements. From the early days of its opening, there have been associations and organizations of every conceivable kind holding their national conventions at St. Louis under the auspices of the world's fair. July will bring to St. Louis the national Democratic convention, with many thousands of attendants, and the Teachers' Association, which will bring at least fifty thousand. Besides these large gatherings, there will be almost countless smaller ones this month; and for months to come there will be these special pilgrimages to St. Louis of professional or other bodies by the score and by the hundred. To the rising generation in the West and South, the St. Louis Fair will be a revelation of beauty, and an inspiration to personal effort and advancement.



GOV. JAMES H. PEABODY, OF COLORADO.

Colorado's Reign of Lawlessness.

For more than six months the mining districts of Cripple Creek and Telluride, in Colorado, have been in a state of turbulence amounting at times to actual war. The laws of the State have been repeatedly and flagrantly defied; local officials have acted as partisans; the community has seemingly lost confidence in its courts of justice; and, finally, the State government has felt it necessary to proclaim martial law, without the request or coöperation of the local authorities, and the military officers have imprisoned many citizens without form of trial, have suppressed free speech in some instances, and have exercised virtually the same functions that the officers of the Union army performed in some of our Southern States during and immediately after the Civil War. The acts of violence and intimidation that led to this remarkable overturn of all those sanctions of public order that the average American community holds most dear were committed in connection with a "sympathetic" strike of the Western Federation of Miners to secure the eight-hour day in all the mines and smelters in the State. Murders and assaults without number were committed by "union" men in the attempt to prevent the employment of "scab" labor. This series of outrages culminated, on June 6, in the killing of fifteen non-union miners by the explosion of dynamite at the Independence railroad station. The dastardly nature of this deed, which was at once attributed to the union leaders, although it was repudiated by them, so concentrated public sentiment against the strikers and their sympathizers that for the moment the demand for the hunting down and punishment of the perpetrators of the crime hardly stopped short of a demand for the absolute extinction of the miners' union. The sheriff and the other officers believed to be union sympathizers were compelled to resign, and those who took their places immediately swore in large forces of deputies. Adjutant-General Sherman Bell took command of the military, and many union men were arrested, charged with participation in the Independence outrage.

The Authorities and the Law.

Members of the union against whom no charge of participation in that crime was made were deported, at first to Denver, and later to the prairies of western Kansas. These men were taken from their homes by force, without "due process of law," and with no opportunity to confront their accusers in court. Presumably, innocent men were so treated in many instances, for it is no crime, even in Colorado, to belong to a labor union, and whatever may have been said or done by officers of the union to incite to violence, it is simply unbelievable that every miner



WHO IS "IT" IN COLORADO—THE GENERAL OR THE JUDGE?
From the *News-Tribune* (Duluth).



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ADJUTANT-GENERAL SHERMAN BELL, OF COLORADO.

who struck with his union was guilty of either acting or plotting against the public peace. The officials of the State government find justification for the suspension of the writ of *habeas corpus* in the decision of the Colorado Supreme Court, rendered on the very day of the Independence tragedy. The court fully sustained the action of Governor Peabody in suspending the writ in the case of President Moyer, of the Western Federation of Miners. It is inconceivable, however, that the court contemplated the forcible deportation of large numbers of citizens under the exercise of this prerogative. The miners have appealed to President Roosevelt, but this does not seem a proper case for federal intervention. Interstate commerce is not involved, as it was in the Pullman strike of 1894. Neither is the welfare of great numbers of people in other States at stake, as in the case of the anthracite strike of 1902. Colorado has her own system of laws, and her own officials to enforce them. What is needed just now in Colorado is a deeper respect for legally constituted authority and a greater readiness on the part of miner and mine-owner alike to submit all differences to the courts. The striking miners have enjoyed no monopoly in defiance of the laws. A constitutional amendment adopted by an overwhelming popular vote laid a mandate on the Legislature to enact an eight-hour law for mines and smelters. The Legislature adjourned without doing its duty. In this case it was the law-making body itself that defied the fundamental law of the State,—the people's will.

New York's Steamboat Horror.

Every summer, for many years, New York Bay and the adjacent waters have been alive with excursion steamers and all kinds of pleasure craft. Not only New Yorkers themselves, but thousands from near-by cities and surburban districts, and the annually increasing host of New York's summer visitors from distant places, have availed themselves of the many cheap excursions to the Jersey beaches, Long Island Sound, and up the Hudson that may be taken almost any day of the season, from May to October. Churches, Sunday-schools, fraternal societies, and many other organizations have long made it a practice to charter one of the steambeats specially built for the purpose and enjoy a day's sail and a picnic at some convenient resort. The boats employed in this traffic are nearly all wooden craft,—many of them side-wheelers,—and have a capacity of from two thousand to three thousand passengers. Considering the number of these boats in use around New York, and the fact that they are frequently overloaded, they have enjoyed a remarkable immunity from serious accidents. An excursion boat of this type,—the *General Slocum*,—left a New York dock on the morning of June 15 with a Sunday-school picnic party aboard numbering about eleven hundred,—nearly all women and children. While passing through that part of the East River known as Hell Gate, within the New York City limits, fire was discovered in the forward part of the vessel. It was then flood tide, and the eddies and currents in those waters are very strong. The captain decided that it would be folly to attempt to land on either shore, or to beach his boat. He therefore headed the *Slocum* for an island two miles up stream. As the boat went forward at full steam, the fore-and-aft draught thus created fanned the flames and hastened her destruction. On the discovery of the fire by

the passengers, the wildest panic ensued. It was found that the life-preservers with which the *Slocum* was equipped were worthless. No attempt was made to lower boats or life-rafts. The crew were engaged in trying to cope with the fire, but their efforts were futile. Within twenty minutes, the boat went to her doom, and of the women and helpless children who had embarked so gayly an hour before, more than nine hundred were drowned or burned to death. Hundreds were saved by the heroic efforts of policemen, river men, and the nurses on North Brother Island, the seat of New York's hospital for contagious diseases, where the *Slocum* was finally beached. Most of those who met this awful death had come from a single densely populated district of New York's great "East Side." In some cases, whole families were wiped out. The grief and distress among the survivors were most pitiful to witness. The city of New York took prompt measures to provide for relief funds; for it was found that money was needed to bury the dead and provide for the orphaned children.



VOLUNTEER LIFE-SAVERS IN THE "SLOCUM" HORROR.

(A group of New York river men, policemen, and others, who saved 110 lives and brought ashore 127 dead on the day of the disaster.)

Shall It Be Repeated?

As the seriousness of the disaster was gradually disclosed to the public the question that came to every one's lips was the same question that was asked six months ago, after the burning of the Iroquois Theater in Chicago—How could such a thing happen? It is certain that hundreds of lives might have been saved if the *Slocum* had been beached earlier, instead of running a two-mile course with the fire gaining headway every minute; but her captain did not believe it possible to beach her sooner, and experienced navigators differ as to the correctness of his judgment. The matter of vital interest to the public is not the fallibility of any individual's judgment in a great emergency, but rather the broad question, Are the steamboats navigating New York Harbor properly safeguarded against accident? It is charged that the *Slocum's* fire-extinguishing apparatus was wholly ineffective; that the woodwork used in her construction, where metal might have been used, was but fuel for the flames; that oil was carelessly stored and handled in her hold; that many of the life-preservers were old and rotten, and that all of them were stuffed with a granulated cork that lost all buoyancy when in contact with the water. A proper inspection might have secured a fire apparatus that would at least throw water and life-preservers that would float a human body. As to the inflammability of materials used in the construction of such craft, our practice and legislation are both obsolete. Modern metallic construction should be demanded in these boats as much as in ocean liners. Secretary Cortelyou, of the Department of Commerce and Labor, acting under special instructions from President Roosevelt, promptly organized a thoroughgoing inquiry into the whole affair. This inquest is likely to prove of great value, not merely in fixing the responsibility for this particular disaster, but in showing up the defects, if such there are, in the steamboat inspection of the federal government, and so pointing the way to reforms which will greatly strengthen public confidence in the service.

Siege of Port Arthur.

Interest in the far-Eastern war centers about Port Arthur. General Kuropatkin is hampered by transportation difficulties, and General Kuroki also has his troubles, caused by the poor condition of the roads and the necessity of keeping his communications intact. The activity of the campaign last month centered in the south, where the second Japanese army, under General Oku, was slowly pressing the siege of Port Arthur. Conflicting reports came of engagements between General Kuroki and the Russians in the vicinity



GENERAL VIEW OF PORT ARTHUR, SHOWING THE TOWN AND THE HARBOR ENTRANCE.
(In the foreground are shown sunken vessels, with which Admiral Togo has been endeavoring to block the harbor.)

of Liao-Yang. The Cossacks, under General Rennenkampf, defeated a Japanese squadron, on June 8, north of Feng-Wang-Cheng, on the road to Mukden. Later, however, the Japanese returned in force and defeated the Russians, capturing the towns of Samaja and Siu-Yen.

The Japanese Advance.

By May 25, the Japanese had advanced some forty thousand men along the narrowest point of the peninsula to Kinchow. Here the Russians made their stand with desperate valor. The Nanshan Hills, extending from Kinchow, on the western side of the peninsula, eastward in the direction of Dalny, afforded excellent opportunity for defense. The Russians had fortified the hills and manned them with the flower of the Port Arthur force, under command of Generals Fock and Zalinsky. After landing, and an advance which has called forth the praise of military experts all over the world for its precision, foresight, and science, the Japanese seized the city of Kinchow. Then came a series of tentative advances to ascertain the position of the enemy. They determined to take the Russian works by direct assault. Under cover of fire from the warships, and supported by their field artillery (invented, designed, and manufactured in Japan), division after division of General Oku's men waded through the water, breast-high, and charged up the hill.

A Japanese Victory.

A terrific fire from the Russian batteries caused tremendous destruction of life, and the Japanese admit that they lost 4,200 men killed and wounded in the charge. But they won the heights, and the Russians, after an heroic struggle in which 2,000 men were killed and wounded, retreated to Port Arthur, leaving 78 guns in the hands of the victors. The battle of Nanshan Hills proves even more conclusively than the fight on the Yalu the dash, patience, and military efficiency of the Japanese. Between these hills and the fortifications of Port Arthur itself only level country intervenes, and across this level country the Japanese are carefully advancing and bringing up siege guns which have been landed from their fleet at Dalny. By June 20, they were reported to be within five miles of the Russian works.

Attempt to Rescue Port Arthur.

As the Japanese lines began to close around Port Arthur by land and sea, the outside world had intimations of radical differences of opinion between Admiral Alexieff and General Kuropatkin as to the advisability of attempting to rescue the beleaguered fortress. General Kuropatkin's plans, it was reported, had not considered the rescue of Port Arthur, and the Czar, despite the urgent demands of Admiral Alexieff and other members of the cabinet, had declined to order Kuropatkin to attempt the rescue, although asking his ad-

vice as to its possibility. Subsequent efforts, however, would indicate that the Russian military commander in the far East had decided to make a demonstration southward toward Port Arthur to satisfy the demands of the critics at the capital. After the severe Russian defeat at the battle of Nanshan Hills, Admiral Alexieff and General Kuropatkin appeared to have agreed upon a southward movement by General Stakelberg, with forty thousand men, and a sortie from Port Arthur, while, at the same time, Vice-Admiral Skrydloff conducted his raid from Vladivostok, destroying the Japanese transports *Izumi*, *Hitachi*, and *Sado*, thus depriving General Oku of his needed reënforcements and relieving the tension at Port Arthur.

A Russian Defeat.

General Stakelberg, however, met with a disastrous defeat at Vafangow (or Telissu), a point on the railroad about eighty miles north of Port Arthur. In a sanguinary three days' battle, beginning June 14, General Oku, who had detached 35,000 men from his Port Arthur army, defeated the Russians, inflicting a loss of 3,000 men, and capturing 300 prisoners and a number of guns. General Stakelberg retreated northward in disorder, pursued by the Japanese. The battle of Vafangow was most sanguinary. Each side fought with desperate valor. The Russian advance across a plain swept by two hundred heavy guns from the Japanese intrenchments was especially fine. In so far as General Stakelberg's movement forced General Oku to divert his attention temporarily from Port Arthur to his northern communications, it was a success. But by June 21 General Kuroki had advanced to the railroad north of the defeated Russians, with the object of cutting off their retreat. In the battle and retreat, up to June 21, it was estimated that General Stakelberg's losses aggregated fully ten thousand men. General Kuropatkin himself was reported to be advancing southward, and a general engagement was expected at any time.

Three Japanese Transports Sunk.

After the destruction of the battleship *Hatsuse* (on May 15), several weeks passed with quiet on the sea. Admiral Togo kept up his vigilant watch at the harbor of Port Arthur, and protected the Japanese transports which were landing the armies in Manchuria. Since the evacuation of Dalny by the Russians, the Japanese had been using that town as a sort of new naval base. The Vladivostok fleet then became active again. Vice-Admiral Skrydloff is apparently justifying the confidence his countrymen have placed in



GENERAL OKU, COMMANDING THE JAPANESE SECOND ARMY.

(Who is besieging Port Arthur, and who defeated the Russians at Nanshan Hill and Vafangow.)

him. In a very daring raid from Vladivostok, on June 15, the Russian squadron of three cruisers, the *Rossia*, the *Rurik*, and the *Gromoboi*, cruised southward and overhauled three Japanese transports, the *Izumi*, the *Hitachi*, and the *Sado*, which they torpedoed and sank; fourteen hundred men were lost. A British collier, the *Allanton*, laden with coal, was also captured and taken to Vladivostok for adjudication by a prize court. It is rumored that Admiral Kamimura, who was guarding the east coast of the empire, overtook the squadron and gave them battle, but at this writing (June 21) the story of the sea fight has not been confirmed. With the loss of the *Hatsuse*, the Japanese fighting strength on the sea has been reduced by one-sixth. The Russian fleet in the far East now consists of six battleships (three of these may not be available for service) and five cruisers, and the Japanese, five battleships and eighteen cruisers. Mr. Benjamin's article on naval engines of destruction, in this number of the REVIEW, throws interesting sidelights on the war on the sea.

Russia's Internal Troubles.

The shooting of General Bobrikoff, governor-general of Finland, on June 15, by a member of the opposition to the Russification policy, is a forceful reminder of the serious internal condition of the empire. The economic depression and political discon-



THE LIAO-TUNG PENINSULA AND VICINITY.

(Vafangow, or Telissu, cannot be located on available maps. On the above plan it would be shown somewhere on the railroad between Fou-chou and Kaiping.)

tent in Russia are accentuated by the war. According to reliable information, trade seems to be paralyzed, and an economic crisis is likely to affect the political situation. A number of large firms in Moscow have become insolvent, and business in Poland and Siberia is practically at a standstill, with thousands of people out of work. Business of all kinds is practically dead in Vladivostok, and the sea trade of the Black Sea ports, Odessa principally, is in an alarming condition. The Russian volunteer fleet, the leading subsidized shipping concern of Russia, has practically ceased business. One of the fleet has been captured by the Japanese, another is shut up in Port Arthur, and the rest of the vessels are lying at home ports awaiting orders.

Nihilism and Desertion.

Persistent reports of many desertions from the Russian army come from widely scattered points, and, owing to a fear of socialistic propaganda, the government has not, so far, been able to mobilize troops in the manufacturing districts. The danger of insurrection and Nihilism grows daily with the increasing taxes and the incompetence and unreadiness of the governing classes. General Bobrikoff was one of the most hated representatives of the autocracy, and General Wahl, who has been appointed to succeed him, will no doubt continue his policy. Finland's case against Bobrikoff is presented in our "Leading Articles of the Month." Almost two hundred years ago, Peter the Great ordered his subjects to put on Western civilization. Mutsuhito commanded his subjects to do the same one hundred and fifty years later. But, although Russia has had a century and a half the start, Western civilization is still to her an outer garment, while the Japanese have made it a part of their national life.

New War Loans.

Both combatants have found pressing need for the sinews of war. Japan has raised two loans of $50,000,000 each. One was on 6 per cent. bonds, issued at 93½, one-half being marketed in New York and one-half in London. The entire loan was heavily



BARON KENTARO KANEKO.

(Baron Kaneko, a samurai, and a distinguished member of the Japanese House of Peers, has just made a tour of the United States for the purpose of studying economic conditions and of reporting to his government on the advance of American machinery as exhibited at St. Louis. Baron Kaneko graduated from the Harvard Law School in 1878. Later, he became professor of law in the Imperial University, at Tokio, and then one of the secretaries of the Foreign Department of the empire, rising to the position of minister of state for agriculture and commerce. He has also been chief secretary of the House of Peers and minister of justice.)

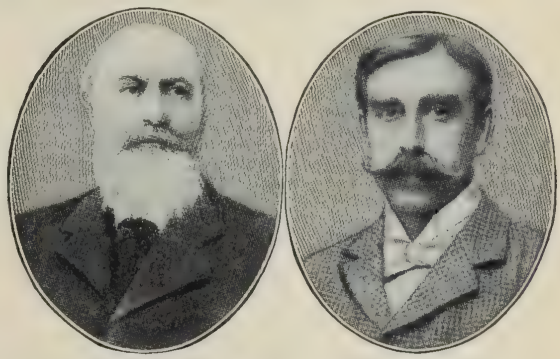


MULAI-ABD-EL-AZIZ, SULTAN OF MOROCCO.

oversubscribed, and prices advanced to 96. A second popular loan of $50,000,000 was issued at 95, payable in five years, at 5 per cent. This was also heavily oversubscribed. The Russian bonds for $160,000,000, at 5 per cent. interest, payable in 1909, are exempt from all taxation. This loan was raised largely in France. The credit of Japan is high, as she has always been regarded as a good debtor. She has only been borrowing on government bonds since 1870, and all her obligations have been met strictly on time, on a number of noteworthy occasions before maturity. Russian credit has always been good, but Russia's power to borrow must, it would seem, depend in a large degree upon her internal stability—of which some dubious reports are now reaching us. The cost of the war will undoubtedly greatly depress the productive power in both countries.

The Kidnaping in Morocco.

It comes as an odd coincidence that a United States naval commander, with United States war vessels, should be carrying out in Morocco, in the first years of the twentieth century, what an American commander, with American ships of war, was doing in the opening years of the nineteenth. In 1804, Captain Decatur attacked and chas-



Ion Perdicaris. Cromwell Varley.

THE AMERICAN AND BRITISH CITIZENS CAPTURED AND HELD BY THE MOROCCAN BANDIT, RAISULI.

tised the "Barbary pirates" for attacks on American commerce. It is a far cry from his frigate, the *Philadelphia*, to the splendid warship the *Brooklyn*, upon which Rear-Admiral Chadwick flies his flag to-day. With the internal troubles of Morocco we have no concern, and our government has acquiesced in the provisions of the Anglo-French agreement by which France's preponderance of influence in Morocco is recognized. The presence of American and British warships in the harbor of Tangier for several weeks in May and June was due solely to the fact that an American citizen, Ion Perdicaris, and a British subject, Cromwell Varley, had been captured by a Moorish bandit, Muley Ahmed, or Raisuli, as he is called, a descendant of the most venerated of Moroccan chiefs, and held for the purpose of extorting money and other concessions from the unhappy Sultan. Raisuli seems

to be a man of ability and power. He has several strongholds in inaccessible mountain districts, and the Sultan is practically in his power, as the American and British governments are demanding the safe return of their citizens and the Sultan's treasury is bankrupt. Raisuli originally demanded fifty thousand dollars and certain other conditions which would give him immunity from punishment and practical political authority over the districts he now controls. Later, he demanded more.



CAPTAIN STEPHEN DECATUR.
(The American naval officer who chastised the "Barbary pirates" in 1804.)

We Ask France's Good Offices.

Recognizing France's peculiar position of authority in Morocco, our State Department requested the coöperation of the French Government in securing the release of Mr. Perdicaris (who, by the way, has been a resident of Tangier for many years, and is an American in nothing but his naturalization papers). If Raisuli, with all his piracy, can wring from the Sultan some concessions which will make for better government in Morocco, the world will forgive him for this particular kidnaping. It will certainly follow with the best of good wishes France's effort to civilize the country. The introduction of a general school system by the French is noted on page 117 of this REVIEW.

England at War with Tibet.

The lamas having succeeded in thoroughly arousing the Tibetans, the British "mission" suffered a siege in Gyangtze, with, however, communications still open with India. Two thousand natives armed with antiquated muskets, known as jingals, bombarded the little British force under Colonel Younghusband for days. Mr. Brodrick, secretary for India, has said in the House of Commons



REAR-ADMIRAL CHADWICK.
(In command of the American squadron before Tangier.)

that China and Tibet have been informed that unless they consent to negotiate at Gyangtze within a certain date, the "mission" will advance to Lassa, the sacred city. The lamas refused to forward Colonel Younghusband's letter to Lassa, and the authorities at the capital will not permit the Amban (the representative of Chinese suzerainty) to go to Gyangtze. Meanwhile, the British were bombarded daily, and reënforcements, in both guns and men, are being sent from India. The fictions of a peaceful mission and Chinese suzerainty have been dropped; it is now war between Great Britain and Tibet. The utter incapacity of the natives in a military sense is shown by the fact that 1,600 of them, behind strong walls, at the sides of the narrow Karo Pass, could not keep back 150 Gurkas with a few British officers. The Indian contingent captured the pass. This was the situation in the middle of June. Meanwhile, it was reported on reliable authority that Russia had concentrated 125,000 seasoned troops beyond the Caucasus.



TIBETANS BOMBARDING THE BRITISH WITH THE JINGAL, A CURIOUS GIANT MUSKET.

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

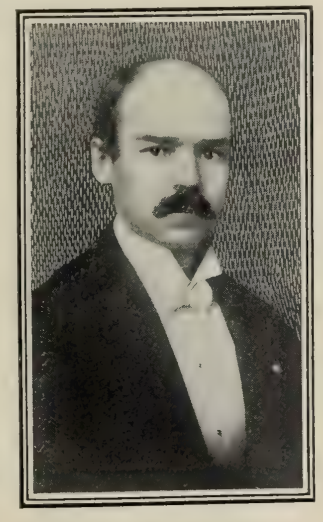
(From May 21 to June 20, 1904.)

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

May 25.—Alabama and Tennessee Democrats choose Parker delegates to the St. Louis convention.

May 27.—Maryland Democrats choose delegates to St. Louis pledged to Senator Gorman.

May 31.—The United States Supreme Court upholds the constitutionality of the tax on oleomargarine.... Illinois Republicans reconvene at Springfield, Governor Yates retaining his lead.



CHARLES S. LOBINGIER, OF NEBRASKA.

(Judge of the Court of First Instance in the Philippines.)

June 1.—Georgia Democrats instruct for Parker; Michigan and Oklahoma delegates remain uncommitted; and Nebraska Democrats adopt the Bryan platform.

June 3.—Illinois Republicans nominate Charles S. Deneen for governor on the seventy-ninth ballot.

June 6.—Oregon elects Republican Congressmen and candidates for minor State offices....The explosion of an infernal machine beneath a station platform in the Cripple Creek mining district of Colorado causes the death of fifteen non-union miners; rioting breaks out at Victor and at other points, and the sheriff and other local officers are compelled to resign.

June 8.—Six of the striking miners in the Cripple Creek district of Colorado are killed by the militia, and fifteen prisoners are taken.

June 10.—Governor Pennypacker, of Pennsylvania, appoints Attorney-General Knox to the United States Senate to serve the unexpired portion of the late Senator Quay's term, ending on March 4, 1905.

June 14.—Illinois Democrats instruct their delegates to St. Louis to vote as a unit for W. R. Hearst for the Presidential nomination.

June 15.—Republican National Committee meets in Chicago....Arkansas and Mississippi Democrats instruct their delegates to St. Louis for Parker.

June 16.—Maj.-Gen. H. C. Corbin is ordered to command the Division of the Philippines, succeeding Maj.-Gen. J. F. Wade.

June 17.—The Republican National Committee, by unanimous vote, decides to put the "Stalwart," or Spooner, delegates from Wisconsin on the convention roll, rejecting the claims of the La Follette delegates.

June 18.—Secretary Cortelyou, of the Department of Commerce and Labor, begins an investigation of the *General Slocum* disaster at New York, by which nine hundred persons lost their lives.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

May 21.—The Spanish Council of Ministers approves the budget.

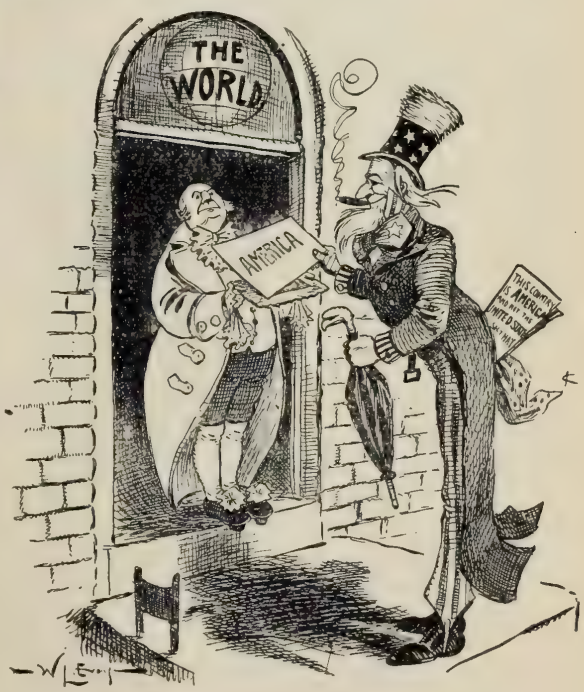
May 23.—The Cape government is defeated by 43 votes to 33 on a proposal for the reduction of the estimates.

May 26.—The Santo Domingo insurgents are victorious in a battle with the government troops at Esperanza; General Cabrera, minister of war, is killed.

May 27.—The French Chamber of Deputies debates the relations between France and the Vatican, and a resolution in favor of the government is carried....Sir F. Borden's amendment to the Grand Trunk Railway bill in the Canadian Parliament is rejected by a vote of 105 to 59.

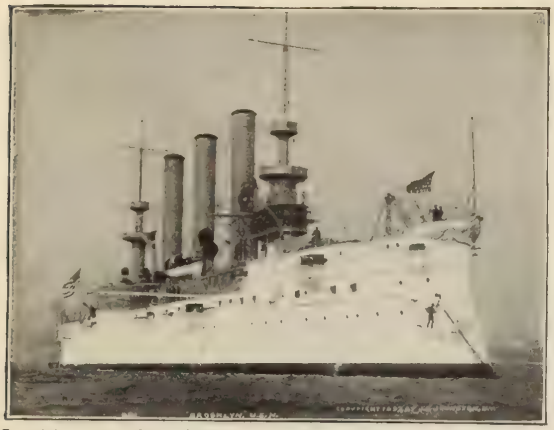
May 28.—The Cape Parliament is prorogued to July 29, 1904.

May 30.—The result of the elections in Belgium is to give the opposition two more seats in the upper and five in the lower chamber.



UNCLE SAM: "My name may be changed, but I am still the same old Uncle Sam."—From the *Leader* (Cleveland).

[Secretary Hay has issued an order substituting the inscription "American Consulates" for "United States Consulates."]



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THE UNITED STATES CRUISER "BROOKLYN."

(Admiral Chadwick's flagship in the Mediterranean.)

June 6.—Two regiments and detachments of artillery and engineers are ordered to reënforce the British expedition in Tibet.

June 8.—A bill providing for the construction of twenty-eight warships is introduced in the Brazilian Congress.

June 10.—On the statement of Premier Combes, in the French Chamber of Deputies, that two million francs had been offered to them to bring in a bill to keep the Carthusian monks in France, an investigation is ordered.

June 11.—It is announced that Earl Grey will succeed Lord Minto as governor-general of Canada.

June 12.—Manuel Quintana is elected president of Argentina, and José Pardo president of Peru.

June 13.—It is announced that the Council of the Empire in Russia has approved M. Plehve's bill for the repeal of the law under which Jews are forbidden to reside within thirty-two miles of the frontier.

June 16.—General Count Bobrikoff, governor-general of Finland, is shot and mortally wounded at the entrance to the Finnish Senate, at Helsingfors.

June 18.—Japan's second issue of exchequer bonds is more than three times oversubscribed.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

May 21.—It is announced that the French ambassador to the Vatican has been recalled by his government.

May 23.—France refuses to send chargés d'affaires to Rome.

May 26.—The Czar of Russia receives the new British ambassador, Sir Charles Hardinge....The British Government publishes an outline of a scheme of financial and military reorganization proposed by Sir Robert Hart, inspector-general of the Chinese maritime customs.

May 28.—The United States rejects demands made by the brigands who kidnaped Ion Perdicaris in Morocco.

May 31.—Ambassador Porter, at Paris, induces France to promise to use her good offices to effect the release of Perdicaris, now in the hands of brigands in Morocco.

June 1.—The United States Government notifies the Moorish authorities that Raisuli, the bandit leader, is held personally responsible for the lives of his captives, Perdicaris and Varley, and that his execution will be demanded if his prisoners are put to death.

June 8.—The Cuban Senate ratifies the Isle of Pines treaty with the United States.

June 10.—The joint commission appointed by the governments of the United States and Panama to consider the question of coinage for Panama assembled in Washington.

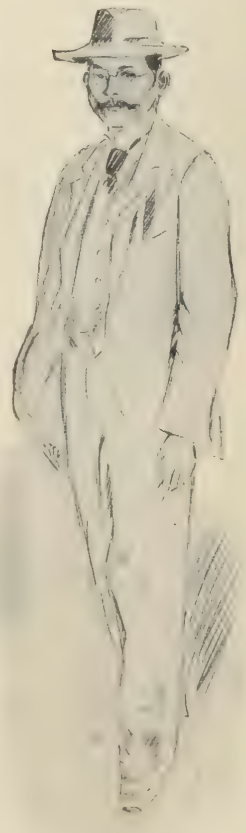
June 13.—Lord Lansdowne speaks in the British House of Lords on the objections raised by Great Britain to the application of the United States coast-trade laws to the Philippines.

June 14.—King Victor Emmanuel, of Italy, decides a dispute between Brazil and Great Britain over the Guiana frontier.

THE RUSSO-JAPANESE WAR.

May 22.—The Russians are reoccupying Newchwang.

May 23.—It is announced that the cruiser *Bogatyr*, which went on the rocks off Vladivostok, was blown up by the Russians, as it was impossible to save the ship.... Admiral Skrydloff arrives at Vladivostok.



CAPTAIN HIRAOKA, THE JAPANESE PRESS CENSOR.

(Who has so carefully guarded the Japanese military secrets that the correspondents are entirely dependent on him for information about the war.)

May 25.—The Japanese resume their forward movement; they again bombard Port Arthur.

May 26.—The Japanese, after a great battle which lasts sixteen hours, capture Kinchow and also Nanshan Hill, the extreme left of the Russian position. The Japanese pursue the Russians south and capture seventy-eight guns. The casualties on both sides are very heavy, those of Japan being 3,500; the Russians leave 500 dead on the field of battle. The Russians retreat on Port Arthur.

May 30.—The Japanese encounter and defeat 2,000 Cossacks near Feng-Wang-Cheng; General Oku informs his government that he has occupied Dalny, the docks, piers, and railway station being quite uninjured.

June 1.—General Kuropatkin reports the occupation of Samaja by the Japanese.

June 3.—Two thousand Russians, infantry, cavalry, and artillery, are defeated by Japanese



A JAPANESE FIELD OBSERVATORY.

(The Japanese army is making use of ladders, spars, trees, etc., as lookout towers, according to the nature of the country through which it is marching.)

troops north of Polantien....In the fight near Samaja, six hundred Russians are repulsed by the Japanese.

June 6.—General Kuropatkin's staff moves its quarters to a point about forty miles south of Liao-Yang.

June 7.—The Russians are driven from the town of Samaja with a loss of 100 killed and wounded....A Japanese squadron of seventeen vessels shelled the west coast of the Liao-tung Peninsula in the neighborhood of Kai-Ting and Seniuchen.

June 8.—The Japanese capture Siu-Yen, flanking and driving back the Russians; the engagement lasts six hours.

June 12.—The bodies of 704 Russians left on the field after the battle of Nanshan are buried by the Japanese ....The Japanese are reported as fortifying Siu-Yen.

June 14.—Two Japanese divisions, numbering about 20,000 men, engage the Russian position near Vafangow, north of Polantien; the Russian losses are heavy, all the guns being abandoned.

June 16.—The Russian Vladivostok squadron returns to that harbor after a successful raid in the Japan Sea in which it sinks three Japanese transports.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

May 23.—An International Cotton Congress opens at Zurich.

May 27.—The International Tuberculosis Congress opens at Copenhagen....A tornado destroys the town of New Liberty, Ill.

May 30.—President Roosevelt makes an address on the battlefield of Gettysburg.

June 1.—The tenth annual conference on arbitration opens at Lake Mohonk, N. Y.

June 3.—Walter J. Travis, an American, wins the golf championship of the world.

June 4.—A tornado wipes out several towns in Oklahoma.

June 15.—The steamer *General Slocum*, carrying an excursion of St. Mark's German Lutheran Church, New York City, catches fire in the East River, and more than nine hundred lives are lost, most of the victims being women and children.

OBITUARY.

May 22.—Richard C. Dale, a distinguished Philadelphia lawyer, 51.

May 23.—Col. Augustus C. Buell, a well-known author and civil engineer, 57.

May 24.—Ex-Judge Myer S. Isaacs, president of the Baron de Hirsch Fund, 63.

May 26.—Charlton T. Lewis, the well-known lawyer and editor of standard classical dictionaries, 70....Maj.-Gen. Sir John McNeill, V.C., 73....Prof. William Henry Pettee, of the University of Michigan, 66.... Auguste Wiegand, the famous Belgian organist and composer, 52.

May 27.—Friedrich Siemens, the German industrial leader, 77.

May 28.—United States Senator Matthew Stanley Quay, of Pennsylvania, 71....Dr. Ralph M. Isham, for nearly half a century one of the leading physicians of Chicago, 73....Arthur W. Pulver, general attorney for the Chicago & Northwestern Railway Company, 45 ....Ex-Congressman Joseph B. Cheadle, of Indiana, 62 ....Major Mann Page, of Virginia, 65.

May 30.—Mayor Robert M. McLane, of Baltimore, 36 ....Grand Duke Friedrich Wilhelm of Mecklenburg-Strelitz, 85.

May 31.—David R. Fraser, of Chicago, one of the founders of what is now the Allis-Chalmers Company, 80.

June 1.—Samuel R. Callaway, president of the American Locomotive Company and former president of the New York Central, 54.

June 3.—Walter S. Carter, a well-known New York lawyer, 71....Dr. Robert P. Keep, of Farmington, Conn., head of a famous girls' school, 60.

June 5.—Elisha S. Converse, a well-known Massachusetts philanthropist, 84.

June 9.—Levi Z. Leiter, of Chicago, 70.

June 10.—Laurence Hutton, the author and critic, 61.

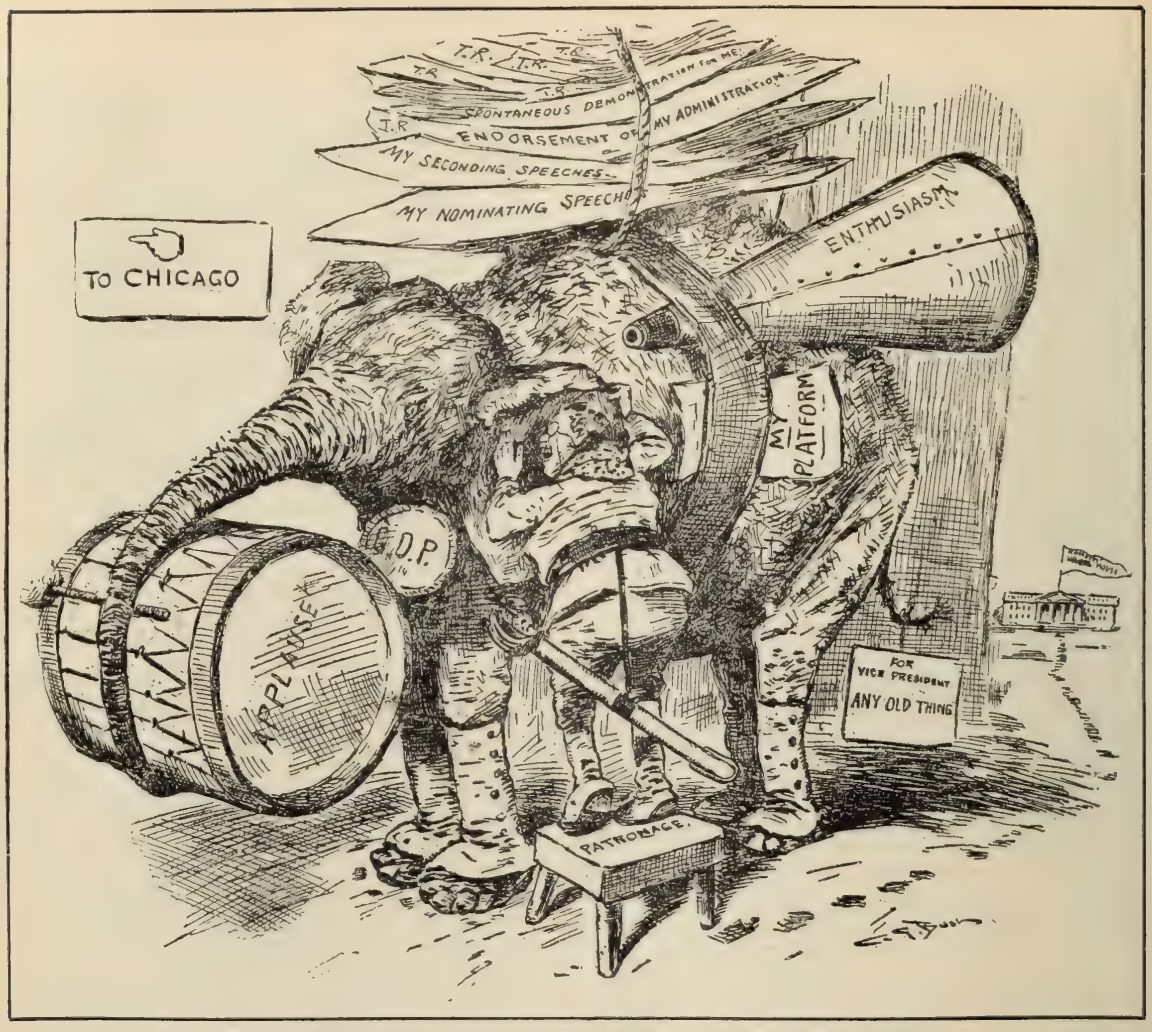
June 11.—Abner McKinley, brother of the President, 54.

June 13.—Edwin Dean Worcester, secretary of the New York Central Railroad Company, 75....Dr. John Grant, an aggressive Republican leader in Texas, 52.

June 14.—Frederick Walcott Jackson, president of the board of directors of the United Railroads of New Jersey, 77.

June 16.—Dr. Nathan Smith Davis, an eminent physician of Chicago, 87.

June 17.—Rear-Admiral James A. Greer, U.S.N., retired, 71....Governor-General Bobrikoff, of Finland.



HIS LAST INSTRUCTIONS: "Whoop 'er up!"—From the *World* (New York).

CURRENT HISTORY IN CARTOONS.

UNCERTAINTY and rivalry in a political campaign are the most fruitful sources of cartoon and invective. The absolute unanimity of Republicans in the renomination of President Roosevelt, and his personal ascendency, have not been stimulating to the pencils of the cartoonists. Mr. Bush's summing up of the case, as we reproduce it above, is so true and convincing that it stands for the general opinion. Contrast with this the uncertainty of the Democratic situation, shown in the other picture on this page, in which clever use is made of the "floating mine" to indicate the



FLOATING MINES.—From the *Globe* (New York).



THE CONVENTION HAS ARRIVED.
From the *Herald* (New York).



NOT A CLOUD IN SIGHT.
(Except that made by the factory chimneys.)
From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).



G. O. P.: "There's my man; where's yours?"
DEMOCRACY; "Oh, I'm waiting for an inspiration."
From the *Globe* (New York).



HE KNOWS THE KEYS.
(Mr. Cortelyou's rise in public life has been very rapid, as it is less than ten years since he joined the White House staff as stenographer to President Cleveland.)
From the *Brooklyn Eagle* (New York).

slips which may yet be between Judge Parker and his nomination. Secretary Cortelyou's appointment to the chairmanship of the Republican National Committee, and Mr. Knox's resignation from the cabinet to succeed the late Mr. Quay as Senator from Pennsylvania, are also well "hit off" in current cartoons. It must be admitted, however, that the past month has not shown any very brilliant work on the part of the cartoonists.

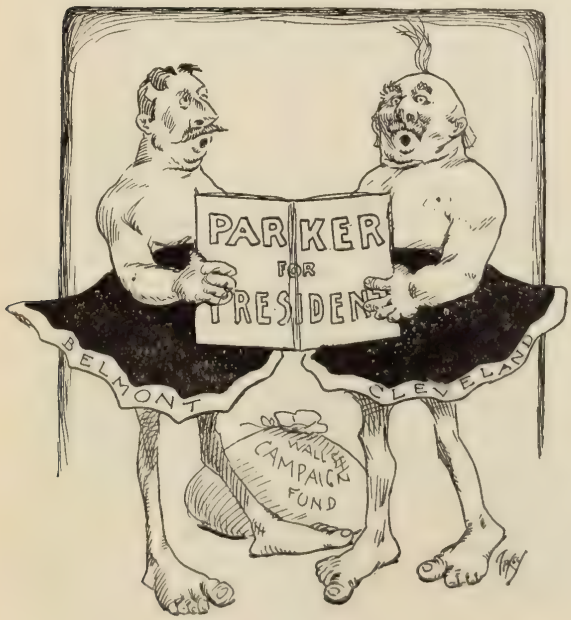


HE HAS A NEW JOB.
KNOX: "Mr. Roosevelt, you'll have to get somebody else to tend to this pig, because Mr. Penn wants me to go to work for him."—From the *Journal* (Kansas City).



WILLIAM JENNINGS BRYAN (in window): "You'll be cheated if you take him, madam; he can't talk."

From the *Journal* (Detroit).



"LET THE GOLD-DUST TWINS DO YOUR WORK."

From the *Press* (New York).



MISS DEMOCRACY: "Please, Mr. Science, will you turn your red ants loose on that fellow?"

From the *Globe* (New York).



THE COLOSSUS WITH THE FEET OF CLAY.

"Take care, Japan! if you break the other leg he will fall on you and crush you."—From *Simplicissimus* (Berlin).

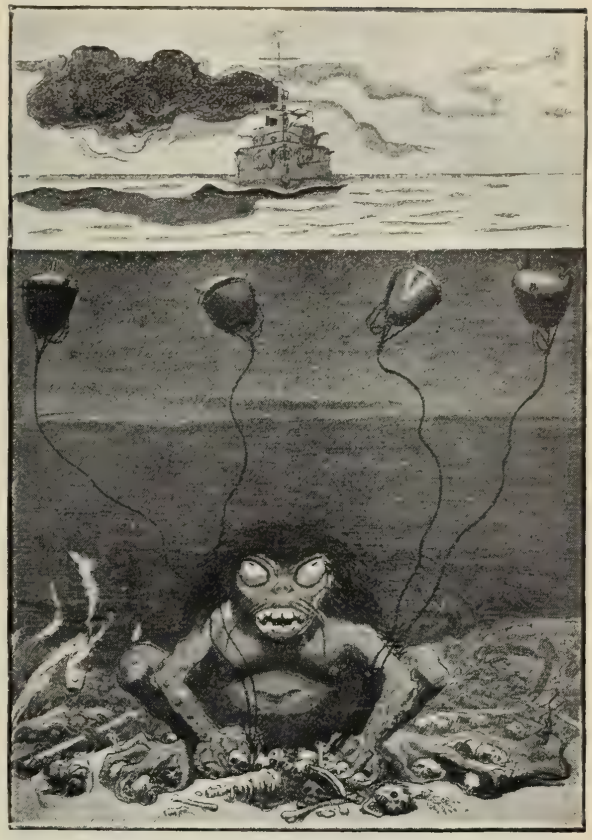
Cartoons on the war situation in the far East still deal principally with the naval victories of Japan, although the operations on land are beginning to attract the attention of the comic journals. The losses of Russia and Japan by mines inspire a number of cartoons, and especial reference is being made in the German weeklies to the deadliness of the contact mines. Port Arthur still furnishes subject for "bottling" jokes. The situation in Morocco comes in for some treatment, and the Continental attitude is fairly well represented in the cartoon we reproduce from *Kladderadatsch*, of Berlin, which represents Uncle Sam joining with England and France to extort money from the unhappy Sultan.



THIRD IN THE LEAGUE.

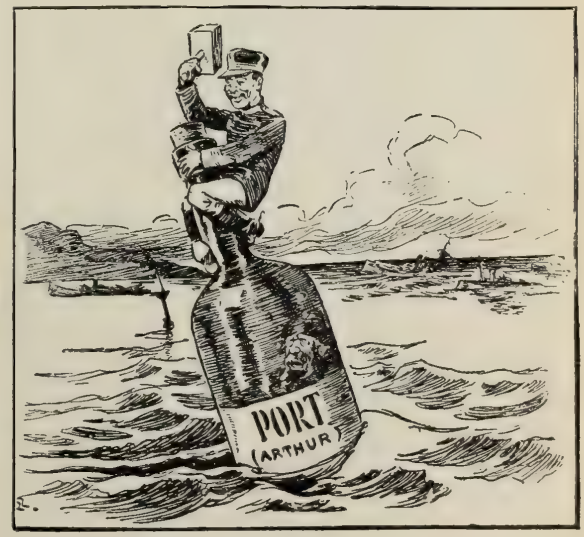
"Thank Heaven! Now I have a chance," exclaims Uncle Sam when he hears that an American citizen has been captured by the Moroccan pirate, Raisuli.

From *Kladderadatsch* (Berlin).



THE MINE PERIL IN THE YELLOW SEA.

From *Lustige Blätter* (Berlin).



"BOTTLED UP."

From the *Daily Despatch* (London).



THE RUSSIAN GULLIVER AND THE JAPANESE LILLIPUTIANS.
(The most popular cartoon in Moscow).

Russian cartoons on the war make contempt for the Japanese army and navy their most prominent feature. Most of these cartoons are variations on the one theme, of vast and mighty Russia chastising puny little Japan. The favorites are not those which appear in periodicals, but those which are sold as large popular pictures known as *Lubochnyya Kartiny*, or "Popular Pictures," published by several firms in Moscow. A large number breathe a spirit of hostility to Great Britain and the United States for their pro-Japanese feelings.



COSSACK SPANKING THE MIKADO.
(From one of the most popular cartoons sold on the streets of Moscow.)



THE MIKADO AND HIS TRICKY FRIENDS, JOHN BULL AND UNCLE SAM.
(From one of the popular street cartoons.)



THE RUSSIAN SAILOR MAN CUTTING OFF JAP NOSES.
(From a popular street cartoon.)



ADMIRAL ALEXIEFF WATCHES THE PROGRESS OF EVENTS.

(From a Japanese cartoon, on a towel, sold on the streets of Tokio. Read from right to left, in Japanese fashion.)

The Japanese are particularly proud of their success on the water. "We always knew we could acquit ourselves creditably on land," said a prominent Japanese in New York, "but we were not quite sure of ourselves on the sea. The victories of Admiral Togo have been great causes for national rejoicing." Japanese cartoons have these naval victories for their principal subjects. They do not appear very largely in the newspapers, but are printed separately, and are sold on the streets of Japanese cities. A favorite style is that printed in blue on hand towels. We reproduce several of the most popular.



JAPANESE SAILORS COMPEL RUSSIAN SHIPS TO WALK HOME.

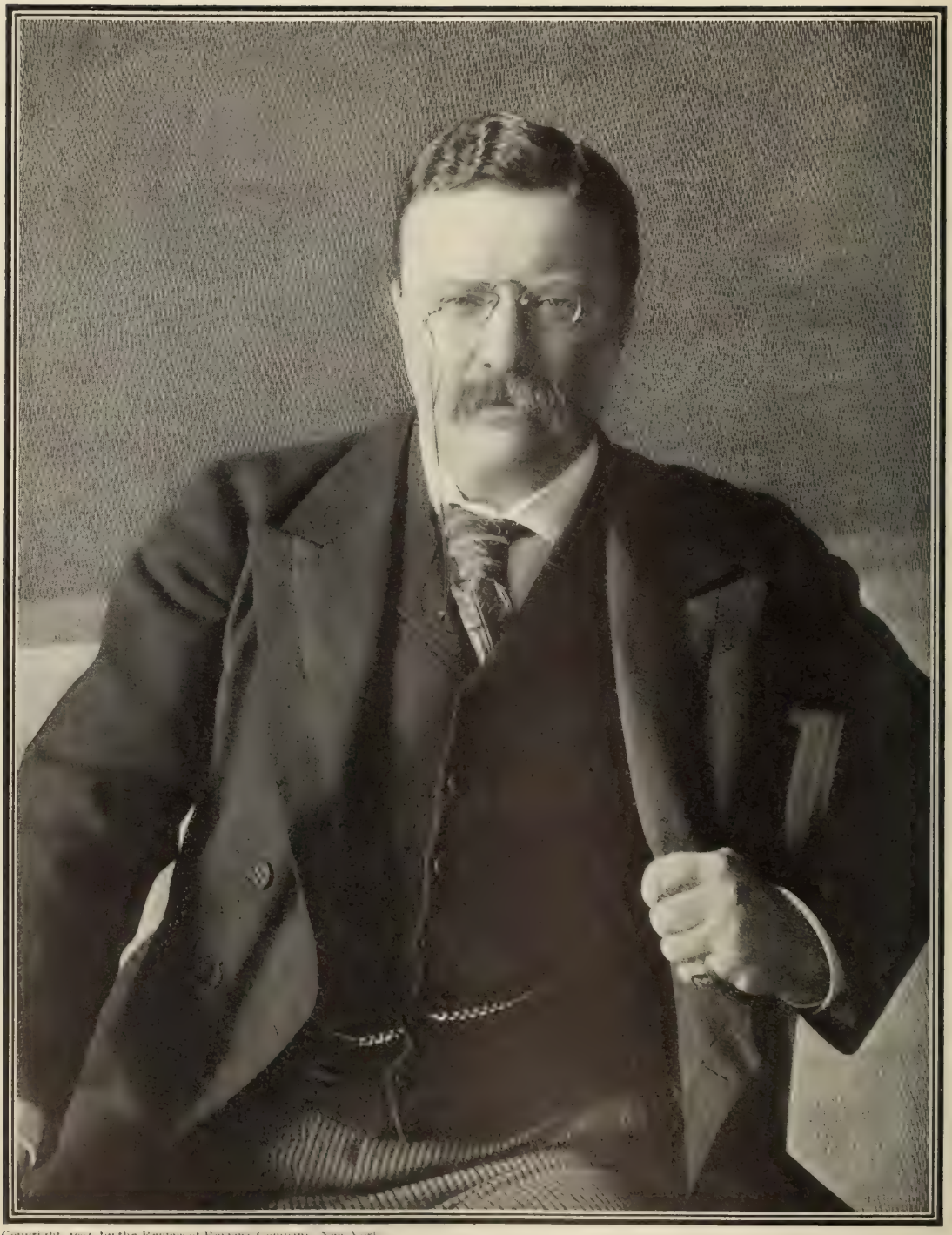
(From a Japanese cartoon sold on the streets.)



While Admiral Alexieff and the other Russian commanders were at the theater in Port Arthur, on February 8, their ships were torpedoed in the harbor.



(From a Japanese cartoon, on a towel, sold on the streets.)



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PRESIDENT THEODORE ROOSEVELT.

THEODORE ROOSEVELT AS A PRESIDENTIAL CANDIDATE.

BY A DELEGATE TO THE NATIONAL REPUBLICAN CONVENTION.

THERE has been no time, for nearly two years past, when it was not certain that Theodore Roosevelt would be nominated for the Presidency by the Republican party with actual or substantial unanimity. The party at large made up its mind to bring that result about before Mr. Roosevelt had been a full year in the White House. From that time to the present, the party organizers and machine leaders have been as chips borne by a swiftly flowing current. Whatever other plans they may have had were quickly abandoned, and with more or less heartiness they have accepted the inevitable.

From the day following the Ohio election of 1903 to the middle of last January, those who dislike and distrust Mr. Roosevelt fought desperately to prevent his nomination in June. The Ohio election, with its rousing majority for Governor Herrick and its strongly Republican legislature, brought Senator Hanna into new prominence. The Waldorf-Astoria, some well-known Wall Street banking houses, and even the Republican and Union League Clubs in New York, were soon the scenes of anxious conferences and earnest scheming to "beat Roosevelt." Senator Hanna was besought to come out as an open candidate. Had he done so, and had he lived, the result would not have been different; although there would have been in a few States a sharp and, doubtless, bitter struggle. But Senator Hanna knew more about public opinion than did his eager supporters among the bankers and promoters. He knew that any attempt to buy the Republican nomination away from Theodore Roosevelt would, if successful, send the party to a smashing defeat. So he listened, but kept on saying "No."

The leaders in the anti-Roosevelt crusade of a few months ago were Wall Street promoters, mainly Democrats. Their favorite saying was that Mr. Roosevelt was "unsafe." They must have winced when, in February, Mr. Root went back to New York from his truly great career in Washington, and stood up in the Union League Club there to tell the Republican element of this contingent for what sort of people Mr. Roosevelt was "unsafe." The burning words of the eloquent war secretary blistered many a weather-beaten hide in Wall Street and out of it.

Besides being "unsafe," Wall Street—or the gambling part of it—thought Mr. Roosevelt to be "impetuous." This sapient conclusion was deduced from the undoubted fact that he did not consult them or issue "tips" before taking administrative action, or before instructing the Attorney-General to commence suit against one of their pet organizations, when the law officers of the Government reported that it existed in violation of law. So interpreted, Mr. Roosevelt's action was undoubtedly "impetuous."

Beyond this Wall Street opposition and that which was purchased or otherwise stirred up by it, there has at no time been any opposition to Theodore Roosevelt's election inside the Republican party, and not very much outside of it. The Democrats of the South are necessarily left out of the reckoning. They prefer dead political delusions to live political principles. If the Apostle Paul were to return to earth and sit at the same table with Booker Washington, a thousand communities in the South would burn his Epistles in the market-place and the Southern newspapers would be bedlam let loose.

So it happens that Theodore Roosevelt faces the next Presidential election with his own party enthusiastically behind him and the opposition hopeless of his defeat, and, on the whole, not very anxious for it. It is a rather remarkable situation. The explanation, however, is simple. It is the conquest of American public opinion by a strong, perhaps a great, personality, honest, fearless, sympathetic, and just. Readers of American history will find an instructive parallel if they will study carefully the events leading up to the reëlection of Andrew Jackson and to that of Abraham Lincoln.

The American people like Theodore Roosevelt, and they believe in him. They take no interest in what *The Commoner*, or the New York *Sun*, or the New York *Evening Post*, or the Springfield *Republican*, or the Boston *Herald* say about him; in fact, they hardly read it. They watch the man, and they make up their own minds. They are not such fools as some editors and politicians seem to think.

In one sense of the word, there are no political issues this year. The stupid result of the effort of the New York Democrats to write a



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MRS. THEODORE ROOSEVELT.

platform that would have national significance at once sent the promising Parker boom into temporary, perhaps permanent, retirement. Yet no one else has come forward with anything better. The Democrats are trying to leave off favoring free silver and attacking the Supreme Court. For the good of the country, it is to be hoped that they will succeed. Theoretically, they want the tariff revised; practically, they do not want it revised very much, or, at least, they are not willing to say that they do. They can hardly ask us to give up building the Panama Canal or to repeal the measure that gave Cuba reciprocal trade relations with us, or to go back to an antiquated and ineffective military system and a navy of wooden tubs, or to stop trying to give the country an honest and progressive administration. Economical, no American administration can be while public opinion and Congressional methods are what they are. The Democrats may, perhaps, contribute to a shindy in the Philippine Islands by making an academic declaration as to the distant future by way of an offset to the Republican policy of giving the Filipinos civil liberty and an education in the art of just and orderly government; but as an "issue," that will prove pretty feeble, for it will drive away Democratic votes from their candidate without getting him any Republican votes in return.

But if there are no political issues, what is the Presidential election of 1904 to be about? It is to be about Theodore Roosevelt, and nothing else. The voting population has but one question to answer this year, and that question is, Do you want Theodore Roosevelt as President for four years more? The Democratic candidate may be Cleveland, or McClellan, or Francis, or Harmon, or Parker, but this one question states the issue.

The result, as the returns from Oregon already foretell, will be what a friend has recently described as "a prairie fire for Roosevelt." Why?

Because, of all the public men in the United States, Theodore Roosevelt is absolutely the best fitted to meet the problems and fulfill the duties of the Chief Executive for four years from March 4, 1905. He has proved this abundantly, and the American people know it.

The Presidency is, without exception, the most difficult office in the world. It knows neither privacy nor rest. It demands physical and mental health, wide information, quick and accurate judgment, alertness and versatility of mind, buoyancy of spirit, and good temper. Mr. Roosevelt has all of these qualities in high degree, and in addition he has a reasonable, if not an excessive, amount of patience. The elemental virtues no one denies to him.



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MISS ALICE ROOSEVELT.

During the next Presidential term the pressing problems are likely to be administrative, economic, and social. Mr. Roosevelt is splendidly equipped for dealing with them. No one has a keener scent for official corruption and inefficiency than he, and no one pursues the wrongdoer more relentlessly. His searching Post-Office investigation is a case in point. For political uses, the Democrats in Congress urged a non-partisan Congressional investigation of the Post-Office Department. The country laughed at them, for President Roosevelt's investigators had disclosed the fact that patronage-hunting Senators and Congressmen of both parties were at the bottom of more than half the trouble, and in addition, that within a few years the two worst offenders had been investigated and triumphantly acquitted of any wrong by two non-partisan Congressional committees! The House of Representatives, which blundered into publishing a report describing the doings of a large fraction of its membership, had a short attack of hysterics thereat, for the benefit of the simple-minded constituents at home. Then the matter was dropped, and will stay dropped. Meanwhile, the Government's prosecutors keep on indicting



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Quentin. Theodore, Jr. Archibald. Miss Alice. Kermit. Mrs. Roosevelt. Ethel.

PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT AND FAMILY AT OYSTER BAY, LONG ISLAND, NEW YORK.

and convicting the principal offenders. The people prefer Mr. Roosevelt's kind of investigation to Congressional hysterics and claptrap.

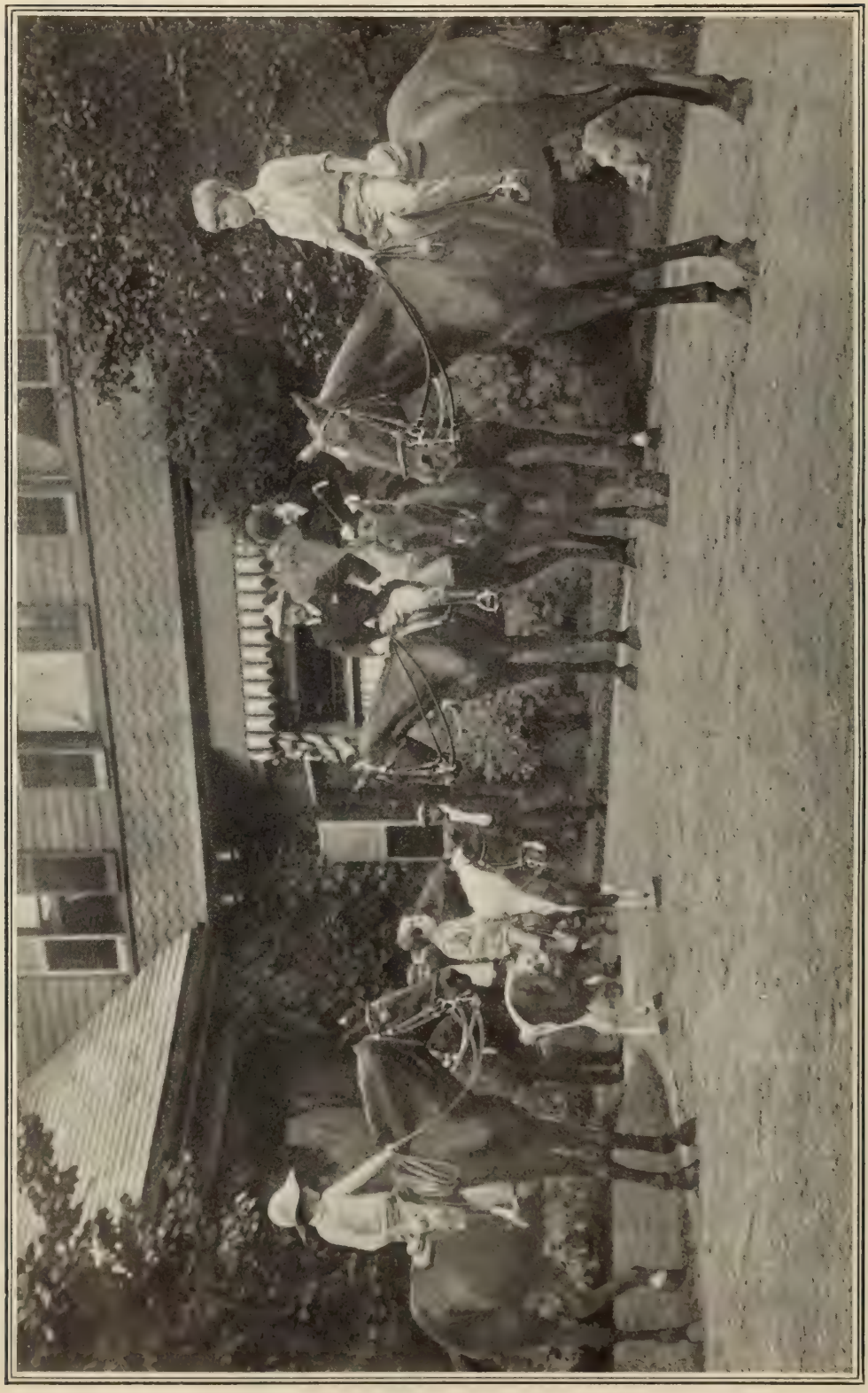
Privilege has had some fairly hard raps of late, and the American people have a pretty clear idea that Mr. Roosevelt will give it a few more before he lays down his office. Both those who buy what they should not have and those who bulldoze are being taught their place in a democracy where each is as good as his fellowman, but no better. The gentry in the Government Printing Office who had expected to turn the public service into a "closed shop," and to admit and reject whom *they* chose, were brought up with a round turn in the Miller case. The people liked that tremendously. The greatest magnates in the land, aided by the shrewdest lawyers, organized a huge corporation in violation of law. The Supreme Court, at the instance of the Administration, ordered it to dissolve. The people liked that tremendously too. There is a conviction throughout the country that the interests of the plain people, who ask nothing of the Government but ample protection in their right to earn an honest living in their own way, are looked after by Mr. Roosevelt, and that he does not forget them when under pressure from the political and personal representatives of privilege-hunters of all kinds. Different as Mr. Roosevelt is in so many ways from Lincoln and from McKinley, he is like those two great men in his intuitive insight into the mind of the plain people. Mr. Roosevelt's scholarship has not blunted his human sympathy, and he has no subtlety of mind behind which to hide his natural simplicity and directness.

Mr. Roosevelt's record of positive achievement is astonishing, and the people recognize it. They held their breath when he summoned to his presence the warring coal magnates and labor magnates, whose selfish fighting had brought great communities to the verge of want and had prepared a series of social and political explosions that a chance spark would set off. He told these public enemies that, under the Constitution and the laws, he could not act officially toward them, but that, armed with his moral responsibility as trustee for the public at large, he had a right to insist that they must not goad innocent people to madness by depriving them of a necessity of life, but must go ahead and mine coal and submit their differences to an impartial, if unofficial, tribunal. They both grumbled, but they both yielded. That event marked a turning-point in our history, and we owe it to Mr. Roosevelt's courage and unselfishness. It was a great, and in one sense an unnecessary, risk for him to take. But he took it, accomplished his end, and demonstrated the fact that the moral rights of the whole people are not forever to be held in abeyance while organized capital and organized labor go through one of their periodical rows, causing widespread loss, damage, and suffering, of which fact both parties to the quarrel appear to be utterly oblivious. Those persons who are fond of contrasting President Cleveland's action in reference to the Chicago strikes and riots of 1894 with President Roosevelt's action in reference to the coal strikes and riots of 1902, might like to know what Mr. Cleveland thought of Mr. Roosevelt's action and what he said to him about it.

Nothing but Mr. Roosevelt's dogged pertinacity forced the Cuban reciprocity measure upon the statute books. The special interests that count for nothing with the Republican party as a whole, but that often count for too much with some of the party leaders in Congress, were determined to have no reciprocity of any kind with anybody. They knew that one such step would be followed by many more, and they were right. Blaine and McKinley were protectionists beyond peradventure, but both of them saw plainly that when protection had done the major portion of its work, the way to lower tariff duties was by reciprocal trade arrangements with various countries. This is sound and rational Republican doctrine. It was the burden of McKinley's last address to the American people, and the pitifully weak and mean attempts to explain that speech away are discreditable in the extreme. It has hurt, not helped, Republicanism that the Republican Senators from Massachusetts, Rhode Island, New York, and New Jersey were able to kill the reciprocity treaty negotiated by McKinley with France, and that the Republican Senators from Ohio were able to kill the reciprocity treaty negotiated by McKinley with the Argentine Republic.

The Cuban treaty rested on the same broad ground as the earlier reciprocity treaties, and in addition had a moral basis of its own. But for months Congress would have none of it. Beet sugar, citrous fruits, and other hardy citizens of the United States protested. Finally, however, President Roosevelt, with an eager and determined public opinion behind him, compelled favorable action. This was the first step toward rational, Republican revision of the tariff schedules.

That such a revision will be undertaken during the next Presidential term is certain. The sentiment of the party demands it, whatever certain official spokesmen in the Senate and House of Representatives may say or think. Mr. Roosevelt is far closer to the people than they are, and



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PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT, MRS. ROOSEVELT, AND THREE OF THEIR SONS STARTING FOR A HORSEBACK RIDE FROM THEIR OYSTER BAY HOME.

he and the people, not they, will point the way. The United States is a protectionist country by an almost unanimous consent. What little was needed to take the tariff out of politics was accomplished by Senator Gorman when he put a hybrid protectionist bill of his own under the enacting clause of the Wilson bill, on the very heels of a Democratic victory won on the cry of a tariff for revenue only. After that the people generally threw up their hands in disgust, refused to discuss the tariff or to hear it discussed, and proceeded to adapt their business to existing conditions. Even the doctrinaires are silent now. The free-trader has gone the way of the dodo. Consequently, the tariff is now a business, not a political, question ; and no sane man will go far out of his way to intrust the solution of any business question to the present Democratic party. That party is not at all likely to be permitted to revise the tariff in the near future ; but the Republican party is expected to revise it, with a view to promoting business activity in foreign as well in domestic trade.

There is no question that Mr. Roosevelt and the vast hosts of the Republican party are at one with Blaine and McKinley in this matter. Not business disturbance, but business expansion, will follow such tariff revision as the Republican party will shortly undertake.

Mr. Roosevelt cut the Gordian knot that made the early building of an Isthmian canal seem impossible. He acted, as fair-minded people generally assumed, and as the long debate in the Senate conclusively proved, after long deliberation, in strict accordance with the precepts of international law and our treaty obligations to Colombia, and in such a way as to command the prompt approval and hearty acquiescence of the nations of the world. In a way, this is Mr. Roosevelt's greatest achievement. His promptness in executing his plan, and his decision, avoided foreign complications, and prevented a long guerrilla war, costly in life and in money. He named an ideal commission to build the Panama Canal, and the United States has now a chance to prove that a democracy can undertake a great public work, hundreds of miles away from home, with celerity and skill and without scandal. We owe all this to Mr. Roosevelt.

Then, too, the people at large are not oblivious of the fact that, while others are talking and carping, Mr. Roosevelt is carrying on in the White House a persistent and never-ending moral struggle with every powerful selfish and exploiting interest in the country. These interests dare not attack Mr. Roosevelt in the open, so they work underhandedly. These and their organs and agents are the source of the continual flow of yarns sent out over the country which begin by exalting some of Mr. Roosevelt's personal characteristics into blameworthy idiosyncracies, and end by manufacturing lies out of the whole cloth. For months past, dispatches labeled "Washington" have appeared in such journals as the New York *Sun*, *Times*, and *World*, and the Atlanta *Constitution*,—to name a few conspicuous examples only,—that have endeavored to undermine public confidence in Mr. Roosevelt, not by direct and responsible assertion, but by indirect and irresponsible innuendo. Not long ago, the New York *Herald* gave conspicuous space to a detailed story of the way in which Mr. Roosevelt was extravagantly living beyond his income. If he was, it was his own private affair ; but as a matter of fact, and as the author of the yarn might have learned by asking, Mr. Roosevelt is living simply and inexpensively, and, despite his large family and the constant demands upon him, is frugally saving something each year. Shortly before that, the New York *Evening Post* reproduced on its editorial page the silly story that Mr. Roosevelt was so inflated with pride of office that he compelled every one, including his wife, to rise at his approach, and to remain standing in his presence. No one but an imbecile would believe such a yarn, which has even less foundation in fact than most of such stories. Whether or not the editors who have repeated this fairy tale habitually greet guests, even when presidents or emperors, seated, and with hats drawn over their brows, we do not know, but a study both of manners and of truth-telling would be helpful to them. These falsehoods are referred to not because they are in any way important, but for the purpose of noting their utter futility ; for the American people have instinctively disbelieved them from the first, and their wearisome repetition has produced no effect.

Lately, another charge has been made against Mr. Roosevelt. It is alleged that as President he is a reckless violator of his Constitutional limitations, and that he has invaded, and does invade, the rights and privileges of a coördinate branch of the Government. It is this which so greatly agitates Senators Gorman and Carmack and their satellites. Stated abstractly, this allegation sounds like something of great importance. In the concrete, however, it comes down to one or two executive orders whose legality is undoubted, but whose propriety may be properly, even if unsuccessfully, questioned, and to a fear among the feudal lords at Washington that the over-lord is squeezing them between himself

and the Third Estate. There is much truth in this last, but that again is a cause for congratulation, not criticism. The people are undisguisedly delighted that the President asserts himself and his office, and that he is not supinely yielding to that legislative invasion of Presidential prerogative which has gone on, with but little interruption, since Andrew Johnson's time. The people want a real President, not a dummy, and they know that in Theodore Roosevelt they have a real President. That Mr. Roosevelt has not interfered with the legitimate prerogatives of Congress is not only made evident by the records, but is supported by the expert opinion of Senator Aldrich, of Rhode Island, who has openly said that during his long career in the Senate he has never known a President who has attempted so little as Mr. Roosevelt to influence Congressional action by other means than his public messages.

Another favorite theme of Mr. Roosevelt's critics is his bellicose nature. They fear that he will willfully or unwillfully plunge the nation into a foreign war. These persons mistake virility for braggadocio and vitality for bluster. The people at large make no such mistake. They see in Mr. Roosevelt the President who has done more than any of his predecessors for the principle of international arbitration and the preservation of the world's peace. He put aside the proffered honor of arbitrating the Venezuela dispute in order to send it to the Hague tribunal, and he sent the so-called Pious Fund case with Mexico to the same court. He caused the long-standing dispute with Great Britain over the Alaska boundary to be submitted to an international commission, who settled it promptly and for all time. All the world recognizes the beneficence of Mr. Roosevelt's policy toward China, so skillfully executed by Mr. Hay and Mr. Root, and applauds it as just, humane, and peace-loving.

It is about time, then, that these critics left off generalizing and furnished the country with a bill of particulars. When have we had so much of the country's best brains and conscience actively participating in its government? Where do the opposition propose to find substitutes for Hay and Root, Taft and Knox, Moody and Wilson? When have the Civil Service laws been so rapidly extended and so justly executed? When have the major offices, especially in the Southern States, been filled by men of such capacity and standing? The people must have satisfactory answers to these questions before they refuse to return to power such an administration as the present one.

But, we are told, Mr. Roosevelt has done fairly well only because of his pledge given at Buffalo to carry out the policies of McKinley. Once elect him President, and he will break loose from all trammels and do the most terrifying things.

If Theodore Roosevelt is really unsafe, vain, domineering, and reckless, should he not have come to grief by this time? He has held responsible executive office for a good many years. These alleged traits cannot be new. They must have been forming ever since he left the New York Legislature in 1884. Where in Mr. Roosevelt's career are the evidences of their existence? How are his many and astonishingly important successes, all in the public's highest interest, to be accounted for? The man's life for twenty years past is an absolutely open book, and it tells a story that stirs every patriotic American heart. It is marked by a consuming passion to be useful and to be just. In office and out of office, in public life and in private station, in war and in peace, it is all the same story. Mr. Roosevelt's character is fully formed. It has been formed for the most part in the public eye. He has reached middle life, and cannot now reverse himself, even if he would. The ideal, happily, still moves Americans, both young and old, and Mr. Roosevelt voices the best American ideals and acts in accordance with them. To the pessimist and carper, he opposes his faith and his courage: to the fault-finder, his power of accomplishment; to the self-seeker and the grafter, his honesty; to the mourner over our country's ruin, his belief in American manhood and in American principles.

It is said that the leaders of the opposition are to make their campaign on Mr. Roosevelt's personality. His friends can ask no better fortune. Since Lincoln, no such powerful personality has come into our politics, and to attack it is only to emphasize its attractiveness. As a Presidential candidate, Theodore Roosevelt can well afford to dispense with ordinary political campaign methods, and leave his case with the American people.

THE RECORD OF THE REPUBLICAN PARTY, 1901—1904.

FROM THE SPEECH DELIVERED BY THE HON. ELIHU ROOT, OF NEW YORK, AS TEMPORARY CHAIRMAN OF THE NATIONAL REPUBLICAN CONVENTION, AT CHICAGO, JUNE 21, 1904.

WHEN the course of the next administration is but half done, the Republican party will have completed the first half-century of its national life. Of the eleven administrations since the first election of Abraham Lincoln, nine—covering a period of thirty-six years—have been under Republican Presidents. For the greater part of that time, the majority in each house of Congress has been Republican. History affords no parallel in any age or country for the growth in national greatness and power and honor, the wide diffusion of the comforts of life, the uplifting of the great mass of the people above the hard conditions of poverty, the common opportunity for education and individual advancement, the universal possession of civil and religious liberty, the protection of property and security for the rewards of industry and enterprise, the cultivation of national morality, respect for religion, sympathy with humanity, and love of liberty and justice which have marked the life of the American people during this long period of Republican control.

With the platform and the candidates of this convention, we are about to ask a renewed expression of popular confidence in the Republican party.

We shall ask it because the principles to which we declare our adherence are right, and the best interests of our country require that they should be followed in its government.

We shall ask it because the unbroken record of the Republican party in the past is an assurance of the sincerity of our declarations and the fidelity with which we shall give them effect. Because we have been constant in principle, loyal to our beliefs, and faithful to our promises, we are entitled to be believed and trusted now.

We shall ask it because the character of the party gives assurance of good government. A great political organization, competent to govern, is not a chance collection of individuals brought together for the moment as the shifting sands are piled up by wind and sea, to be swept away, to be formed and re-formed again. It is a growth. Traditions and sentiments reaching down through struggles of years gone, and the stress and heat of old conflicts, and the influence of leaders passed away, and the ingrained habit of applying fixed rules of interpretation and of thought,—all give to a political party known and inalienable qualities from which must follow, in its deliberate judgment and ultimate action, like results for good or bad government. We do not deny that other parties have in their membership men of morality and patriotism; but we assert with confidence that above all others, by the influences which gave it birth and have maintained its life, by the causes for which it has striven, the ideals which it has followed, the Republican party as a party has acquired a character which makes its ascendency the best guarantee of a government loyal to principle and effective in execution. Through it more than any other political organization, the moral sentiment of America finds expression. It cannot depart from the direction of its tendencies. From what it has been may be known certainly what it must be. Not all of us rise to its standard; not all of us are worthy of its glorious history; but as a whole this great political organization—the party of Lincoln and McKinley—cannot fail to work in the spirit of its past and in loyalty to great ideals.

We shall ask the continued confidence of the people because the candidates whom we present are of proved competency and patriotism, fitted to fill the offices for which they are nominated to the credit and honor of our country.

We shall ask it because the present policies of our government are beneficial and ought not to be set aside, and the people's business is being well done, and ought not to be interfered with.

Have not the American people reason for satisfaction and pride in the conduct of their government since the election of 1900, when they rendered their judgment of approval upon the first administration of President McKinley? Have we not had an honest government? Have not the men selected for office been men of good reputation who by their past lives had given evidence that they were honest and competent?

Can any private business be pointed out in which lapses from honesty have been so few and so trifling, proportionately, as in the public service of the United States? And when they have occurred, have not the offenders been relentlessly prosecuted and sternly punished without regard to political or personal relations?

Have we not had an effective government? Have not the laws been enforced? Has not the slow process of legislative discussion upon many serious questions been brought to practical conclusions embodied in beneficial statutes? and has not the Executive proceeded without vacillation or weakness to give these effect? Are not the laws of the United States obeyed at home? and does not our government command respect and honor throughout the world?

Have we not had a safe and conservative government? Has not property been protected? Are not the fruits of enterprise and industry secure? What safeguard of the Constitution for vested right or individual freedom has not been scrupulously observed? When has any American administration ever dealt more considerately and wisely with questions which might have been the cause of conflict with foreign powers? When have more just settlements been reached by peaceful means? When has any administration wielded a more powerful influence for peace? and when have we rested more secure in friendship with all mankind?

THE GOVERNMENT'S FINANCES.

Four years ago, the business of the country was loaded with burdensome internal taxes, imposed during the war with Spain. By the acts of March 2, 1901, and April 12, 1902, the country has been wholly relieved of that annual burden of over one hundred million dollars; and the further accumulation of a surplus which was constantly withdrawing the money of the country from circulation has been prevented by the reduction of taxation.

Between the 30th of June, 1900, and the 1st of June, 1904, our Treasury Department collected in revenues the enormous sum of $2,203,000,000 and expended $2,028,000,000, leaving us with a surplus of over $170,000,000 after paying the $50,000,000 for the Panama Canal and loaning $4,600,000 to the St. Louis Exposition. Excluding those two extraordinary payments, which are investments from past surplus and not expenditures of current income, the surplus for this year will be the reasonable amount of about $12,000,000.

The vast and complicated transactions of the Treasury, which for the last fiscal year show actual cash receipts of $4,250,290,262 and disbursements of $4,113,199,414, have been conducted with perfect accuracy and fidelity, and without the loss of a dollar. Under wise management, the financial act of March 14, 1900, which embodied the sound financial principles of the Republican party and provided for the maintenance of our currency on the stable basis of the gold standard, has wrought out beneficent results. On the 1st of November, 1899, the interest-bearing debt of the United States was $1,046,049,020. On the 1st of May last, the amount of that debt was $895,157,440, a reduction of $150,891,580. By refunding, the annual interest has been still more rapidly reduced from $40,347,884 on the 1st of November, 1899, to $24,176,745 on the 1st of June, 1904, an annual saving of over $16,000,000. When the financial act was passed, the thinly settled portions of our country were suffering for lack of banking facilities because the banks were in the large towns and none could be organized with a capital of less than $50,000. Under the provisions of that act, there were organized, down to the 1st of May last, 1,296 small banks of $25,000 capital, furnishing, under all the safeguards of the national banking system, facilities to the small communities of the West and South. The facilities made possible by that act have increased the circulation of national banks from $254,402,730 on the 14th of March, 1900, to $445,988,565 on the 1st of June, 1904. The money of the country in circulation has not only increased in amount with our growth in business, but it has steadily gained in the stability of the basis on which it rests.

On the 1st of March, 1897, when the first administration of McKinley began, we had in the country, including bullion in the Treasury, $1,806,272,076. This was $23.14 *per capita* for our population, and of this, 38.893 per cent. was gold. On the 1st of March, 1901, when the second administration of McKinley began, the money in the country was $2,467,295,228. This was $28.34 *per capita*, and of this, 45.273 per cent. was gold. On the 1st of May last, the money in the country was $2,814,985,446, which was $31.02 *per capita*, and of it, 48.028 per cent. was gold. This great increase of currency has been arranged in such a way that the large government notes in circulation are gold certificates, while the silver certificates and greenbacks are of small denominations. As the large gold certificates represent gold actually on deposit, their presentation at the Treasury in exchange for gold can never infringe upon the gold reserve. As the small silver certificates and greenbacks are always in active circulation, no large amount of them can be accumulated for the purpose of drawing on the gold reserve; and thus, while

every man can get a gold dollar for every dollar of the government's currency, the endless chain which we were once taught to fear so much has been effectively put out of business. The Secretary of the Treasury has shown himself mindful of the needs of business, and has so managed our finances as himself to expand and contract our currency as occasion has required. When in the fall of 1902 the demand for funds to move the crops caused extraordinary money stringency, the Secretary exercised his lawful right to accept State and municipal bonds as security for public deposits, thus liberating United States bonds, which were used for additional circulation. When the crops were moved and the stringency was over, he called for a withdrawal of the State and municipal securities, and thus contracted the currency. Again, in 1903, under similar conditions, he produced similar results. The payment of the $50,000,000 for the Panama Canal, made last month without causing the slightest disturbance in finance, showed good judgment and a careful consideration of the interests of business upon which our people may confidently rely.

THE QUESTION OF TRUST REGULATION.

Four years ago, the regulation by law of the great corporate combinations called "trusts" stood substantially where it was when the Sherman Anti-Trust Act of 1890 was passed. President Cleveland, in his last message of December, 1896, had said :

Though Congress has attempted to deal with this matter by legislation, the laws passed for that purpose thus far have proved ineffective, not because of any lack of disposition or attempt to enforce them, but simply because the laws themselves as interpreted by the courts do not reach the difficulty. If the insufficiencies of existing laws can be remedied by further legislation, it should be done. The fact must be recognized, however, that all federal legislation on this subject may fall short of its purpose because of inherent obstacles, and also because of the complex character of our governmental system, which, while making federal authority supreme within its sphere, has carefully limited that sphere by metes and bounds that cannot be transgressed.

At every election, the regulation of trusts has been the football of campaign oratory and the subject of many insincere declarations.

Our Republican administration has taken up the subject in a practical, sensible way as a business rather than a political question, saying what it really meant, and doing what lay at its hand to be done to accomplish effective regulation. The principles upon which the Government proceeded were stated by the President in his message of December, 1902. He said :

A fundamental base of civilization is the inviolability of property ; but this is in nowise inconsistent with the right of society to regulate the exercise of the artificial powers which it confers upon the owners of property, under the name of corporate franchises, in such a way as to prevent the misuse of these powers. . . .

We can do nothing of good in the way of regulating and supervising these corporations until we fix clearly in our minds that we are not attacking the corporations, but endeavoring to do away with the evil in them. We are not hostile to them ; we are merely determined that they shall be so handled as to subserve the public good. We draw the line against misconduct, not against wealth. . . .

In curbing and regulating the combinations of capital which are or may become injurious to the public, we must be careful not to stop the great enterprises which have legitimately reduced the cost of production, not to abandon the place which our country has won in the leadership of the international industrial world, not to strike down wealth, with the result of closing factories and mines, of turning the wage-worker idle in the streets and leaving the farmer without a market for what he grows. . . .

I believe that monopolies, unjust discriminations, which prevent or cripple competition, fraudulent overcapitalization, and other evils in trust organizations and practices which injuriously affect interstate trade can be prevented under the power of the Congress to "regulate commerce with foreign nations and among the several States" through regulations and requirements operating directly upon such commerce, the instrumentalities thereof, and those engaged therein.

After long consideration, Congress passed three practical statutes,—on the 11th of February, 1903, an act to expedite hearings in suits in enforcement of the anti-trust act ; on the 14th of February, 1903, the act creating a new Department of Commerce and Labor, with a Bureau of Corporations, having authority to secure systematic information regarding the organization and operation of corporations engaged in interstate commerce ; and on the 19th of February, 1903, an act enlarging the powers of the Interstate Commerce Commission and of the courts to deal with secret rebates in transportation charges, which are the chief means by which the trusts crush out their smaller competitors.

The Attorney-General has gone on in the same practical way, not to talk about the trusts, but to proceed against the trusts by law for their regulation. In separate suits, fourteen of the great railroads of the country have been restrained by injunction from giving illegal rebates to the favored shippers, who by means of them were driving out the smaller shippers and monopolizing the grain and meat business of the country. The beef trust was put under injunction. The officers of the railroads engaged in the cotton-carrying pool, affecting all that great industry

of the South, were indicted, and have abandoned their combination. The Northern Securities Company, which undertook, by combining in one ownership the capital stocks of the Northern Pacific and Great Northern railroads, to end traffic competition in the Northwest, has been destroyed by a vigorous prosecution expedited and brought to a speedy and effective conclusion in the Supreme Court under the act of February 11, 1903. The Attorney-General says:

Here, then, are four phases of the attack on the combinations in restraint of trade and commerce—the railroad injunction suits, the cotton-pool cases, the beef-trust cases, and the Northern Securities case. The first relates to the monopoly produced by secret and preferential rates for railroad transportation; the second to railroad-traffic pooling; the third to a combination of independent corporations to fix and maintain extortionate prices for meats; and the fourth to a corporation organized to merge into itself the control of parallel and competing lines of railroad and to eliminate competition in their rates of transportation.

The right of the Interstate Commerce Commission to compel the production of books and papers has been established by the judgment of the Supreme Court in a suit against the coal-carrying roads. Other suits have been brought, and other indictments have been found, and other trusts have been driven back within legal bounds. No investment in lawful business has been jeopardized, no fair and honest enterprise has been injured; but it is certain that, wherever the constitutional power of the national government reaches, trusts are being practically regulated and curbed within lawful bounds as they never have been before, and the men of small capital are finding, in the efficiency and skill of the national department of justice, a protection they never had before against the crushing effect of unlawful combinations.

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[Mr. Root next summarized the progress made in irrigation under the terms of the national reclamation law passed by a Republican Congress and set in operation by President Roosevelt's administration. The facts are fully set forth in Mr. Smythe's article on pages 49–51 of this number of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS.]

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WORK OF THE DEPARTMENTS AT WASHINGTON.

The postal service has been extended and improved. Its revenues have increased from $76,000,000 in 1895 to $95,000,000 in 1899 and $144,000,000 in 1904. In dealing with these vast sums, a few cases of peculation, trifling in amount and by subordinate officers, have occurred there as they occur in every business. Neither fear nor favor, nor political or personal influence, has availed to protect the wrong-doers. Their acts have been detected, investigated, laid bare; they have been dismissed from their places, prosecuted criminally, indicted, many of them tried, and many of them convicted. The abuses in the carriage of second-class mail matter have been remedied. The rural free delivery has been widely extended. It is wholly the creation of Republican administration. The last Democratic Postmaster-General declared it impracticable. The first administration of McKinley proved the contrary. At the beginning of the fiscal year 1899, there were about 200 routes in operation. There are now more than 25,000 routes, bringing a daily mail service to more than 12,000,000 of our people in rural communities, enlarging the circulation of the newspaper and the magazine, increasing communication, and relieving the isolation of life on the farm.

The Department of Agriculture has been brought to a point of efficiency and practical benefit never before known. The Oleomargarine Act of May 9, 1902, now sustained in the Supreme Court, and the act of July 1, 1902,—to prevent the false branding of food and dairy products,—protect farmers against fraudulent imitations. The act of February 2, 1903, enables the Secretary of Agriculture to prevent the spread of contagious and infectious diseases of live stock. Rigid inspection has protected our cattle against infection from abroad, and has established the highest credit for our meat products in the markets of the world. The earth has been searched for weapons with which to fight the enemies that destroy the growing crops. An insect brought from near the Great Wall of China has checked the San José scale, which was destroying our orchards; a parasitic fly brought from South Africa is exterminating the black scale in the lemon and orange groves of California; and an ant from Guatemala is about offering battle to the boll weevil. Broad science has been brought to the aid of limited experience. Study of the relations between plant life and climate and soil has been followed by the introduction of special crops suited to our varied conditions. The introduction of just the right kind of seed has enabled the Gulf States to increase our rice crop from 115,000,000 pounds in 1898 to 400,000,000 pounds in 1903, and to supply the entire American demand, with a surplus for export. The right kind of sugar beet has increased our annual production of beet sugar by over 200,000 tons. Seed brought from countries of little rainfall is producing millions of bushels of grain on lands which a few years ago were deemed a hopeless part of the arid belt.

The systematic collection and publication of

information regarding the magnitude and conditions of our crops is mitigating the injury done by speculation to the farmer's market.

To increase the profit of the farmer's toil, to protect the farmer's product and extend his market, and to improve the conditions of the farmer's life; to advance the time when America shall raise within her own limits every product of the soil consumed by her people, as she makes within her own limits every necessary product of manufacture,—these have been cardinal objects of Republican administration; and we show a record of practical things done toward the accomplishment of these objects never before approached.

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[At this point Mr. Root reviewed our relations with Cuba during the past four years, including the surrender of the government of the island, under the terms of the Platt Amendment, to the new Cuban republic, and the adoption of the treaty of reciprocity, and summed up the salient facts in our administration of the Philippines.]

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THE PANAMA SITUATION.

In 1900, the project of an Isthmian canal stood where it was left by the Clayton-Bulwer treaty of 1850. For half a century it had halted, with Great Britain resting upon a joint right of control, and the great undertaking of De Lesseps struggling against the doom of failure imposed by extravagance and corruption. On the 18th of November, 1901, the Hay-Pauncefote treaty with Great Britain relieved the enterprise of the right of British control and left that right exclusively in the United States. Then followed swiftly the negotiations and protocols with Nicaragua; the Isthmian Canal Act of June 28, 1902; the just agreement with the French canal company to pay them the value of the work they had done; the negotiation and ratification of the treaty with Colombia; the rejection of that treaty by Colombia in violation of our rights and the world's right to the passage of the Isthmus; the seizure by Panama of the opportunity to renew her oft-repeated effort to throw off the hateful and oppressive yoke of Colombia and resume the independence which once had been hers, and of which she had been deprived by fraud and force; the success of the revolution; our recognition of the new republic, followed by recognition from substantially all the civilized powers of the world; the treaty with Panama recognizing and confirming our right to construct the canal; the ratification of the treaty by the Senate; confirmatory legislation by Congress; the payment of the $50,000,000 to the French company and to Panama; the appointment of the Canal Commission in accordance with law, and its organization to begin the work.

The action of the United States at every step has been in accordance with the law of nations, consistent with the principles of justice and honor, in discharge of the trust to build the canal we long since assumed by denying the right of every other power to build it, dictated by a high and unselfish purpose, for the common benefit of all mankind. That action was wise, considerate, prompt, vigorous, and effective; and now the greatest of constructive nations stands ready and competent to begin and to accomplish the great enterprise which shall realize the dreams of past ages, bind together our Atlantic and Pacific coasts, and open a new highway for that commerce of the Orient whose course has controlled the rise and fall of civilizations. Success in that enterprise greatly concerns the credit and honor of the American people, and it is for them to say whether the building of the canal shall be in charge of the men who made its building possible or of the weaklings whose incredulous objections would have postponed it for another generation.

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[Mr. Root then showed that throughout the world the diplomacy of the Roosevelt administration has made for peace and justice among the nations. He sketched the course of our dealings in China, in the Alaskan boundary dispute, in the Venezuelan trouble, and in giving practical effect to the establishment of the Hague tribunal. After a brief *résumé* of the administration's epoch-making work in reorganizing our army system (in which Mr. Root himself, as Secretary of War, bore a distinguished part), the speaker epitomized our national progress in the past four years.]

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THE ACHIEVEMENTS OF FOUR YEARS.

The first administration of McKinley fought and won the war with Spain, put down the insurrection in the Philippines, annexed Hawaii, rescued the legations in Peking, brought Porto Rico into our commercial system, enacted a protective tariff, and established our national currency on the firm foundations of the gold standard by the financial legislation of the Fifty-sixth Congress.

The present administration has reduced taxation, reduced the public debt, reduced the annual interest charge, made effective progress in the regulation of trusts, fostered business, promoted agriculture, built up the navy, reorganized the army, resurrected the militia system, inaugurated a new policy for the preservation and reclamation of public lands, given civil government to the Philippines, established the republic

of Cuba, bound it to us by ties of gratitude, of commercial interest, and of common defense, swung open the closed gateway of the Isthmus, strengthened the Monroe Doctrine, ended the Alaskan boundary dispute, protected the integrity of China, opened wider its doors of trade, advanced the principle of arbitration, and promoted peace among the nations.

We challenge judgment upon this record of effective performance in legislation, in execution, and in administration.

The work is not fully done; policies are not completely wrought out; domestic questions still press continually for solution; other trusts must be regulated; the tariff may presently receive revision, and if so, should receive it at the hands of the friends, and not the enemies, of the protective system; the new Philippine government has only begun to develop its plans for the benefit of that long-neglected country; our flag floats on the Isthmus, but the canal is yet to be built; peace does not yet reign on earth, and considerate firmness backed by strength is still needful in diplomacy.

The American people have now to say whether policies shall be reversed or committed to unfriendly guardians; whether performance, which now proves itself for the benefit and honor of our country, shall be transferred to unknown and perchance to feeble hands.

No dividing line can be drawn athwart the course of this successful administration. The fatal 14th of September, 1901, marked no change of policy, no lower level of achievement. The bullet of the assassin robbed us of the friend we loved; it took away from the people the President of their choice; it deprived civilization of a potent force making always for righteousness and for humanity. But the fabric of free institutions remained unshaken. The government of the people went on. The great party that William McKinley led wrought still in the spirit of his example. His true and loyal successor has been equal to the burden cast upon him. Widely different in temperament and methods, he has approved himself of the same elemental virtues —the same fundamental beliefs. With faithful and revering memory, he has executed the purposes and continued unbroken the policy of President McKinley for the peace, prosperity, and honor of our beloved country. And he has met all new occasions with strength and resolution and farsighted wisdom.

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[Here Mr. Root paid an eloquent tribute to the leadership of President McKinley and his great lieutenant, Senator Hanna.]

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A PRESIDENT TRUSTED BY THE PEOPLE.

Honor, truth, courage, purity of life, domestic virtue, love of country, loyalty to high ideals,—all these, combined with active intelligence, with learning, with experience in affairs, with the conclusive proof of competency afforded by wise and conservative administration, by great things already done and great results already achieved,—all these we bring to the people with another candidate. Shall not these have honor in our land? Truth, sincerity, courage! these underlie the fabric of our institutions. Upon hypocrisy and sham, upon cunning and false pretense, upon weakness and cowardice, upon the arts of the demagogue and the devices of the mere politician, no government can stand. No system of popular government can endure in which the people do not believe and trust. Our President has taken the whole people into his confidence. Incapable of deception, he has put aside concealment. Frankly and without reserve, he has told them what their government was doing, and the reasons.

It is no campaign of appearances upon which we enter, for the people know the good and the bad, the success and failure, to be credited and charged to our account. It is no campaign of sounding words and specious pretenses, for our President has told the people with frankness what he believed and what he intended. He has meant every word he said, and the people have believed every word he said, and with him this convention agrees because every word has been sound Republican doctrine. No people can maintain free government who do not in their hearts value the qualities which have made the present President of the United States conspicuous among the men of his time as a type of noble manhood. Come what may here—come what may in November—God grant that those qualities of brave, true manhood shall have honor throughout America, shall be held for an example in every home, and that the youth of generations to come may grow up to feel that it is better than wealth, or office, or power to have the honesty, the purity, and the courage of Theodore Roosevelt.

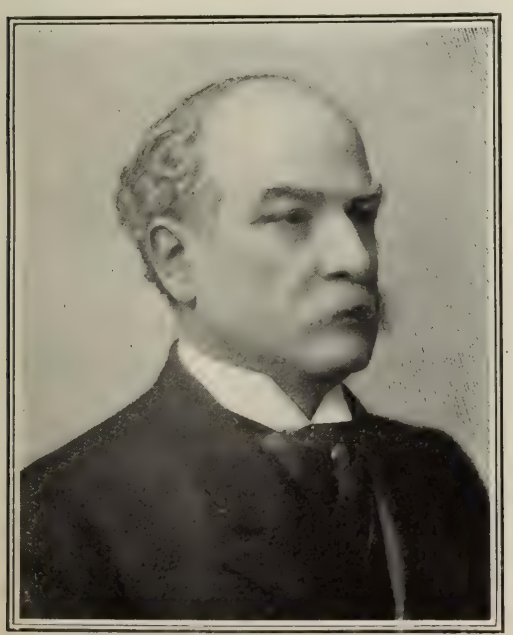
THE TRIUMPH OF NATIONAL IRRIGATION.

BY WILLIAM E. SMYTHE.

(Author of "The Conquest of Arid America," etc.)

IF ever any branch of the public service supplied a vivid illustration of the Roose veltian motto, "Do it now," it is the branch to which the great constructive labor of reclaiming the desert wilderness was so promptly committed. Under the terms of the national irrigation law of 1902. And even more reassuring and inspiring than the actual work it has accomplished is the manner in which the Reclamation Service has approached its undertaking.

It was freely predicted in Congress and out that the law would be a failure from the start; that it would result in nothing but corruption and graft; that whoever undertook its operation would be doomed to an unhappy fate. When it was known that the work would be put under the Geological Survey, many of the survey's best friends protested, and freely predicted that it would ruin that organization. They said that in less than two years such scan dals would arise as would destroy forever the high regard in which that department of the Government's scientific work had always been held.



HON. ETHAN ALLEN HITCHCOCK.

(Secretary of the Interior.)

The two years have come and gone. Many of those who were most pessimistic in their predictions are now the firmest friends of the Reclamation Service, which was established as a branch of the Geological Survey. The rare skill and tact and the wonderful executive ability displayed by Dr. Charles D. Walcott, director of the survey, and by Frederick Haynes Newell, chief engineer of the service, have safely guided the new policy through the rocks and shoals of its early days. At every step they have had the loyal and even enthusiastic support of President Roosevelt and Secretary Hitchcock. Those who are prone to say that public business cannot be organized and executed as promptly, as wisely, and as economically as private business in the same field are convincingly answered by the manner in which this work has been done.

First of all, the spoilsman has been religiously debarred from the service. Nobody has ever asked, and nobody knows to this day, whether the many individuals employed in the work are Republicans, Democrats, Socialists, or Prohibitionists. Appointments have been made under civil-service examinations held in various parts of the United States and determined by the experience and fitness of the applicant, and by no other consideration whatever. Public men who sought to use influence in the interest of their friends only succeeded in getting themselves disliked. The various projects examined, and those upon which construction has begun, have been determined with a broad view to the future development of the country and its continued prosperity. No man can claim that he has influenced in any way the selection of these, or that anything has been considered beyond the physical and human interests involved. Citizens of many different localities have, of course, called the attention of the service to what they regarded as promising opportunities for development, but each proposition has been dealt with absolutely upon its own merits. And those charged with the execution of the policy have ever remembered that they are to build, not for a year or a decade, but for the ages.

It is true that there has been criticism from many quarters. Men have been disappointed by failure to secure desired positions, or to get money expended where they would be personally bene-



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MR. FREDERICK HAYNES NEWELL.

(Chief engineer of the Reclamation Service.)

fited, directly or indirectly. Where such great operations are conducted without fear or favoritism there must always be disappointment, and even disgust, with regard to men who refuse to be swayed by considerations of friendship or policy.

There are others who are disappointed because they entertained expectations based upon incorrect knowledge or visionary hopes. They have talked about millions of acres being reclaimed where no human agency could procure or store water. They doubt the figures and estimates made by the service, and hope against hope that their favorite projects may yet be undertaken.

It is no trifling thing to inaugurate a great national policy under such circumstances. Only those at the head of affairs, who are besieged day after day with constant importunities and suggestions, can appreciate the nerve-wearing labor of meeting and resisting these demands without displaying impatience or ill temper, even when the suggestions are most improper and preposterous. But this is only the negative part of the work. There must be, in addition, the great constructive faculty of planning the work broadly and attracting the best men the country can afford, of looking forward to the needs of future generations, yet not neglecting the present, nor allowing it to obscure the future.

The highest praise is due to men who can maintain and build up such a work in a brief time in the face of continued and almost endless distractions. Results can only be attained by a rare and personal devotion to the work,—a devotion which looks not to personal gain, but subordinates high ambition to the achievement of results which will endure forever.

And what has been accomplished to date? The entire western half of the United States has been studied by experienced men and their assistants, and all available data concerning water-supply and the possibility of reclaiming the arid lands of the West have been considered. The reclamation law is very far-reaching, and has many important ramifications. Much must be taken into account besides water and land. It is not sufficient merely to build storage works and turn the water into the stream. The land must actually be reclaimed and the capital returned to the fund, to be used over and over again in similar enterprises. The land must be subdivided into areas of sufficient size to support a family. The Secretary of the Interior may fix the unit as low as forty acres, and it must not exceed one hundred and sixty. The larger figure is the maximum amount of water rights which may be sold to land in private ownership. In all cases, the beneficiary of national irrigation must be an actual occupant of the soil, living on the soil or in its immediate vicinity.

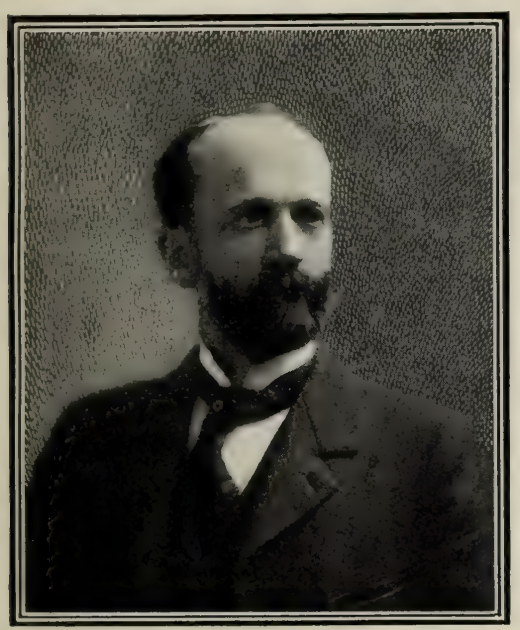
The central idea of the new policy is to assist real home-makers in getting a foothold upon the land. The Government does not pretend to aid speculators, but only to assist settlers in getting the amount of irrigated land reasonably necessary to the support of their families. The new law aims not only at the storage of water, but at the intensive cultivation of the soil by a multitude of landed proprietors.

If only one State were to be considered, a thorough study of its resources and opportunities would be a great task; but when thirteen States and three Territories must be examined, and selections made which will stand the test of future judgment, the burden becomes one of enormous proportions. Often the projects which have been generally regarded as the most attractive, and which have been discussed with glittering generalities in the public press, are found to have fatal defects, and have been consequently abandoned, with resulting disappointment to large numbers of people.

PROJECTED DAMS, CANALS, AND TUNNELS.

In each of the thirteen States and three Territories named in the law, one leading project has been selected with a view to early construc-

tion of the works, provided all of the conditions are found to be favorable. For example, in Arizona, the great storage dam on Salt River, for holding the flood waters until they can be used, has been begun. In California, the Secretary of the Interior has authorized works which will reclaim the lands in the vicinity of Yuma by means of a dam across the Lower Colorado River, raising water so that it can be used on the adjacent lowlands. In Colorado, plans are nearly completed for the construction of a great



HON. CHARLES D. WALCOTT.

(Director of the Geological Survey.)

tunnel from Gunnison River to the dry Uncompahgre Valley. In Idaho, a great dam across Snake River has been planned, and contracts will be let for construction at an early date. In Nevada, work has been begun on dams and canals to combine the flood waters of the Truckee and Carson rivers. In short, in each State and Territory some project of national importance is in process of planning and construction.

All of these works are for the purpose of regulating or storing flood waters, or lifting out of their channels the waters which are too low to be diverted by gravity. By such great works the intermittent streams are rendered perennial, and the occasional floods are restrained until the waters can be put to beneficial use.

The money to build these great works comes not from direct taxation or appropriation, but from the accumulated sums paid for the public lands which are being disposed of in these States and Territories. Day by day the settlers or investors are paying to the Government small sums to obtain a complete title to lands which have been in public ownership. A half to nine-tenths of the total area of the Western States and Territories still belongs to Uncle Sam. He is giving away or disposing of these lands as he has been for generations, and the moneys received are credited in the Treasury to the reclamation fund, to be used for the construction of great works which will enable a better disposal of the public lands and the creation of a vast number of small farms instead of a few large cattle ranches.

The amounts received have ranged from less than one million dollars up to many millions each year, dependent upon the general prosperity of the country, the activity of the land offices, and the interpretation put upon the laws. In round numbers, there was received for the year 1901, $3,000,000; for 1902, $4,000,000; for 1903, $8,000,000; for 1904, it is estimated there will be over $5,000,000, and possibly as much as $10,000,000. Thus, the fund grows and is invested in great works, the cost of which is refunded to the Treasury in annual installments. The arid lands virtually pay for their own reclamation, and the Government is the gainer by bringing about a permanent and prosperous settlement of areas which otherwise would have been condemned to perpetual sterilizing.

And now, when the law is but two years old, the great national policy is in full swing in seven States and one Territory, while preliminary examinations are far advanced in all the rest of the arid region. In Nevada and Arizona, actual construction is proceeding rapidly, and, in the former State, the pioneers of the great army of settlers to the irrigated public domain will begin to march not later than next spring. In Idaho, Wyoming, Montana, New Mexico, Oregon, South Dakota, and North Dakota contracts are about to be let.

Nearly eleven years ago,—to be exact, in October, 1893,—I wrote for the REVIEW OF REVIEWS the first article which ever appeared in an American magazine in explanation and support of the national irrigation idea, as an organized cause. It is with inexpressible pleasure that I now write for the same pages the story of the accomplished fact. In the words of the President of the United States, communicated to the twelfth Irrigation Congress, at Ogden, last September: "The passage of the national irrigation law is one of the great steps not only in the progress of the United States, but of all mankind. It is the beginning of an achievement so great that we hesitate to predict the outcome."

SOLVING THE HEALTH PROBLEM AT PANAMA.

BY COLONEL WILLIAM C. GORGAS, MEDICAL CORPS, U.S.A.

(Who will have charge of the Government's sanitary work.)

IN undertaking the construction of the Panama Canal, the United States begins probably the largest, most difficult, and most important engineering work ever begun by man. The route of the canal runs across the Isthmus of Panama, between the towns of Colon and Panama, for about fifty miles, the Isthmus at this point running east and west, and the general run of the canal being north and south. It is a pretty and attractive country to the eye, being mountainous, well drained, and covered everywhere with tropical verdure and foliage.

While the engineering problems are great, the sanitary problems, up to the present time, have appeared unsolvable. For the last fifty years, since the building of the Panama Railroad was first undertaken, the health conditions have been exceedingly bad, and the mortality among the employees enormous.

However, we shall have at Panama a compact little territory of five hundred square miles, under a government with ample authority, approaching the military in its powers, and liberally supplied with funds. Under these conditions, I think we ought to be able to get up a model sanitary department. Such records as are obtainable in the French hospitals show that the causes of the great mortality in former times were, in great part, yellow fever, but principally malarial fevers. The great advances that have been made in all tropical sanitation in the past few years, but particularly with regard to the causes of yellow fever and malarial fever, ought to enable us to control these diseases. It has been done at Havana, and, I believe, will be done again at Panama.

The canal strip will be, practically, an independent state, as far as sanitation is concerned, and shall have all the health departments, on a small scale, that civilized countries of modern times have. To protect ourselves from infectious diseases being introduced from the outside, we shall have quarantine establishments at Colon and Panama similar to those at New York City, where ships can be examined, and, in case any infectious disease is found, the sick can be isolated and cared for. We shall also have a system, as at the immigrant station in New York, where all immigrants will be examined, with a view to excluding those undesirable or those who will be a burden to the government. We hope to have, for the management of this department, Dr. Henry R. Carter, of the Public Health and Marine Hospital Service, who was in charge of similar work at Havana.

The part of the sanitary organization that will involve by far the greater part of the expense will be the hospital system for the care of the sick. With the view to keeping in close touch with malaria, yellow fever, and other infectious diseases, it will be our endeavor to get all the sick from the whole population to come to the sanitary department for treatment. With this object in view, we expect to equip our hospitals with the best modern appliances of every kind, and with the most skillful personnel in the way of physicians and nurses. We hope, in this way, to do away with the general prejudice against hospital treatment which exists everywhere among the poor and ignorant. From personal experience, I know this can be done. It requires no argument to prove the great advantage that the sanitary authorities would have if everybody, for instance, who has a slight attack of fever would report to some one of the hospitals for treatment. In the case of yellow fever, in



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AN UNFINISHED CUT ON THE PANAMA CANAL.



A STREET IN THE OLD QUARTER OF THE TOWN OF PANAMA.

this way the individual will be brought under observation in the first day of his disease, placed under the best possible conditions for recovery, and, most important from a sanitary point of view, put in a screened ward, where mosquitoes cannot bite him, become infected themselves, and, by biting other people, spread the disease to them.

If the poor and ignorant have a horror of the hospitals, they will conceal their yellow-fever cases, and keep them at home, and no system of inspection or severity in punishment for these infractions can enable the sanitary authorities to discover all the cases. I speak from experience on this point. In the midst of the severe epidemic of yellow fever of 1900, in Havana, we found our scheme of having yellow-fever cases reported to the sanitary authorities failing because the people generally believed that they could not get the care or treatment at the hospitals that they could at home, and they would take the risk of any punishment rather than report their yellow-fever sick. We, therefore, turned all the energies of the department toward improving the sanitary hospital, got the best equipment that could be bought, brought as many trained nurses from the United States as we needed, employed the very best physicians, who had the confidence of the people, and soon had our hospital with such a reputation that we had to use no force or punishments to induce people to report their yellow-fever cases to the sanitary authorities. Whenever they felt sick, they sought these authorities, as being the best judges of whether or not they had yellow fever, and, in case they had the disease, of being the best able to take care of them.

Taking the towns of Colon and Panama, I do not think that it would be a large estimate to say that, when work is in full swing, two or three years from now, we shall have a population on the strip of 100,000 people. There are at present about 35,000 on the ground, and it seems to me quite within the bounds of moderation to estimate that with the influx of 30,000 laborers, with the families that will, in the course of time, follow, and others indirectly connected with the work, the present population will be increased by 65,000. It is not a large estimate, particularly in the tropics, to say that 10 per cent. of this 100,000 will be constantly sick from one cause or another. If our efforts are crowned with success, we ought to be able to get half of this 10 per cent. under hospital control. This would give us a hospital population of 5,000 to look after. It can be readily seen that the cost of such an undertaking will be large, and its successful organization will re-

quire a high degree of executive ability. We hope to get for this work Medical Director John W. Ross, United States Navy. Dr. Ross was the head of Las Animas Hospital, the yellow-fever hospital of the sanitary department at Havana, during our military occupation of Cuba.

The towns of Panama and Colon will have to have organized health departments, such as our cities in the United States have, but the functions of which will have to be a little more extensive than those of similar health departments in the United States. The health department at Panama will have to inaugurate mosquito brigades, which will look after the destruction of the mosquitoes, as they relate to yellow fever and malarial fever, to the isolation and care of infectious diseases, to street cleaning, to the disposal of garbage, etc. Our treaty with Panama provides that we shall put both a water and a sewer system into Panama and Colon. This will be done at an early date, and when this has been done, of course, the expense and labor to the sanitary department, both in the towns and along the route of the canal, will be much reduced and simplified. One scheme of water-supply that strikes me very favorably, and that several of the engineers on the commission express themselves as favoring, is that of using the head waters of the Chagres River. The scheme of the canal contemplates a large dam in this locality, for the purpose of both storing water and controlling the floods of the Chagres River. This dam being much higher than the divide, pipes could be laid along the railroad to Panama on the one side and Colon on the other, and at the same time supply all the villages along the route of the canal.



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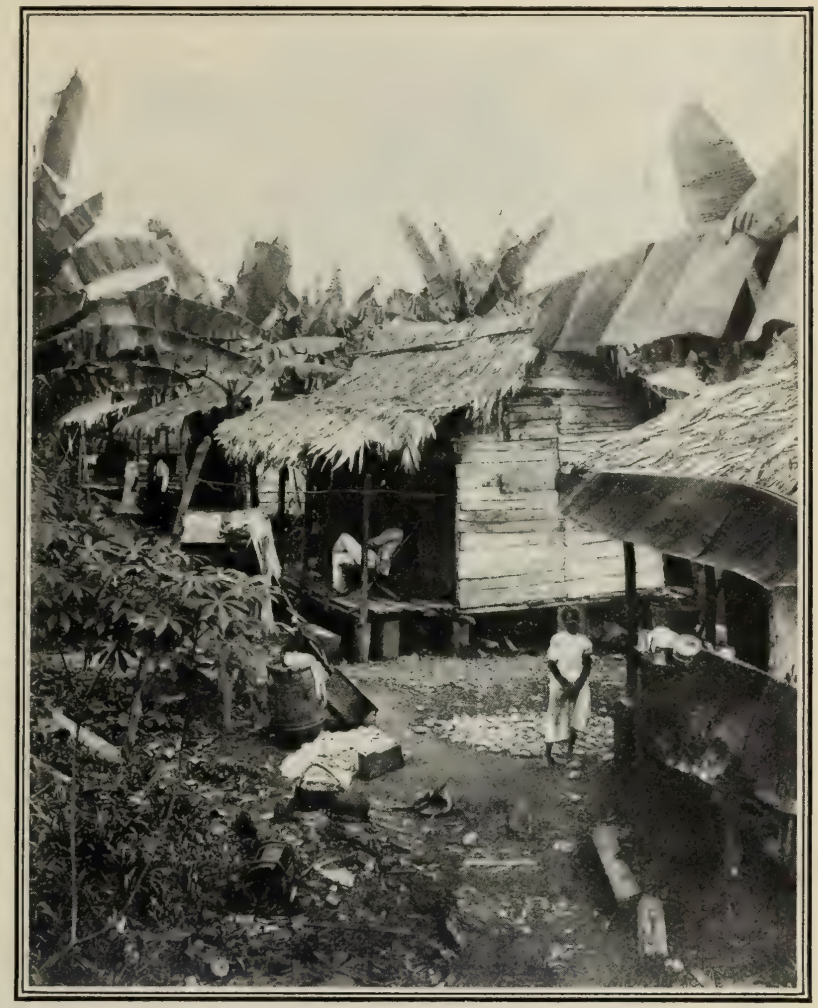
A PIER IN THE HARBOR OF PANAMA.

(Showing the vultures, on top of shed, which are the scavengers of the Isthmus.)

Some work has been done all along the line of the canal. The French had divided it up into seventeen different sections, and let out each of these sections by contract, and each contractor had made a start and done some work on his section. At some convenient point on each of these sections, a small village had grown up. If the working force is as large as the old Isthmian Canal Commission expected, it will be about 30,000 men, and we shall have a considerable population along the canal route in these villages. The 30,000 laborers, with the women, and children, and camp followers generally, who come in, would give us at least 60,000 people in these seventeen villages, an average of some four or five thousand to each town. For each of these villages we shall have to provide a small health department, which will have to keep track and take care of all diseases that may be communicable, attend to the cleaning up generally, see to the disposal of garbage,

etc., and to the general water-supply.

The most important part of our sanitation, I think, will turn upon the control of malaria in these villages. Most of the houses are still in a pretty fair state of repair, and many of them are still occupied by the families of the former employees on the canal. The men have wandered off to the neighboring republics in search of employment. It is estimated that there is still a population of about fifteen thousand in these villages along the canal. These people are all, more or less, suffering from malaria. The anopheles mosquito, which is the malarial mosquito, bites them, becomes herself infected, and when she in turn bites a newcomer, conveys malarial fever to him. If we introduce forty-five thousand unacclimated people into these villages, intimately associated with the present infected population, our condition, in the course of a year or two, will be about as bad as that of the French. The mosquitoes that became infected from the present population would soon have bitten most of the newcomers, and, in a few months, they would all be suffering from malaria. Now, we propose to organize, as we did in Havana, mosquito brigades in all these villages, who will destroy the breeding places of the mosquitoes, and thus keep the insect down to its lowest numbers. At the same time, we expect to take all the present population in these villages, find out who have malaria, make a record of each individual case, and keep them under daily treatment till the malarial parasite has disappeared from the blood.



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SOME NATIVE DWELLING-HOUSES ALONG THE ROUTE OF THE PANAMA CANAL.

We hope that, a year from now, when our unacclimated population comes, it will be to clean, uninfected villages, with all the present native population free from malarial infection, and that there will be left very few malarial mosquitoes, and that these few malarial mosquitoes, not being able to bite any human being previously infected with malaria, will be harmless. This is not an entirely theoretical scheme. In Havana, yellow fever was cared for in just the way that we propose for malaria. The infected human being was taken and placed under screening, and treated until he was free from infection, and thus no yellow-fever mosquito was allowed to bite him during the infected period and become herself infected. At the same time, wholesale mosquito destruction was carried on.

At the end of about eight months of this work, it was found that the number of yellow-fever mosquitoes had been greatly decreased, and those that were left could find no human being infected with yellow fever, whereby they, the yellow-fever mosquitoes, might become infected, and thus convey it to other human be



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NATIVE WASHERWOMEN OF PANAMA.

ings. For the past three years, Havana has been free from yellow fever. An unacclimated man can go to Havana now, and though he may probably be bitten a good many times by yellow fever mosquitoes, these mosquitoes have had no opportunity, in the past three years, of biting a human being infected with yellow fever, and, therefore, are themselves entirely harmless. This condition we hope to bring about in the villages along the canal route by means similar to those adopted in Havana.

In the last fifteen years there have been a good many instances of malaria being controlled, on a small scale, both from the side of destroying the breeding-places of the malarial mosquito and from that of treating the infected human being so that he could not poison the mosquito. Recently, under the advice of Dr. Ronald Ross, of the Liverpool School of Tropical Medicine, the Suez Canal authorities have done some extensive mosquito work at Ismaïlia, with results entirely satisfactory. But Ismaïlia is a town of not more than two thousand inhabitants. Our army medical officers, and the army medical officers of other nations, have been quite successful in keeping small bodies of troops free from malaria in malarious countries, but the only example of any attempt on a large scale, to my knowledge, is at Havana. Here, in a population of about 250,000, simply by destroying the breeding-places of the malarial mosquito, in the course of three years, the average number of deaths was reduced from about 325 per year to 50 per thousand of population.

The attempt to free the whole population from the malarial infection, so that they could not infect the mosquito, has never been tried on any large scale. Koch, in Africa, reports some success on this side alone in small communities. But on the scale on which we shall have to use it at Panama we have no precedent to guide us. The Panama strip is now about as healthy as the ordinary tropical country. The death-rate is a great deal higher than in New York, but this would be the case almost anywhere in the tropics. About twenty people per thousand in New York die every year, and about fifty per thousand at Panama. The general idea about Panama seems to be that we shall suffer as the French did, and as all former European venturers into Panama did, and that, instead of dying, as we do in New York, at the rate of twenty per thousand per year, we shall die, as sometimes occurred to the French and others at Panama, at the rate of five or six hundred per thousand a year. Other men of experience in the tropics, and who have been at Panama for some time, maintain that the matter of sanitation is exceedingly simple and easy, and that the health of the Panama strip ought to be as good as that of most parts of the United States. Both opinions, it seems to me, are extreme, and the truth will fall somewhere between the two. Any health officer, with experience in dealing with a practical question of this kind, will know how exceedingly difficult it will be, in a population of about fifteen thousand people infected with malaria, to devise and apply any system by which the cases can be individually recorded and treated. Personally, I approach the problem with hope, and the expectation of having, approximately, the same success that rewarded similar efforts applied by our military authorities in Cuba. But it is no simple matter. We shall, no doubt, meet with many disappointments and discouragements, and shall succeed in the end only after many modifications of our plans and after many local failures.



THE AMERICAN CAMP AT BAYAMON, PORTO RICO.

THE PORTO RICAN GOVERNMENT'S FIGHT WITH ANEMIA.

BY ADAM C. HAESELBARTH.

WHEN the Legislative Assembly of Porto Rico adjourned, last April, it had passed a bill covering recommendations made in Governor Hunt's message, appropriating $5,000 and providing for the appointment of a commission of three to study the causes of anemia in Porto Rico, and to suggest, if possible, means for the eradication of the disease which afflicts a majority of the island's rural population. Governor Hunt promptly appointed as members of the commission Dr. Bailey K. Ashford, captain and assistant surgeon, U. S. A.; Dr. Walter W. King, assistant surgeon, Public Health and Marine Hospital Service; and Dr. Pedro Gutierrez, a talented native physician.

The new anemia commission, as it is generally called, immediately began work by establishing a hospital camp at Bayamon, a few miles from San Juan. The United States Government promptly gave the services of doctors Ashford and King, and also loaned to the commission $2,500 worth of tents, bed-linen, utensils, etc. The municipal hospital authorities of Bayamon are also coöperating, and several native physicians have given valuable assistance. Fifty patients can be cared for in the tents, and more than five hundred were treated during the first month.

Already the treatment given is meeting with most gratifying results, and the commission seems to have proved that anemia is resultant from contact with infected soil, and that agricultural workers rarely escape infection. As in Porto Rico 63 per cent. of the population are engaged in agriculture, the state of their health has an important bearing on economic conditions, and the prevalence of uncinariasis is a matter of vital concern. Nearly one-fourth of the deaths in the island are from anemia, and the same disease causes fatal ravages in the Philippines and the Southern States, hence all Americans are deeply concerned.

Doctors Ashford and King have made a long and careful study of uncinariasis in Porto Rico, treating more than a thousand cases, and are convinced that prevalent anemia is caused by the presence of tiny parasites which destroy the hemoglobin, or red coloring matter, of the blood, dissolving it by a poison created by the work.

The treatment at Bayamon is very simple. Microscopic tests at once reveal the presence of the worm, which is known to exist from the general anemic appearance of the patient. Thymol is used as a vermifuge to expel the parasites, and then a wonderful rise of hemoglobin, with a coincident gain in vitality, is noticed. A single instance of an aggravated case will suffice to show results. Early in April, a man came in a dying condition to the camp. His face was pasty white, his legs were swollen, and his condition was abnormally torpid. Apparently, he was beyond hope, and a few minutes after his arrival he fainted on the hospital porch and was carried to bed. Heart murmurs were pronounced. The first blood test showed the hemoglobin reduced to 26 per cent. By the first week of May it had risen to 80 per cent., and the man was, practically, thoroughly restored to health. His gratitude,

if one may judge by his expressions, was unbounded.

The test blood is taken from the lobe of the ear, and the drop which fills the capillary tube is then tested in the usual way to show the percentage of hemoglobin. In every instance there is a daily rise after treatment has been begun. An exhaustive clinical record of all cases is kept by the commission.

The scenes about the camp, especially in the morning, are sad and striking. In many instances the poor natives come from distant barrios, and are well-nigh exhausted when they reach the scene of relief. It is a pitiable-looking crowd, but it is a representative one, and is a forceful argument in favor of a vigorous prosecution of the commission's work. The patients range in age from eight to nearly eighty, and most of them are prematurely old and show the dire effects of anemia and lack of nutrition. Not until they feel the beneficial effects of the treatment does the shadow of despair leave their faces; then they depart full of hope and, presumably, empty of anemia parasites.

It is the purpose of the commission to send to every health officer of Porto Rico a report of all the experiments, and to urge coöperation and uniform treatment in all parts of the island. Unless this native assistance is secured, the work of eradicating the disease will be very slow, especially in the coffee districts, where it is most prevalent. Some of the Porto Rican doctors are not inclined to adopt readily American methods of practice, and the convincing of these cynics will be a difficult task for the commission to accomplish. Others, on the contrary, are showing keen interest, and are giving hearty support to the workers. Of this type was Dr. Enrique Rodriguez, an ardent volunteer associate of the commission, who was suddenly stricken with heart-failure and was removed from the anemia camp to his home, only to die.

A few of the conclusions of students of the anemia question in Porto Rico will show the importance of the experiments now being made. Gen. George W. Davis, the new governor of the Panama Canal strip, and formerly military governor of Porto Rico, declared in a report: "It is a conservative estimate to place the laboring classes at six hundred thousand souls, who do not own a rood of land, or possess property of any kind, except a miserable cabin or thatched hut and a few insignificant articles of household goods. This comprises what is known to-day as 'jibaros,' or 'peons.'"



Dr. Bailey K. Ashford. Dr. Enrique Rodriguez
Dr. Gutierrez. Dr. Cestero

GROUP OF UNITED STATES GOVERNMENT AND NATIVE PHYSICIANS CARRYING ON THE WORK AGAINST ANEMIA IN PORTO RICO.

Dr. Ashford says that this class furnishes the cases of uncinariasis; that it is his firm belief that 90 per cent. of them living outside of the larger cities are infected with the parasite, and that 75 per cent. of those infected show decided symptoms.

In the cities it is less common, but not 9 per cent. of the population of Porto Rico live in towns of more than eight thousand inhabitants. In the coffee districts, the infection comes largely through the methods of planting the bean in the damp, rich soil. A little hole is made with the finger, and the bean is pressed in

with the thumb and covered with earth. Work on sugar estates is the next most dangerous occupation. Children who roll and play in the damp earth of banana patches are especially scourged. The eating of raw vegetables, food eaten with unclean hands, the use of unclean, mud-soiled utensils and clothing, and the drinking of muddy water are a few of the many prolific causes of infection. To these may be added generally bad sanitation, an utter lack of personal hygiene, density of population, topography favorable to the spread of larvæ by heavy rains, and many habits conducive to infection. Few cases are found among the better classes, as these people do not come into contact with the soil. The proved conclusions of the commission, and especially of doctors Ashford and King, from their previous experiments, absolutely refute the recently published assertion that the Porto Rican anemia is the anemia of starvation. There are few peons of Porto Rico who do not have rice, beans, bananas, sugar, and other products in abundance. Such statements, therefore, are misleading and untrue. It is a peculiar fact that the negro race is comparatively immune. Malarial anemia is comparatively rare in Porto Rico.



A GROUP OF ANEMIC PATIENTS IN GOVERNMENT CAMP.

If, therefore, the general contentions of the commission prove to be absolutely correct, the work of stamping out uncinariasis in the island will be comparatively easy, and the effect upon labor, now held within the grasp of anemia, will be beneficial beyond calculation. A new life will be infused into the working classes, and with that new life will come ambition and renewed physical strength. When that happens, Porto Rico will be transformed into a hive of agricultural industry, and the marvelous little island will prosper as never before, because the mass of her people will be willing and able to work, and thus share the prosperity. "'Tis a consummation devoutly to be wished," and seemingly it can be reached through the application of the lessons now being learned in the interesting camp at Bayamon.

GOVERNMENT CARE OF CONSUMPTIVES.

BY OLIVER P. NEWMAN.

TEN years ago, consumptives went West to die. Now they go West to get well. The great "White Plague," which carries off thousands and thousands of people annually, has been conquered by the man of science. At the convention of the American Medical Association, at Saratoga, New York, a ruddy-cheeked man, weighing a few pounds less than two hundred, talked on tuberculosis. In conclusion, he said: "Gentlemen, I offer myself in evidence as an example of our cured cases. I was a consumptive two years ago. To the best of my knowledge, I am now entirely cured."

This man was Dr. Paul M. Carrington, surgeon, United States Public Health and Marine Hospital Service, who is in command of the government sanatorium for consumptive sailors at Fort Stanton, New Mexico. When he took command of the sanatorium he had consumption in the first stage. He is now in perfect health.



A PATIENT'S TENT, SHOWING FRONT FLAP AND SIDE WALLS UP FOR VENTILATION.

Within the past few years, sanatoria throughout the West and Southwest have demonstrated that consumption, even in the third stage, can be cured. Probably the best results, as well as the most reliable statistics, come from Fort Stanton. In scrutinizing the results obtained there, two things must be borne in mind :

First—Cases in all stages of advancement are admitted.

Second—Statistics as to improvement and cure are authentic.

In private sanatoria advanced cases are seldom taken, and statistics are frequently gathered with a liberal hand. At Fort Stanton, the statistics are based on actual results. The sanatorium is a government institution, maintained at great expense and by the output of much hard work. The patients are the only beneficiaries. Nothing is to be gained by an exaggeration of statistics.

The sanatorium is under the control of and is operated by the United States Public Health and Marine Hospital Service, which is one of the many bureaus of the Treasury Department. At the head of the service is Dr. Walter Wyman, with the title of surgeon-general. The patients at the sanatorium are seamen employed on vessels of the merchant marine of the United States, keepers and crews of lighthouses, officers and men of the Revenue Cutter Service and the Coast and Geodetic Survey, and officers and men employed on government vessels other than those of the navy. Patients are admitted through the United States marine hospitals, which are maintained at practically every river, lake, and ocean port in the United States and its possessions. These hospitals are for the relief of sick sailors, who, as a rule, have no homes, are not legal residents of any civic community, and cannot, therefore, be cared for in county or municipal hospitals. On this account, and because the commerce in which he is engaged is of a national rather than of State or municipal, benefit, the sailor is considered the ward of the federal government.

Whenever the doctors at a marine hospital discover tuberculosis in a patient, they immediately send him to Fort Stanton for treatment. His railroad fare is paid, and his subsistence, quarters, clothing (in some cases), and other necessities are supplied free at the sanatorium, where he may remain until cured, or, if his condition does not improve, until he dies, when he is given decent burial. Thus is the Government doing good in two ways : it is giving relief while they live, and often permanent cure, to afflicted men who are too poor to place themselves in private sanatoria ; and it is removing to an isolated place patients infected with a readily communicable disease, thereby lessening, if only a little, the tendency of tuberculosis to spread.

The improvement and cure of consumptives at Fort Stanton have been effected by the treatment of the body of the patient—not by the treatment of the disease. The medical profession does not admit that there has been discovered a specific remedy that will cure consumption. In the absence of such a remedy, the



THE WHITE MOUNTAINS, NEW MEXICO.

(Twenty-five miles west of Fort Stanton. Patients' tents in foreground.)



FORT STANTON PATIENTS ON A CAMPING TRIP IN THE WHITE MOUNTAINS, NEW MEXICO.

doctors at Fort Stanton call upon nature to do the work of medicine. The whole gist of the treatment is · build up the general tone of the body to a point where the system, of its own accord, will throw off the disease.

To accomplish this, three things have been found to be of paramount importance. They are : rest, outdoor life, wholesome food.

Consumption is the most devastating to the system of all the diseases to which the human body is heir. It not only eats up the lungs, but it reduces the vitality of its victim to the lowest ebb. The most meager student of medical science ought to realize that a body in which the vitality is badly impaired should not be taxed further, but should be given absolute rest, in order that the remaining strength be permitted to fight the disease.

The question of food for a consumptive is even more simple than the question of rest. He should receive plain, well-cooked, nutritious, tissue-building food,—the same food that is given a prize-fighter training for a fight (for the consumptive is training for a hard fight), or an athletic team preparing for a contest. At Fort Stanton, it has been found that eggs and milk are exceedingly beneficial, and patients are given both in abundance. A herd of dairy cattle is kept on the reservation, and increased from time to time as the number of patients increases. A herd of range beef cattle has been built up and, in another year or two, will supply the sanatorium with beef. At present, meats are bought on annual contract. A large tract of land is devoted to the raising of garden vegetables, although the entire needs of the institution cannot as yet be met in that respect.

"Outdoor life" probably means more at Fort Stanton than at any other sanatorium in the country, because there the patients are out-of-doors, in the actual open air, practically all the time. About half the patients sleep in tents, thereby getting as much and as pure air at night as they would if they were actually out-of-doors, sleeping on the ground, with the naked stars above them. The remainder have beds in specially ventilated dormitories, which they are not permitted to occupy except when they are asleep. All patients are under the direct control of nurses, who are required to keep their charges out-of-doors in the daytime, and the dormitory doors and windows wide open at night.

One of the greatest advantages in the treatment of consumption at Fort Stanton is the climate. The sun shines on an average of three hundred and forty days per annum, and on



INTERIOR OF PATIENT'S TENT.

nearly every one of these days it is mild enough for the patients to sit out-of-doors. The winters are mild and the summers cool. The altitude is 6,150 feet, which, combined with the slight precipitation—from 14 to 17 inches, part of which is snow—produces an extremely dry atmosphere the year round. While the temperature on one or two occasions has gone over ninety in the summer, the heat is never enervating. There is invariably a cool breeze. It is always comfortable in the shade, and at least one blanket is necessary at night. All patients sleep well, and as sleep is a great tissue-builder, the cool nights in the summer are almost as beneficial as the clear days throughout the year. In the winter, the temperature at night is almost invariably at freezing or a little below, but the days are almost universally mild.

Half-a-dozen doctors of the Public Health and Marine Hospital Service, assisted by an equal number of trained male nurses, minister to the wants of the patients. Their duties consist chiefly of symptomatic medical treatment and an insistence on plenty of absolute rest and an abundance of outdoor air and sunshine. The group of buildings comprising the sanatorium lie on the south bank of a beautiful little stream, the "Rio Bonito" (river beautiful), in a grove of cottonwoods and willows. The verandas and broad stretches of green under the trees are furnished with invalid chairs, in which the patients lounge, sleep, and read by day. Even in the winter they are required to sit out-of-doors, in the sun, in the lee of a building, bundled up in blankets. It is a common sight to see a group of half-a-dozen reclining chairs placed in two or three inches of snow, each containing a patient muffled from head to foot. Occasionally it is quite cold, even in the middle of the day, but that makes no difference. As long as it is clear the patient must remain out-of-doors. At a low altitude such exposure would be disastrous, but at Fort Stanton the patients do not even "take cold."

What to do to keep the patients' minds in a healthy condition has been a serious problem at Fort Stanton. The natural solution would seem to be, "Provide amusements." But for two reasons amusements must be limited. One is that many require more or less physical exertion, and the other is that an equal number are too exciting, having a tendency to make the patient irritable and to run up his temperature. Certain amusements, however, are provided. On the hills above the sanatorium is a good golf course, where such patients as are able are urged to play and are provided with clubs. Several croquet sets are located on the smooth, grassy spots under the cottonwoods, where patients can be seen playing at all hours of the day and early evening.



ONE OF THE DORMITORIES FOR AMBULANT CASES.

Owing to the generosity of Miss Helen Gould and others, the sanatorium is equipped with an excellent library of standard and current literature. Books and magazines are issued to patients, but all reading must be done out-of-doors. No reading-room is provided in the library building, which, however, has been constructed with broad balconies, supplied with reclining chairs and tables, where patients may read and get the sun at all hours of the day. In the winter months, the monotony is varied from time to time by concerts, given by patients who have a little musical and dramatic ability, and who are in better condition than the majority. The verandas of all buildings are furnished with tables, at which the patients play card games, chess, checkers, etc. In the spring, summer, and fall, such patients as are able are taken on periodical trips into the surrounding mountains. Usually these outings take the form of picnics and last only a day, but occasionally a party is taken out for fishing or hunting and camps for a week or two at a time.

No patient is allowed to take recreation which requires physical exertion without permission from the surgeon in command. Experience has taught the sanatorium officials that too little exercise is much less harmful than too much, which not only retards the patient's advancement, but may help the progress of the disease, and sometimes even kill. A great many of the patients in comparatively good condition are allowed to own and ride horses, as the care of the animal and the riding are beneficial if the invalid can stand the exercise. A great many more of this class are employed at the sanatorium at light work, such as weeding, gardening, caring for horses, distributing subsistence, tending fires, etc. A close watch is kept on them, however, to prevent them overtaxing their strength.

These exercises have been found to be exceedingly beneficial. They break up adhesions and increase the breathing space in the lungs. All patients—largely on account of the breathing exercises—increase their chest expansion from one to three or four inches during the first month or two of their stay at Fort Stanton. It has also been the experience of the doctors there that patients are less liable to have hemorrhages after admission. In fact, a majority of the patients who have had hemorrhages at sea level or in low altitudes cease having them when they go to Fort Stanton. This is due, the doctors believe, to the decreased barometric pressure.

One of the most important features of the work at Fort Stanton is the constant effort on the part of every official connected with the institution to prevent the reinfection of cured or convalescent patients and the infection of healthy employees. Every patient is supplied with a spit-cup, in which he must deposit his sputum. Some of these are fitted with paper fillers, which are removed and burned whenever necessary in brick crematories, several of which are located at convenient points in the sanatorium grounds. Others are metal cups, which are disinfected every morning in a specially designed steam sterilizer. No patient can spit on the ground, or anywhere but in his spit-cup, and remain at Fort Stanton. As science has demonstrated that the disease is transmitted by the inhalation of tubercle bacilli, which are found only in the sputum, in most cases, the utmost rigor is exercised to see that all sputum is destroyed. Recent experiments of injecting dust from consumptives' quarters into guinea pigs has demonstrated that sanitary conditions are as near perfect as possible, and that the liability of a well person becoming infected is practically eliminated.

In reviewing statistics obtained at Fort Stanton, it must be remembered that cases in all stages of advancement, as well as with many, and frequently all, the various complications to which consumptives are subject, are received. Cases known as in the first stage are those in which the disease has not progressed to a point where lung tissue consolidates. The second and third stage cases are those in which the physical signs indicate consolidation, with or without cavities. The second and third stage cases are grouped together because it is frequently difficult, if not impossible, to know just when a patient passes or has passed from the one to the other. The percentage of recoveries and the extent of improvement decrease according to the advancement the disease has made when the cases reach the sanatorium.

The following is a general summary of all cases treated from the opening of the sanatorium, November 1 to April 30, 1903 :

Treated	470 cases.
Died	89 cases, or 19%.
Discharged not improved	20 cases, or 4.25%.
Discharged improved	162 cases, or 34.5%.
Discharged apparently cured	51 cases, or 10.85%.
Under treatment April 30, 1903	148 cases, or 31.5%.

Eliminating the 148 cases under treatment April 30, 1903, and dealing only with the cases in which treatment has terminated (470 less 148) 322, the statistics are as follows :

Died	89 cases, or 27.6%.
Discharged not improved	20 cases, or 6.2%.
Discharged improved	162 cases, or 50.3%.
Discharged apparently cured	51 cases, or 15.8%.

This is what the Government did in three and one-half years : it cured of consumption 51

men who would otherwise, in all probability, have died; 51 cures out of 470 men treated—over 10 per cent.—or more than 15 per cent. of all cases in which treatment had terminated.

Seventy nine of the 470 patients treated had consumption in its first stage. The remaining 391 had the disease in its second and third stages. The statistics obtained with the former were as follows:

Died	2 cases, or 2.5%.
Discharged not improved	4 cases, or 5%.
Discharged improved	23 cases, or 29%.
Discharged apparently cured	28 cases, or 35.5%.
Under treatment April 30, 1903	22 cases, or 28%.

In neither of the fatal cases was death due to tuberculosis. Discarding them from the calculations and eliminating the twenty two cases under treatment April 30, 1903, and dealing only with the remainder of the cases, in which treatment has terminated, the statistics are as follows:

Treated	55 cases.
Discharged not improved	4 cases, or 7.3%.
Discharged improved	23 cases, or 41.8%.
Discharged apparently cured	28 cases, or 50.9%.

Following are the statistics for the three hundred and ninety-one second and third stage cases.

Died	87 cases, or 22.3%.
Discharged not improved	16 cases, or 4%.
Discharged improved	139 cases, or 35.6%.
Discharged apparently cured	23 cases, or 5.9%.
Under treatment April 30, 1903	126 cases, or 32%.

Eliminating the cases under treatment April 30, 1903, and dealing only with the cases in which treatment has terminated (391 less 126), the statistics are as follows:

Treated	265 cases.
Died	87 cases, or 32.8%.
Discharged not improved	16 cases, or 6%.
Discharged improved	139 cases, or 52%.
Discharged apparently cured	23 cases, or 8.7%.

But 23 cases of the second and third stage class were cured out of a total of 265 cases in which treatment has terminated, as against 28 cures out of a total of 55 first-stage cases treated. Over half of the latter were cured, while in the former but about one-tenth. These figures alone are a strong argument for the benefit of open-air treatment of consumption in its early stages. The percentages of recoveries in second and third stage cases at Fort Stanton, however, are considered by all authorities on tuberculosis to be unexpectedly high.

Another institution wherein the Government obtains excellent results in the treatment of consumptives is at Fort Bayard, New Mexico.



Appearance when admitted, May 22, 1902. Discharged, apparently cured, October 27, 1903.

ONE OF THE FORT STANTON PATIENTS.

At this station—an old army post—is located the United States General Hospital, for the treatment of officers and men of the army and navy who have contracted tuberculosis in the government service. The hospital, where no regular troops of the line are on duty, is under the command of Deputy Surgeon General Edward Comegys, who holds the rank of lieutenant-colonel in the medical department of the army. Dr. Comegys was sent to Fort Bayard last fall. Prior to that time, the institution was under the direction of Dr. D. M. Appel, a surgeon of the army with the rank of major. Dr. Appel went to Fort Bayard, when the station was established as a tuberculosis hospital, six years ago. He was a consumptive in the second stage then. Now he is on active duty in the Philippines—a well man.

Officers of the army and navy are sent to Fort Bayard on sick leave when it is first discovered that they have tuberculosis. If their chances of recovery are good, they are retained on the active list and kept at Fort Bayard until cured and able to return to duty. If, after giving the institution and the climate a fair trial, the indications are that they will never be able to accept regular duty, they are retired for physical disability, and, as retired officers, are entitled to treatment at Fort Bayard as long as they wish to remain there. Enlisted men, to become patients, must be discharged from the service and enrolled as members of the Soldiers' and Sailors' Home, whose inmates are entitled to treatment at Fort Bayard if they suffer from any form of tuberculosis.

There are always between three hundred and fifty and four hundred patients at Fort Bayard, where the percentage of cures has been between 8 and 10 per cent. The treatment is practically the same as that administered at Fort Stanton.

BATTLESHIPS, MINES, AND TORPEDOES.

BY PARK BENJAMIN.

THE fighting line, whether of a navy or of a fleet, is an assemblage of its most powerful vessels. It is not any collection of ships, some strong, others weak, which may be fortuitously brought into simultaneous action, but a segregation of the strongest, which, presumably, must encounter a similar segregation of the enemy's strongest. The fighting line is, therefore, a line of champions, and upon its strength, both actual and relatively, to that of the enemy's line, and not upon the aggregate paper strength of the navy to which it belongs, depends victory or defeat. The highest known expression of naval power embodied in a single unit vessel is intended to be the battleship. This is the champion, and with the battleship lines of the world's navies is supposed to rest the ultimate decision of its naval conflicts.

A battleship is a floating and self-moving steel citadel. It carries guns of the largest caliber — 12 and 13 inch — besides others of smaller bore. The 12-inch guns in our battleships, now used in preference to the larger type, are capable of sending their projectiles through 21.2 inches of Krupp armor at 2,000 yards' distance with a muzzle energy of 46,246 foot-tons. The Russian and Japanese guns of similar caliber are about one-third less powerful. Battleships are armored in order to protect their crews and guns, and also their hulls and machinery. A belt of armor about 8 feet wide, and extending the whole length of the ship, is used for hull protection, supplemented by a protective steel deck which slopes upward from the bottom of the armor belt. In addition, there are the coal bunkers, which receive and smother fragments of bursting shell, and the cofferdams filled with cellulose,—a material which, on penetration and wetting, swells up and closes the hole made by the projectile. There has been of late years a tendency to use armor more for the protection of guns and crew than of hull, and therefore the larger guns are mounted in turrets rising out of heavily armored cylinders (barbettes), and the others in casemates covered with thick plating. Necessarily, since so much of her tonnage is devoted to guns and armor, the battleship does not possess either the engine power or the coal-supply of a cruiser. She cannot steam as fast nor travel without recoaling for so great a distance, but she can give, and especially take, blows far beyond the cruiser's capacity. For tactical purposes, a first-class modern battleship is regarded as a match for four armored cruisers.

NOTHING YET PROVED IN THE FAR EAST.

At the beginning of the present conflict, the Russian fighting line in Chinese waters consisted of seven ships,—namely, the *Czarevitch*, *Retsvisan*, *Peresviet*, *Pobieda*, *Poltava*, *Petropavlovsk*, and *Sevastopol*. Of these, one, the *Petropavlovsk*, has been completely destroyed, four have been badly injured, and two still remain unhurt in Port Arthur harbor. The Japanese fighting line included the *Mikasa*, *Asahi*, *Shikishima*, *Fuji*, *Yashima*, and *Hatsuse*. Of these, one, the *Hatsuse*, has been completely destroyed, and the remainder are in active service, but their condition is unknown, and is kept carefully concealed by the Japanese.



THE RUSSIAN BATTLESHIP "CZAREVITCH."

(Built in 1901. Length, 388 feet; displacement, 13,110 tons; speed [on trial], 19 knots; heaviest gun, 12-inch.)

Up to the present time, these two fighting lines have not met. Therefore, none of the pressing questions relative to battleship efficiency have been answered by the present war. While abundant tests have been made of the resisting power of armor plate and the penetrative power of guns, no nation



THE JAPANESE BATTLESHIP "MIKASA."

(Length, 436 feet; displacement, 15,200 tons; speed, 18.6 knots; four 12-inch guns. The largest battleship in the world.)

has yet been willing to expend a battleship as a target in order that its resisting qualities as a structure may be determined. It is not certain under what conditions of stress and strain, or of wear, this structure will pass the limit of serious deterioration; it is not certain whether and for how long it can withstand without impairment the shock of its own guns; it is not certain what will happen to it if struck squarely by, say, a 12-inch shell at moderate range, even if the armor at the impact point is not penetrated. No two hostile fleets of modern battleships—no two hostile modern battleships—have ever tried out conclusions. While the battleship is believed to be, as already stated, the highest expression of naval power, and the nations of the world have gone steadily on increasing it in size and in cost, still this course is dictated largely by theoretical conclusions. It is not certain that the battleship is the correct deduction from our present knowledge of naval warfare. It is not apparent how anything but actual trial in war will demonstrate what that correct deduction is.

NO BATTLESHIP TEST AS YET.

The existing conflict has shown, however, that the fighting lines of both antagonists may be materially impaired without any actual meeting of them. The Russian line has been cut down from seven to two effective vessels, and the Japanese from six to five; so that while at the outset, on paper, the Russians had an apparent superiority, the scale is now turned. The obvious result is that the Japanese gained the ability to transport their armies to the mainland unimpeded by the Russian battleship fleet, which became shut up in Port Arthur.

This was the immediate consequence of the use of the self-propelling torpedo and, possibly, of the fixed submerged mine. While these weapons of themselves are by no means new, the demonstration of their capacities in cutting down the strength of the all-important fighting line is new; and it is this demonstration which has aroused of late the doubts concerning the battleship.

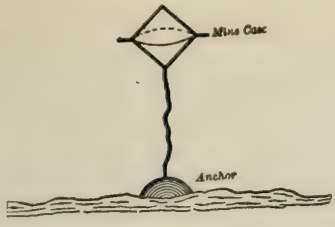
Of course, command of the sea is presumably attainable by a fleet composed of the most powerful units and capable of overcoming the enemy's best fleet,—and, on paper, other things being equal, seven battleships can overmatch five. But command of the sea, in fact, as we now see, can be lost by the superior fleet if it is vulnerable to certain other weapons which can be independently used. This is because the battleship, as at present constructed, cannot resist the submarine mine or torpedo charged with modern high explosive in sufficient quantity to break in its sides. No means has yet been invented which holds out reasonable hope of protection by extraneous contrivances. Nets cannot be employed, and all schemes involving shields surrounding the vessel with an intervening water space have proved ineffectual. Inner partitions of steel, with coal packed between them and the wall of the ship, were on the *Czarevitch*, and apparently failed. Much cellular subdivision did not save the *Petropavlovsk*, and her longitudinal bulkhead seemingly contributed to her prompt upsetting through the accumulation of water on one side of it.

WHAT ARE MINES?

It is of interest to understand what these formidable weapons, before which even the most powerful battleship appears as defenseless as a gunboat, actually are.

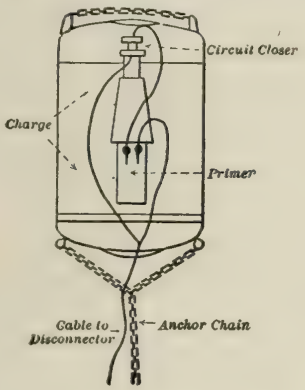
A submarine mine is simply a charge of explosive inclosed in a case and moored under water in the river, harbor, or channel to be protected. Between two hundred and three hundred pounds of gun-cotton is enough to blow a hole in the bottom of most vessels even at a distance of 20 feet. The mine either

rests directly on the bottom, or it is anchored by a cable so as to float a certain distance below the surface. Floating mines are also called "buoyant mines," and differ among themselves mainly in the way in which they are fired. The simplest and oldest form, equally dangerous to friend and foe, is the contact mine, which explodes only when a vessel actually strikes its projecting firing pin. This was used by the Confederates during the Civil War, and also by the Spaniards at Guantanamo, where adhesive and friendly barnacles fortunately made them harmless. A safer and better arrangement depends upon the closing of an electrical contact by the vessel colliding either with the mine itself or with a buoy connected to it, thus establishing a circuit through which the charge can be fired either automatically or at the will of a controlling operator. This is the usual expedient. The wires are led to a shore station or a ship. When not automatic, the electrical arrangements are such that each mine, as soon as struck, signals that fact to the operator, usually by lighting an electric lamp. He then presses a key which closes the firing circuit and explodes the charge. He may be far inland and entirely safe from hostile fire, and, of course, it is not necessary for him actually to see the devoted vessel which thus sends in a signal for its own destruction.



A CONTACT MINE.

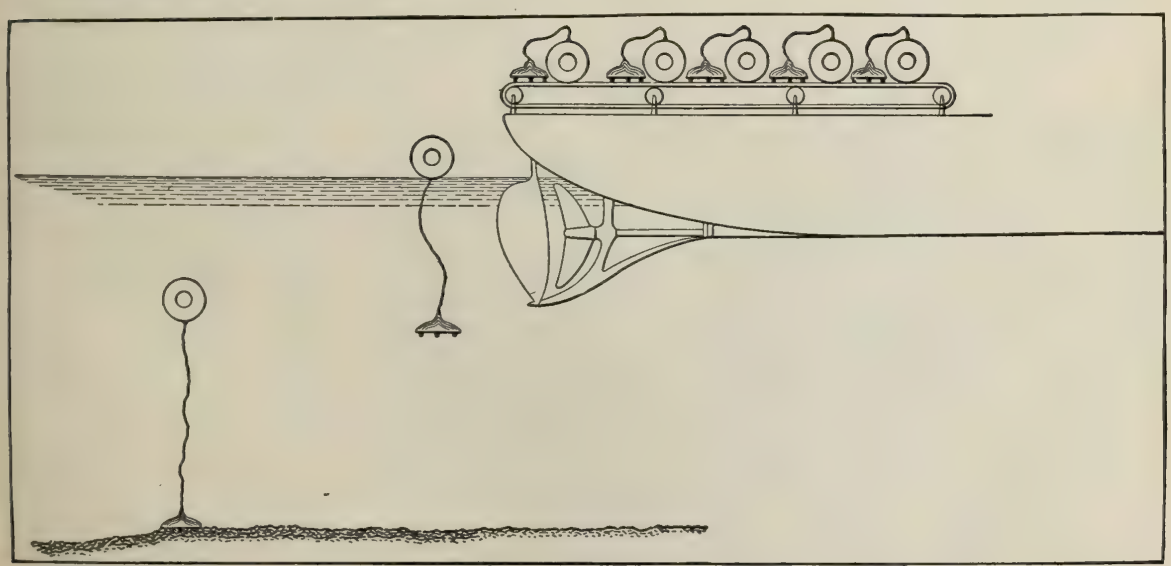
(The mine case is held by its cable just below the surface of the water, the anchor resting on the bottom.)



AN ELECTRO-CONTACT MINE.

(The circuit may be broken on shore at will, so as to allow friendly ships to pass in safety; but when the circuit is closed, collision with the mine determines its explosion.)

Ground mines, which rest on the bottom, are fired in the same way, and are especially employed when there are swift currents which would tear buoyant mines from their anchorages, or where the water is shallow and there is not much rise and fall of tide. All mines are usually laid in groups, so as to form a so-called "mine field" of sufficient area to prevent vessels reaching the harbor or other place to be protected without encountering or



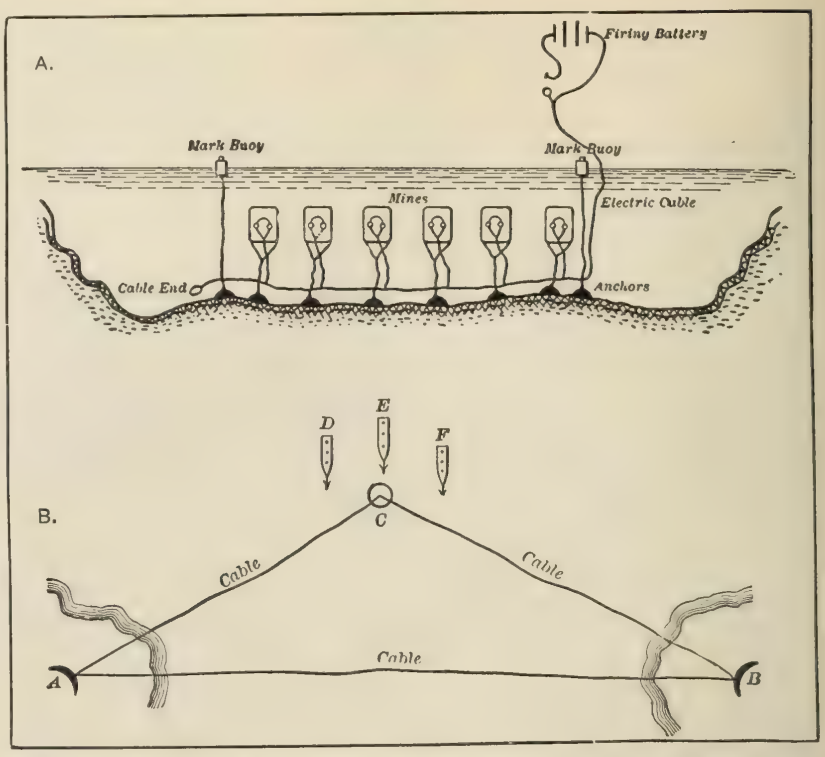
A MINE-LAYING VESSEL.

(Showing a number of mines, together with their anchors, disposed on a belt, the upper portion of which constantly travels toward the stern. The mines are thus dropped overboard successively, and anchor themselves as the ship steams ahead. Mines can be very rapidly laid in this way.)

The diagrams of mines in this article are from "Text-Book Ordnance and Gunnery," by Lieutenant-Commander W. F. Fullam and Lieut. T. C. Hart, U. S. N., official text-book of the United States Naval Academy).

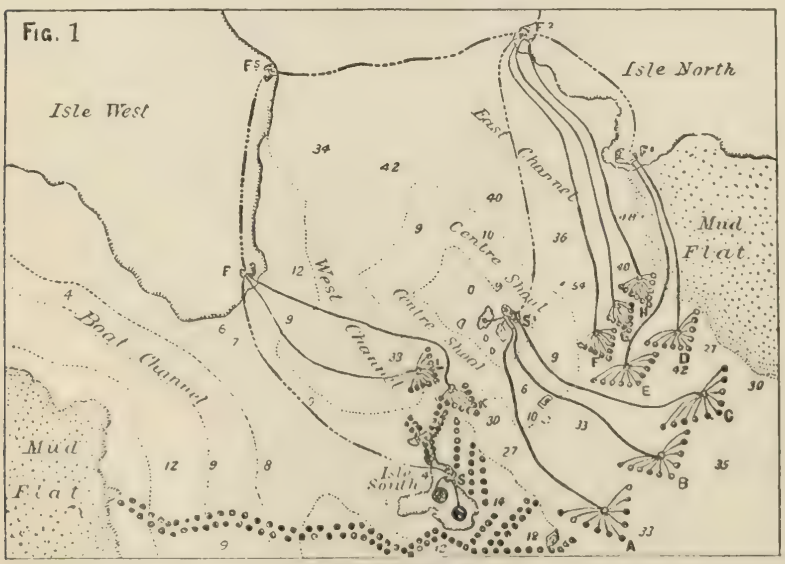
passing over them ; and a great deal of ingenuity has been expended in devising contrivances whereby one mine of a group or any number of them, or one group or any number of groups, may be controlled as occasion may require.

Because of the perfection to which these devices have been brought and the comparative safety with which mines may now be handled, they are rapidly becoming a part of the equipment of war vessels. Squadrons or single ships now secure protection from attack in harbors in which refuge is taken by quickly mining the approaches ; and, in our navy this is made a regular drill during the summer maneuvers, and every effort is exerted to do the work with the utmost celerity. So, also, an inferior force may shut up an enemy in port by



A.—Line of mines on one cable, closing a harbor entrance. The "mark buoys," which are in sight, indicate to the observer on shore when the hostile vessels are in position to be blown up.

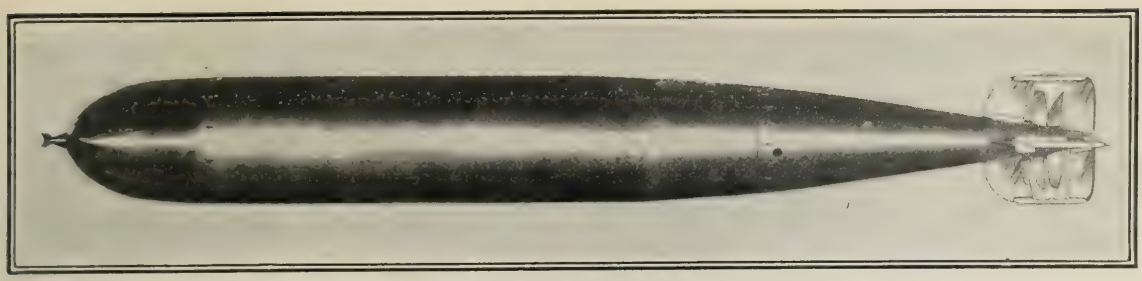
B.—Two observers at *A* and *B* keep their telescopes trained at such angles that when a ship is seen by both simultaneously, she is then over the ground mine *C*, and the closing of both circuits determines the explosion. Thus, the vessel *E* is moving directly into position, while the vessels *D* and *F* will pass the mine.



PLAN OF A MINE FIELD.

Showing how the mines are distributed in groups in the channels and electrically controlled from the shore. Notice the disposition of the groups in the east or main ship channel, so that a vessel avoiding one group will certainly pass over some other group. The whole protected space is swept by fire of small guns to prevent countermining operations, and is illuminated by searchlights at night.

laying lines of mines across the entrance, an expedient which we did not adopt against Cervera's squadron at Santiago, but which is usually advantageous, since it leaves the blockading fleet free to engage in other operations. The mines which blew up the *Petropavlovsk* and the *Hatsuse*—if they were mines—were evidently of the contact type, and exploded as soon as they were struck. The mine—if it was such—which blew up the *Petropavlovsk* was anchored in place, probably, by one of the Japanese torpedo boats. If the *Hatsuse* was destroyed by a floating mine "ten miles from land," it is safe to conclude that that mine was not anchored where it did its fatal work, but was one



A WHITEHEAD TORPEDO WITH WAR HEAD READY FOR BUSINESS.

which had broken adrift from its moorings. Hence it is as likely to have been of Japanese as of Russian origin.

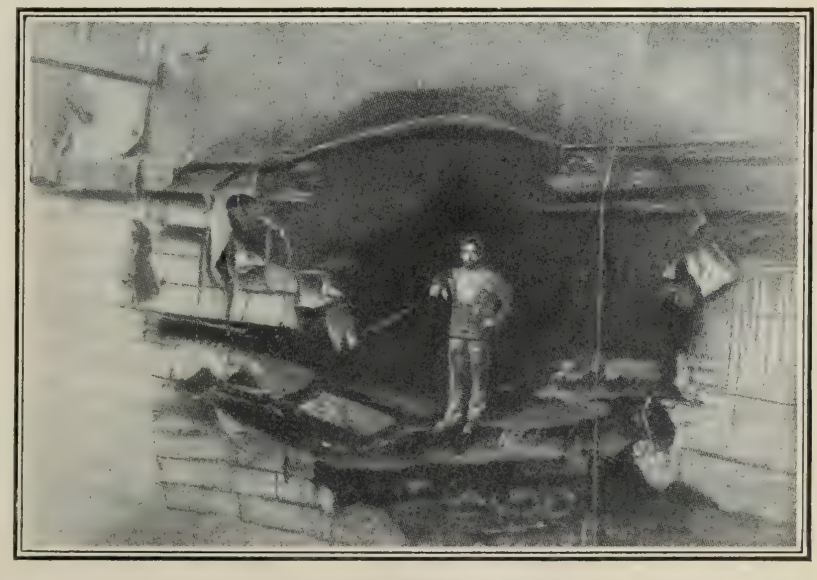
Where buoyant mines are moored in a tideway, the force of a heavy gale, united to that of an unusual tide, may tear them from their anchors, and in such case there is no telling where they may go. But no mines are purposely set afloat to drift about aimlessly. They would be as dangerous to friend as to enemy, and the suggestion that the Russians intentionally "filled the waters around Port Arthur with loose torpedoes" is altogether absurd. There has been very severe weather along the Asiatic coast since the attack on Port Arthur began, and if mines have been found far at sea, it is only reasonable to suppose that they were originally in the harbor channels and became swept away. The bay of New York was thickly planted with similar mines during the Spanish war, and several of them, which were detached by storms or broken loose by tugs running into them (while unprimed, of course, otherwise the tugs would have vanished), went out into the ocean. Some were found as far north as the coast of Maine, and others may be floating about yet.

TORPEDOES AND THEIR ADVANTAGE.

While both mine and torpedo accomplish their object by an external explosion which crushes in the bottom or side of the vessel, they are different things. The mine is stationary, the torpedo is movable. The mine waits in ambush for its prey to come to it, the torpedo seeks its quarry. The kind of torpedo most commonly used is that of the Whitehead type, which was fully described in Mr. Hudson Maxim's article on torpedoes in the May number of this REVIEW.

TORPEDO BOATS AND DESTROYERS.

A torpedo boat is simply a light craft having no powers of resistance of its own (for it is usually made of very thin steel), the function of which is to bring torpedoes within range of the vessel or vessels to be attacked. This boat is literally filled with engines, and can steam at a high speed,—from 25 to 35 knots per hour. It works under cover of fog or darkness, or both, and relies upon a sudden, swift dash to close upon its victim and simultaneously to set free its torpedo, which is fired from a swiveled tube carried on the deck. Frequently, as in the first assault on the Russian ships at Port Arthur, a flotilla of these boats attacks *en masse*, and a number of torpedoes are simultaneously discharged in the enemy's direction, with the idea that some fraction of them will certainly take effect.



THE TORPEDO'S TERRIBLE TOUCH.

(A huge hole blown in the side of the Russian cruiser *Pallada*.)

A torpedo-boat destroyer is a larger and faster torpedo boat, designed not only to project torpedoes, but also provided with a battery of guns of sufficient size to annihilate the torpedo boats of the enemy. A destroyer is like a dragon-fly among mosquitoes. It is supposed to be able to catch any torpedo boat and, if need be, to run it down and sink it by the collision. Torpedo-boat destroyers can keep the sea longer than torpedo boats and stand heavier weather, so that under cover of fog or darkness they can be employed to torpedo the fighting line when it is far from land and not expecting any hostile onslaught. Torpedo boats and torpedo-boat destroyers have been used indiscriminately by both antagonists in the present war, and with little differentiation of purpose.

Submarine torpedo boats are not known to have been employed by either Russians or Japanese up to the time of writing, but Russia was reported, in 1903, to be building fifty of them, and it has been persistently asserted that Japan has had four in actual service throughout the hostilities. There are indications pointing to the employment of a submarine in the sinking of the *Petropavlovsk*,—and, indeed, some people have positively asserted that they actually saw the boat just before the fatal torpedo was delivered. If the floating-mine theory is excluded, the destruction of the *Hatsuse*, ten miles from land, also suggests the work of a submarine; but against these suspicions are to be set the positive denials of both combatants that either possesses an available boat of this kind. It is hardly possible, however, to doubt that unless the war is quickly ended, submarines will ultimately play an important part.

The type of submarine used in our navy is capable of running on the surface of the water in the ordinary way when not in action. The boat is then propelled like an automobile, by a simple gas engine. When it attacks, all openings are closed and the boat dives. Motive power is then furnished to the propeller from a storage battery, which also supplies electric lamps for illuminating the interior. Compressed air for the torpedoes, carried in large tanks, serves also for breathing purposes. The vessel is steered both horizontally and vertically by simple rudders, and kept at a definite immersion, usually from 10 to 30 feet below the surface, with great accuracy. Of course, the helmsman cannot see ahead of him, and therefore he steers his craft by compass, just as he would steer any vessel in the dark or dense fog. He also has the aid of an optical device called the periscope, which is carried above the surface of the water and projects a diminished picture of the surroundings upon a tablet on the boat. The torpedo is placed in a tube in the pointed bow of the boat, arranged with an air-lock so that water cannot enter, and is projected therefrom by a puff of compressed air. The submarine approaches her prey with her conning tower just awash, so that her helmsman's head and shoulders are above the surface, and thus he is enabled to steer directly for the enemy's ship until some one on board the latter sights what seems to be a harmless keg or barrel drifting by. No chances, however, are taken as to the harmlessness, and the quick-fire hail begins at once. Then the helmsman notes the compass-bearing of his victim and dives. He estimates his distance, and when he thinks he has reached torpedo range, he orders the torpedo to be released, and then twists around and possibly dives deeper to avoid the explosion.

WHAT HAS BEEN DEMONSTRATED OF THE TORPEDO.

The torpedo, either stationary in the mine or movable and projected from torpedo-boat or submarine, has, as we have seen, really determined the command of the sea in the present conflict. Guns and armor have not to the same extent directly affected the situation. They have been present, but gun-fire has not caused the relative disparity between the Russian and the Japanese fleets, because the fleets have not met.

There is still, however, the question of what part the torpedo will play when projected from vessels in the fighting line; and that raises the whole issue whether the naval conflict of the future between the most powerful of battleships will be mainly a torpedo fight or a gun fight. Preponderating naval opinion is now forcing the installation of submerged torpedo tubes in the battleships themselves.

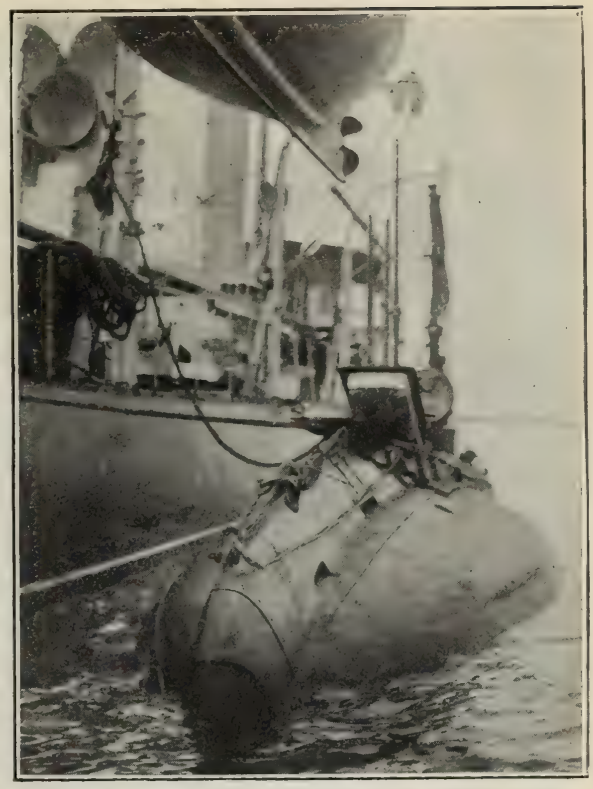
We are spending about three million dollars in doing it. Two tubes will be placed in each of the battleships of the *Pennsylvania* class, and four each in those of the *Louisiana* and *Virginia* classes, in the *Mississippi* and *Idaho*, and in the *Tennessee* and *Washington*.

Torpedo range is now about 2,000 yards. The improvements which are being made, it is estimated, will nearly double this, and that before very long. This means that when two fleets approach each other in order of battle,—usually in line ahead with ships 400 yards apart, and the lines making an angle to one another so that as many guns can be brought to bear as possible,—torpedo firing will begin when the intervening distance is about two miles. This is, if anything, beyond effective fighting range of the guns. As the distance decreases the accuracy of the flight of the torpedo increases, and be-

comes as great if not greater than that of the gun projectiles. What tactics are to be used to meet these new conditions is not yet assured, but that the chances of hits with the torpedoes are very large—one in three under the conditions above stated—is well recognized.

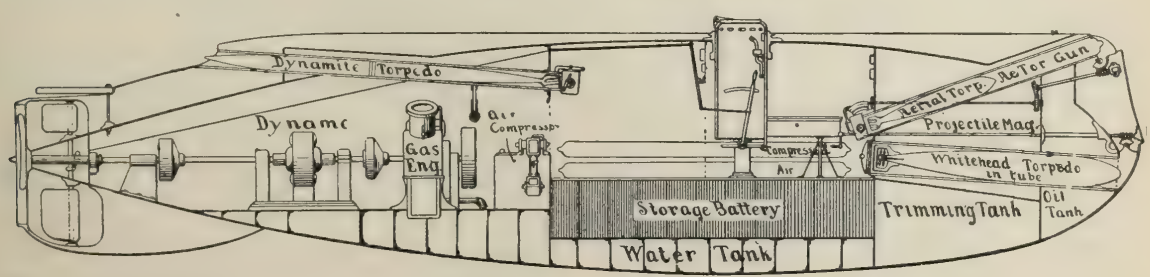
Against submerged torpedoes, guns and armor do not protect. And so, even when we consider the actual fight of ships fit to lie in the line—battleships against battleships—the torpedo instantly obtrudes itself as a factor which must be dealt with. Are we to go on building these huge floating forts, with great superstructures and enormously heavy armor and guns piled high up in them, knowing that a single explosion under water may cause them infallibly to "turn turtle" and plunge to the bottom? Are we to go on building them, with bottoms weaker than those of merchant ships, because hitherto we have not believed in the dangers of torpedo attacks? These are vital questions. They are not influenced by the truism that the fighting line must be composed of the best units, nor do they depend upon endless platitudes with the "command of the sea" as their perpetual refrain. Neither are the answers to them anywhere discernible in what Nelson or Lord Howe did, or in the dusty archives of libraries of naval annals. They belong to the future and not to the past, and the world needs clear, practical brains for their solution, and not those supersaturated with antiquated and obsolete traditions.

The most immediate of all questions is whether there is any protection obtainable by any method or means for the bottoms of battleships against torpedoes. It is widely believed, for example, that by devoting less weight to superstructure and guns, and more to strengthening the framing and bottom plates, a hull can be made which will resist such attacks. This would probably involve the elimination of the intermediate battery and the restriction of battleship guns to a few of the largest caliber,—a result not impracticable in view of the great celerity we have recently attained in working these huge cannon. It also would probably require the giving up of some speed, as well as of armored protection at the ends of the ship. This, at least, is one possibility merely by way of suggestion. Is it not time we endeavored to think of ways of defending battleships before proceeding to the building, say, of 18,000-ton vessels, at a cost of eight millions each, easily destructible by a few dollars' worth of gun-cotton?



A SUBMARINE BOAT OF THE ENGLISH NAVY.

(H. M. Submarine No. 2 alongside H. M. S. *Hazard*, showing its peculiar bows.)



From the *Scientific American*.

LONGITUDINAL SECTION THROUGH THE HOLLAND SUBMARINE TORPEDO BOAT.

PRINCE UKHTOMSKY, A RUSSIAN OF THE RUSSIANS.

ONE of the best types of the high-class intellectual Russian of the present day, Prince Esper Esperovitch Ukhtomsky, editor and statesman, has just completed a tour of the United States.

Born in 1861, Prince Ukhtomsky is now in the flower of his activities. A descendant of the ancient Rurik family, he stands very close to the Czar. When his majesty made his memorable journey to the East, in 1890–91, Prince Ukhtomsky accompanied him, and described the tour in his "Oriental Trip of Grand Duke Nicholas Alexandrovitch of Russia," issued in 1893, published in Russian, and afterward in English, French, and German.



PRINCE ESPER ESPEROVITCH UKHTOMSKY.
(The Russian statesman-editor, who has just completed a tour of the United States.)

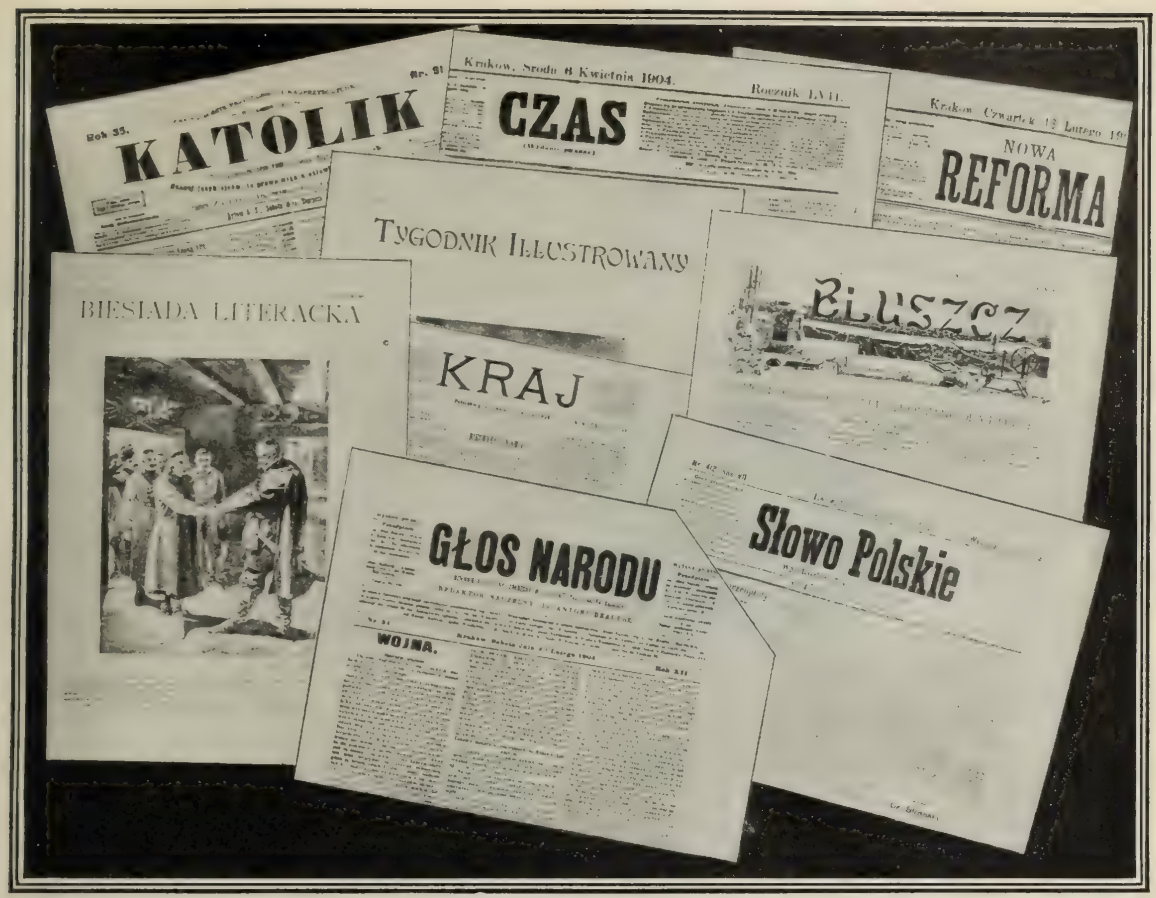
These labors were followed by exhaustive researches into the life of native Buddhist populations which the prince studied during several tours through Siberia and Central Asia, traveling as a member of Russia's Bureau of Foreign Confessions, in the Department of Religious Matters. The results of these studies he elaborated in a number of pamphlets, essays, and magazine articles. He has been very active in politics, and was the founder and is the present head of the Russo-Chinese Bank, occupying, also, a high executive position with the Chinese Eastern Railway.

An uncompromising adherent of the autocratic form of government, Prince Ukhtomsky's views, however, are radically different from the reactionary conservatism of Katkov's *Moskovskaiya Vyedomosti* (Moscow Gazette) and Meshcherski's *Grazhdanin* (Citizen), in that he supports equity and humanity in all governmental policy, and protests against the highhandedness of the corrupt bureaucracy. In the *St. Petersburgskaiya Vyedomosti* (St. Petersburg Gazette), of which he is editor, the prince stands for religious tolerance and local self-government.

It is Prince Ukhtomsky's singular view that a Russo-Chinese alliance is a desirable thing for the empire, and he has always favored a transfer of the center of Russia's historic life to Asia.

Prince Ukhtomsky spent several weeks in the United States, visiting Washington and the St. Louis Fair. He did not talk for publication, but, in conversation with Mr. Herman Rosenthal, chief of the Slavonic department of the New York Public Library, who is himself conversant at first-hand with the Orient, and who was an old acquaintance of the prince's father, Prince Ukhtomsky declared that he is convinced that the struggle with Japan will continue through several years yet to come. This view may be attributed to the well-defined conviction of the prince that his government should never withdraw its hold on Manchuria and the far East. Mr. Rosenthal does not desire to make public anything further said to him by the prince, but declares that on his trip through New York's "East Side" Ukhtomsky evinced great interest in the economic and educational progress made by the Russian Jews in this country.

It is curiously significant of the anomalous conditions in Russia that on the very day the prince was in New York his St. Petersburg newspaper received its "second warning" from the press bureau. This is evidence that, despite his firm adherence to the autocratic form of government, the prince's views, as set forth in his daily newspaper, are found to be altogether too liberal for Minister von Plehve.



SOME REPRESENTATIVE POLISH JOURNALS.

WHAT THE PEOPLE READ IN POLAND AND FINLAND.

TWO recent news dispatches from Russia have piqued our curiosity as to the periodical press of the two subject peoples of the empire—the Poles and the Finns. One announced (the announcement has not been confirmed) that the imperial government had granted to the Polish "reconciliation" weekly, *Kraj*, of St. Petersburg, a concession to publish, at the Russian capital, in the Russian language, and for the instruction of the Russian people, a Polish weekly, to be known as the *Polsky Vyestnik* (Polish Messenger). The other stated that the Finnish journal, *Amerikan Kaiku* (American Echo), published in Brooklyn by the exiled Finnish editor, Eero Erkko, had been denied the right to circulate in Russia.

The Poles and the Finns have many more periodicals than the rest of the empire; and, despite the rigorous censorship,—which, of course, falls most heavily on these peoples,—their daily journalism and magazine literature are very highly developed.

An illustration of the difficulties Polish editors have with the censor is furnished by the recent action of the Russian Governor-General Chertkoff in summoning to his office the chief editor of the *Kurjer Warszawski* (Warsaw), and ordering him to dismiss his court reporter and his secretary. These officials had been responsible for the phrase in one of the court reports, "A swindler, a certain Chertkoff." The governor-general held that this was inserted for the purpose of ridiculing the name Chertkoff; so he demanded the dismissal of the two men. Another instance was recently reported from Ger-

many. The managing editor of the *Gornoslanzak* (Kattowitz) was fined 450 marks (about $110) for the publication of a poem in which mention was made of Russian oppression of the Poles. The German prosecuting attorney declared that, even though the poem referred to Russian Poland, it would be likely to incite aspirations for independence in the Poles under German rule.

The Poles have had an extensive periodical literature for a century or more. The central cities of the three divisions of the ancient commonwealth—Warsaw, in Russia; Cracow, in Austria, and Posen, in Germany—are also centers of publication of Polish periodical literature.



MARYAN GAWALEWICZ.

(Editor of the *Bluszcz*, of Warsaw.)

Chief among the Polish monthly reviews and magazines is the *Ateneum* (Atheneum), of Warsaw, a serious monthly, publishing fiction, history, and politics. The *Biblioteka Warszawska* (Warsaw Library), which is more than sixty years old, also publishes science, fiction, history, and politics. It is conservative. The *Przegland Wszechpolski* (Pan-Polish Review), of Cracow, is the organ of the Polish National Democratic party. It is thoroughly liberal, but not revolutionary. There is also a scholarly quarterly review, the *Kwartalnik Historyczny* (Historical Quarterly), of Lemberg.

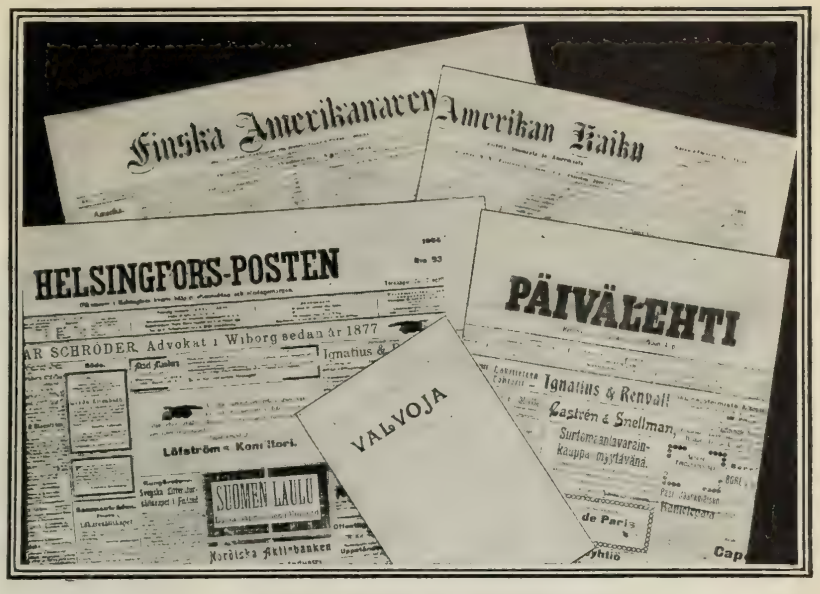
A number of high-class weeklies are published in Warsaw, Posen, and Cracow. The *Kraj* (Country), of St. Petersburg, is strongly conservative and Russophile. It advocates reconciliation with Russia; and its editor, Erasmus Piltz, is one of the most prominent advocates of reconciliation, which is, however, abhorred by the patriotic party. The *Kraj* is read by the rich gentry in Lithuania and the Little Russian provinces. It is given much freedom by the censor. It is well illustrated, one half being given to the editorial statement of news, and the other to art, letters, and science. The *Tygodnik Illustrowany* (Illustrated Weekly), of Warsaw, is the *Harper's Weekly* of Poland. This oldest of the Polish picture papers is excellently illustrated and up-to-date. It contains fiction and light popular science, and is very popular with educated Poles the world over. In politics, it is mildly conservative. One of its strong features is the reproduction of famous paintings. The *Biesiada Literacka* (Literary Banquet), of Warsaw, resembles the *Tygodnik*. It is, however, more conservative and a little more popular in treatment of science and politics. The *Bluszcz* (Ivy), of Warsaw, is the popular magazine for women; it is illustrated, and contains stories and descriptive articles, poems, popular science, dress patterns, and so forth. This is one of the oldest Polish journals, and is at present edited by Maryan Gawalewicz, the poet and *littérateur*, and probably the best known of living Polish editors. Among other popular and influential weeklies are *Prawda* (Truth), of Warsaw, very liberal, and the organ of the "positivists" in poetry and fiction; *Przegland Tygodniowy* (Weekly Review), of Warsaw, liberal, and popularly scientific; *Wendrowiec* (Traveler), of Warsaw, illustrated, and devoted to travel and science; *Praca* (Work), of Posen, patriotic, anti-German, and very popular. There are two comic weeklies, the *Djabel* (Devil), of Cracow (recently suppressed), and the *Bocian* (Stork), of Posen.

There are innumerable Polish dailies. The oldest is the *Gazeto Warszawski* (Warsaw Gazette), founded in 1761. Most of these appear in the morning, except on the days following Sundays and holidays. In Warsaw, the largest Polish city, the best known is perhaps the *Kurjer Warszawski* (Warsaw Courier). This is a morning and evening paper, sixty-four years old, independent in politics, and strictly a newspaper. It is very popular and enterprising, and is edited with high literary touch. The *Kurjer* exemplifies the Polish daily. It is edited in a dignified style, and contains news, editorials, and interviews on every subject which the censor will permit—and the inevitable *feuilleton*, or popular love-story. The other journals of Warsaw are similar in conduct to the *Kurjer*. The *Wiek* (Century), is very conservative, patronized by the rich, the bourgeoisie, and the gentry. It is one of the oldest Polish dailies. The *Kurjer Poranny* (Morning Courier), and the *Kurjer Codzienny* (Daily Courier), are popular morning dailies, more or less independent. The *Gazeta Polska* (Polish Gazette) is old and conservative. In Lódz, the second city of Russian Poland, the chief daily is the *Goniec Lódzki* (Lódz Messenger). It is the manufacturers' organ, and is rather conservative and pro-Russian.

In German Poland, the best-known journal is the *Dziennik Poznánski* (Posen Daily), of Posen, a very conservative sheet, the organ of the Polish party in Germany. It advocates reconciliation, and is widely read abroad. Posen has another patriotic Polish daily, the *Goniec Wielkopolski* (Messenger of Great Poland). The

Gornoslanzak (the Upper Silesian) is a vigorous patriotic journal of Kattowitz, German Poland.

One of the most famous and best known of the Polish daily press is the *Czas* (Times), of Cracow. This is a very conservative, long-established journal, published both morning and evening, and is the organ of the rich nobility in Austrian Poland. It is pro-Austrian, not averse to Russia, and is generally held to be clerical in its sympathies. The *Nowa Reforma* (New Reform), of Cracow, is liberal and patriotic, and strongly anti-Russian and anti-German. It is widely read by the "small gentry" throughout Galicia. *Glos Narodu* (Voice of the People) is anti-Semitic. There is also a Socialist journal published in Cracow, the *Naprzód* (Forward). This is edited by the famous Daszynski, the Socialist member of the Austrian Parliament. The *Naprzód* is reliable, and very influential, especially among the working classes.



SOME REPRESENTATIVE FINNISH JOURNALS.

In Lemberg, the largest city in Galicia, or Austrian Poland, the chief daily is the *Slowo Polskie* (Polish Word), a high-class journal, the organ of the Polish National Democrats. The *Slowo Polskie* is liberal, but anti-socialistic. It has the largest circulation in Austrian Poland. The *Dziennik Polski* (Polish Daily), of Lemberg, is a popular newspaper, with no particular party leanings; the *Kurjer Lwówski* (Lemberg Courier) is radical, while the *Przegland* (Review), also of Lemberg, is the official organ of the pro-Austrian party.

There are several influential and well-known religious periodicals, the *Katolik* (Catholic), published in Oberschlezien, strongly Catholic, patriotic, and anti-German, the *Przegland Katolicki* (Catholic Review), of Warsaw, and the *Przegland Powszechany* (Universal Review), of Cracow.

The peasants have a number of periodicals devoted to them exclusively, among which we find the *Polak* (the Pole), of Cracow, a monthly of politics and literature, strongly liberal and patriotic; *Ojczyzna* (Fatherland), of Lemberg, also strongly patriotic, and *Przyjaciel Ludu* (People's Friend), Lemberg, organ of the peasants and the peasants' party in the Galician Parliament. It is strongly anti-aristocratic. There is also a special little weekly published in Cracow for the servants, the *Przyjaciel Slug* (the Servant's Friend), which consists of stories, religious advice, general information, and entertainment. The Polish Hebrews have several journals of their own. In Warsaw, there is the *Izraelita* (the Israelite), pro-Polish, and the *Hazefirah* (the Dawn), also of Warsaw, "separatistic," the former a weekly, the latter a daily. The Socialists, also, have a monthly, *Przedswit* (Dawn), published in Cracow, and the *Robotnik* (Workman), published in Warsaw, a secret revolutionary organ.

There are several journals published in Polish for the benefit of the two million Poles in this country, the best known being the *Zgoda* (Concord), of Chicago, organ of the Polish National Alliance in the United States, which is liberal and patriotic in its policy.

THE PERIODICAL PRESS OF FINLAND.

Up to February, 1899, there were more than two hundred newspapers published in Finland. The Russian imperial edict in that month suppressed many of them, and up to date twenty-four have been forbidden to appear. But two hundred newspapers in a population of two and one-half millions is a record for education unequaled in all the world except in the United States.

In order to fully comprehend the magnitude of the power in the hands of the governor-general of Finland, one need only recall the difficulties a newspaper publisher has to encounter. When he is ready to bring out a newspaper, he must first issue a sample edition, and send copies thereof to the chief censor's office, accompanied

by a detailed account of the programme which he will follow. Furthermore, he must furnish certified proofs of his moral character, his business integrity, etc. The chief censor's office takes all this under consideration, and then refers the matter to the provincial governor, who, in his turn, refers it to the local authorities of the place where the paper is to be published. If the application for a permit get an indorsement in all these quarters, it is finally submitted to the governor-general, who acts upon it arbitrarily —and in many cases adversely—without paying very much attention to all the preceding red tape.

Should the governor-general graciously choose to permit the establishment of the newspaper, the troubles of the publisher are by no means at an end. Every time he prints an issue, he must send the first two copies to the local censor, who has to pass upon the contents before the paper may be circulated. If that official should discover anything reprehensible or displeasing to the Russian Government, he strikes it out, and returns one of the copies to the publisher, with an order to omit the objectionable matter before printing.

Nearly two-thirds of the Finnish periodicals are printed in the Finnish, and the remainder in the Swedish, language. Of this number, ninety-five are daily or weekly publications. Most prominent among them are the dailies published in the capital, Helsingfors. The *Päivälehti* (Daily News) is the most extensively circulated one among the Finnish-speaking inhabitants. Its undaunted opposition to the Russification of Finland's national institutions has more than once caused it to be temporarily suspended by the governor-general. Helsingfors has also two dailies in the Swedish language, the *Hufvudstadsbladet* (News of the Capital City) and the *Helsingfors-Posten* (Helsingfors Post). Both of them are, together with the *Päivälehti* and nearly all the newspapers in Finland, of the same tenor, a quiet, dignified opposition to the steadily increasing Russian influence upon Finland's national affairs.

Among other newspapers of some significance may be mentioned the *Åbo Tidningen* (Åbo News), a Swedish daily, in Åbo; the Finnish *Aamulehti* (Morning News), in Tammerfors; the Finnish *Karjala* (Carelia is the name of a province in Finland), in Viborg; the Finnish *Luoti* (a mythological name), in Uleaborg; the Finnish *Otawa* (the Pleiad), in Kuopio, and the Swedish *Vasa-Posten* (Vasa Post), in Vasa. The last-named city was for a time altogether without news of its own, all of the local papers having been suspended.

Of monthly periodicals, there are two eminently worthy of notice. One is the *Finsk Tidskrift* (Finnish Magazine), and the other, the *Valvoja* (Guardian). The former is in the Swedish, and the latter in the Finnish language. Both have literary, and generally scientific, contents, and are of the highest standard.



EERO ERKKO.
(Editor of the *Amerikan Kaiku*, recently expelled from Russia.)

Many of the journals of Sweden are read in Finland, especially the Stockholm dailies, but you could not hire a patriotic Finn to read a Russian newspaper.

One of the Finnish governor-general's prerogatives in regard to the newspapers is that he can, by a threat of suspending the paper, force its publisher to dismiss his editor. This has happened quite frequently, and on one occasion, in 1900, the governor-general in this way had four able editors dismissed at one time. One of these editors, who was exiled from Finland last year, for the same reason that had brought him down from the *Päivälehti's* editorial chair, is Mr. Eero Erkko, who came to the United States and established, in Brooklyn, New York, a weekly newspaper, the *Amerikan Kaiku* (American Echo), through which he can freely speak his mind. It did not take long, however, for the governor-general to prohibit the circulation in Finland of the *Amerikan Kaiku*. At the same time, several other Finnish-American papers met a similar fate, among them being the only Swedish-Finnish newspaper in America, the *Finska Amerikanaren*, which is also published in Brooklyn.

CANADA'S COMMERCIAL AND INDUSTRIAL EXPANSION.

BY P. T. M'GRATH.

(Of the St. John's, Newfoundland, *Herald.*)

WITHIN the past five years, Canada's total trade has increased by 65 per cent.; that of the United States, 33 per cent.; that of Britain, 19 per cent. Canada's foreign trade is $83 *per capita;* that of the United States, only $35. Her revenue is $12.49 *per capita*, and her expenditure $9.56; the United States' revenue being $7.70 and expenditure $7.04. The public debt of Canada is but $66 *per capita*, while that of her sister commonwealth — Australia — is $230. Canada's over-sea trade last year was $451,000,000,—more than double that of Japan; almost equal to Russia's. Her merchant shipping tonnage exceeds Japan's; her railway mileage is half that of Russia.

Every section of Canada has shared in this wonderful betterment. The fisheries of the maritime provinces have steadily grown in volume and value through the stimulus of an annual distribution, in bounties, among the fishermen of $160,000,—the interest on $4,500,000 obtained under the Halifax award of 1897 for allowing the United States fishermen free entry to Canadian waters for a term of years. The forest wealth of the Laurentian valleys has been yielding most generous returns, owing to the rapid depletion of the American woodlands increasing the price of this commodity. The dairy and fruit exports from Quebec and Ontario have trebled in extent and quadrupled in price. The manufactures of the Eastern areas have gradually expanded, until they form a noteworthy feature in the country's assets, while the great Northwest,—the vast prairie country, the home of the farmer and the ranchman,—is pouring out annually a wealth of yellow grain and kindred products which represents a condition unequaled in any region that has lacked the talismanic influence of gold, which caused the "rushes" to Australia, California, and the Klondike.

TRANSPORTATION PROBLEMS.

It is now thirty-seven years since the federation of Canada was accomplished, and about half that space of time since what was then thought the visionary prospect of spanning the continent with the Canadian Pacific Railway was conceived. The Northwest was considered a wilderness of snow and ice,—a vast, lone land, tenantless save by the bison and the red man. Phenomenal has been the change since then. Along the international boundary, twenty years ago, was an acreage of 250,000 under crop, yielding 1,200,000 bushels of wheat. Now the acreage is over 4,000,000, and the annual yield 110,000,000 bushels, while population, acreage, and output are augmenting at a rate no other country can approach. The Hon. Clifford Sifton, Canadian minister of the interior, asserts that "the wealth-producing power of the individual is fully four times greater on the prairie farms of the West than in any other portion of the country," and he estimates that there is abundant room there to sustain from fifteen to twenty millions of people.

To-day, so amazing has been the development of the Northwest, the Canadian Pacific Railway is unable to serve its commercial needs. "Canada's hopper," as Sir William Van Horne, the chairman of the Canadian Pacific Railway, tersely put it, "has grown too big for the spout." The grain-production of the territory is too enormous for his road, practically double-tracked though it is with sidings and sentineled with elevators. Every fall there is an absolute congestion, with grain coming out and lumber, coal, and other commodities going in. Consequently, much of this traffic has to be handled by American transportation agencies. The United States has 2,000 cargo boats on the Great Lakes, while Canada has only 30; and all the principal American railways have working alliances with those of Canada. Therefore, two other transcontinental railway systems are now being projected for Canada, that the wheat belt may be properly served. These are the Grand Trunk Pacific and the Canadian Northern lines, bisecting the prairies at distances apart which will enable the as yet untilled areas to be brought into speedy cultivation, and affording facilities for peopling the tenantless wilds at a rate undreamed of ten years ago.

The original proposal for the Grand Trunk Pacific Railway was to start from Moncton, in New Brunswick, and proceed by the most direct line (avoiding the Maine boundary) to Levis,



MAP SHOWING NEW CANADIAN RAILWAY ROUTES.

where it would cross the St. Lawrence River, by the Quebec bridge, to Quebec, thence westwardly through the famous "clay belt" of Ontario, tapping the Nipissing, Algoma, and Thunder Bay districts, north of the Canadian Pacific Line, on the upper shore of Lake Superior, to Winnipeg, thence northwestwardly, beyond Prince Albert and Edmonton, to the Pine River and Peace River districts of the northern prairies, and through the Peace River Pass, in the Rocky Mountains, to find a Pacific outlet and terminus at Port Simpson. The scheme was afterward modified by negotiations between the Canadian government and the Grand Trunk Railway Company, and is now under consideration by the Dominion Parliament, so it is impossible to say at this writing in what form it will eventually emerge.

The Canadian Northern Railway, which contemplates the amalgamation of several other small lines to form a transcontinental line, is designed to start at Quebec and run to Owen Sound, on Lake Huron, by absorbing the Canada Atlantic Railway, at which point steamships would form a connecting link with Port Arthur, on the western border of Lake Superior, where the rails would be resumed and continue northwestwardly, touching Prince Albert and Edmonton, and crossing the Rocky Mountains to Bute Inlet, on the Pacific. This line has several stretches built, but has not been unified into a homogeneous system.

IMMIGRATION.

Nothing so eloquently attests the altered attitude of the world toward Canada as her increased immigration, and especially that from across the American border. In 1893, only 10,681 immigrants entered Canada, whereas in 1903 the total had grown to 124,653. It is quite true that last year 1,000,000 immigrants landed in the United States, or just eight times as many as in Canada, but when the superior status of the latter is considered,—Canada's immigrants coming chiefly from the British Isles and the frugal peasantry of northern Europe, as compared with the Slavs and the "Dagoes" who make up so large a proportion of Uncle Sam's,—it is manifest that Canada has no cause for complaint. Moreover,—and this is the most remarkable feature of the situation!—while Canadian farmers have ceased to cross to the American border States, American farmers are migrating to the Canadian Northwest in thousands. In 1896, only 44 Americans applied for homesteads there, while in 1902 the number had grown to 21,672, and last year this total more than doubled, rising to 47,780, which figure is expected to duplicate itself again during the present season.

CANADA'S WHEAT YIELD.

The reasons for this astonishing exodus from the middle West are that the best lands there have long ago been settled on, and for the inferior ones prices are asked from five to twenty times as large as more fertile ones can be obtained for in Canada. The average yield of wheat for western Canada last year was over twenty-five bushels to the acre, while that of the Western States did not exceed fourteen. The Canadian prairies, too, are virtually unlimited in extent, stretching from the international boundary to the confines of the Arctic Ocean, and from Hudson Bay to the Rocky Mountains,—a territory whose superficial area is about 250,000,-

000 acres, or nearly eight times as large as New York State. Yet of this vast region not more than 4,000,000 acres, or one-sixtieth of the whole, is yet under cultivation, though it produces 110,000,000 bushels of cereals annually, —wheat, barley, oats, and corn.

Lord Strathcona, Canadian high commissioner, recently stated in England that within ten years Canada would be able to feed the British Isles; and Mr. Theodore Knappen, of Minneapolis, the greatest flour-producing center of the world, in an address before the State Bankers' Association, predicted that within a decade Canada would yield 250,000,000 bushels of wheat. Mr. George Johnson, the Dominion statistician, supplies the necessary data to confirm these generalizations. He prints a parallelogram of sixty-seven squares, representing what is estimated to be the wheat-growing lands of Canada, and shows that if one of these sixty-seven were planted with wheat, and if the yield equaled the average of Manitoba for the past eighteen years, as much grain would be produced as the British Isles now draw from the whole world. He says:

> Let us see how far we have already got toward this goal of 2,000,000 bushels. The wheat acreage in Manitoba alone, in 1902, was 2,040,000 acres, and that acreage yielded 63,000,000 bushels of wheat. Four times that acreage, at the Manitoba rate of 1902 per acre, would yield all that Great Britain requires, with 20,000,000 bushels over; and Manitoba contains 64,000,000 acres of land surface from which to select the 8,000,000 acres required. In 1899, Manitoba had 623,245 acres under wheat. Without any stimulation,—just by ordinary operations of settlement,—the development has been from 623,245 acres to 2,100,000 acres, and the production from 7,200,000 to over 53,000,000 bushels.

CANADIAN SENTIMENT.

Coincident with the expansion of Canada's resources and the marvelous growth of her property has been born a national sentiment. This, no less than economic reasons, has dictated her policy of developing the Northwest. She aims to become a sister state rather than a mere province; and she is anxious as to her national safety, with such a powerful neighbor to the south of her. She would become self-centered and independent of outside aid. She chafes under the spectacle of United States railways hauling her products, and United States seaports forming outlets or inlets for her commerce. She also fears that United States antagonism may cause the repeal of the bonding privilege by which Canadian goods are carried across American territory in bond, or an embargo on the shipment of wheat from American ports, as the Southern States prohibited the export of cotton during the Civil War. Should this be done at a critical period, Canada's commerce would be crippled and the British Isles reduced to the verge of starvation. Supplemental to these facts is the contention of some authorities that the grain exportation of the United States has now reached its high-water mark, because with all its prairie lands virtually under cultivation, and its population growing at the rate of two or three millions a year, the country's domestic needs will absorb larger quantities of its total grain product each year, so that within twenty years it should have little, if any, to export.

Canada's grand ambition is to become Britain's granary, and to send forward these breadstuffs by Canadian railway and steamship lines alone. The weakness of the Canadian Pacific Railroad, from the commercial standpoint of Canada, is that its western connections facilitate the "routing" of grain exports *via* American channels, while its military drawback is that certain of its western stretches near the boundary, and its short line through Maine, are exposed to American attacks. Its rivals, the New National Transcontinental (Grand Trunk Pacific) and the Canadian Northern, are so located as to be free from this peril, and they will be, essentially, "all-Canadian" lines, though, in winter, when the St. Lawrence is frozen, Grand Trunk freight may be shipped *via* Portland as well as St. John or Halifax.

CANADA'S OCEAN PORTS AND MERCHANT MARINE.

The difficulty in all Canada's scheme of commercial development is that her national waterway—the St. Lawrence route—is available for only seven months of the year. The Laurentian Valley is the natural outlet for the products of the American West, as of the Canadian Northwest, but the short period of navigation militates seriously against it. Nor has Canada any winter port which can be regarded as being on an equality with American competitors,—Portland, New York, Philadelphia, and Baltimore. St. John and Halifax involve long rail hauls for grain freights, and the former could be "bottled up" by the United States fleet in the Bay of Fundy. Halifax, of course, is one of Britain's strongest outposts, but navigation to and from there in winter is impeded by the ice floes on the Grand Banks. Hitherto Montreal has been the great commercial center of the Dominion, but it is now proposed to make Quebec a terminal of the new railway systems, and to span the St. Lawrence there will be a bridge, affording through railroad communication with the entire continent. This will make it possible to multiply indefinitely the shipping facilities during the season of open water, and lessen if not

remove altogether, the congestion now experienced every autumn in grain shipments from the Northwest.

Among other alternatives now being suggested in the same direction is the utilization of Hudson Bay by running ocean steamships there during the period in which it is navigable, bringing in European cargoes for western sections, or for the far East, and taking out grain, lumber, or mineral cargoes, a branch line of railway connecting the bay with the Canadian systems. Another scheme is for a railway through northern Quebec and Ungava to Hamilton Inlet, in Labrador, which would insure a splendid shipping port for five months of the year,—the outlet for a region rich in wood, minerals, and peltries. Lastly, the navigable period of the St. Lawrence may be increased two months by converting Paspibiac, in Gaspe Bay, into a shipping center, for it is open a month after the St. Lawrence River freezes, and is accessible again a month before the river opens.

Canada's fleet of freighters has grown in response to her needs. Last year, 777 steamers loaded at Montreal, against 721 the year before, the tonnage being proportionately greater also. To these results the purchase, by the Central Pacific Railroad, of sixteen fine ships of the Elder-Dempster fleet has materially contributed. Canada has not yet, however, attained to the dignity of a fast Atlantic passenger service. Many shipping authorities hold ocean "greyhounds" to be needless, and they all have compromised on the new Allan Line turbine steamships, making seventeen knots, which will take up the mail contract in August next. Meanwhile, everything is being done to develop ocean transportation. A permanent government commission on this problem has been appointed. Canal tolls have been abolished. Shipping facilities are being improved. St. Lawrence navigation is rendered more safe. An active propaganda is being conducted in the American West to attract immigrants across the border, and Europe-bound freights to Canadian outlets.

Canada is centering all her efforts on capturing the British market. Her exports of foodstuffs to Britain increased in value from $27,747,962 in 1892 to $77,810,532 in 1902. The British Isles import, roughly, four-fifths of their breadstuffs, and the proportion is growing. The wheat acreage in those islands in 1875 was 3,737,000, with a population of 31,000,000, while in 1901 the acreage had dropped to 1,957,000, though the population had grown to 41,000,000. The United States is the largest supplier of the requisite stocks, and this causes the fear among some imperialists that she might cut off the export of grain if she ever became involved in war with Britain. Consequently, the peopling of Canada's Northwest is welcomed, because this will soon put it out of the power of the United States to "corner" wheat or cripple England in this way in a national emergency, as other countries would stand ready to supplement Canada's exports, and three-fifths of the world's shipping flies the British flag. It only remains, then, for Britain to maintain by her fleet her command of the seas, especially of the transatlantic highway. That she is doing. The fortifications at Halifax are being strengthened. The North Atlantic squadron is being increased. A naval reserve has been formed in Newfoundland, and is being extended to Canada. The fortifying of St. John's is under consideration, and the protection of the cables across the Great Banks is already provided for.

THE ANNEXATION OF NEWFOUNDLAND.

To complete her national status, Canada needs only to acquire Newfoundland. This colony has steadily refused to federate, and no machinery exists to force her. Canada, latterly, has come to see in Newfoundland's independent existence a menace to herself, because if Newfoundland fell into hostile hands in time of war it would paralyze Canada's commerce, lying, as the island does, across the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and dominating the ocean routes which Canada employs. Therefore, owing to the Bond-Hay treaty, the possible purchase of St. Pierre-Miquelon by the United States, and the dispute about Hudson Bay, Canada is renewing her efforts to include Newfoundland in the federation. Furthermore, Newfoundland controls the Atlantic fisheries question with her bait supply, so essential to the French, American, and Canadian trawlers on the Grand Banks. She has crippled the French by her "Bait Act," denying them bait because of their bounty-fed competition with her fish. She concedes the Americans their adjunct only because the Bond-Hay treaty is awaiting action by the Senate at Washington, and can hamper them also if it is rejected. She grants the Canadians bait as fellow British colonists, but subject to her own regulations. Under confederation, the Ottawa government would assume this authority, and might use the bait question as a lever to force from the United States some reciprocity compact, just as Germany has been compelled to capitulate in the tariff war she had waged against the Dominion.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

ORGANIZED CAPITAL VERSUS ORGANIZED LABOR.

VARIOUS explanations are given to account for the present wave of opposition to trade-unionism that is sweeping over the land. In an article on the new employers' association movement which he contributes to the July number of *McClure's*, Mr. Ray Stannard Baker specifies two causes as accounting for the present activity of the employers in this direction. He believes that the movement is due, first, to the sudden recognition and fear of the real power of the new unionism. The object-lesson presented by the recent action of the United Mine Workers of America, with three hundred and fifty thousand members and four million dollars in their various treasuries, in deliberately voting *not* to strike, and to accept a reduction in wages, is regarded by Mr. Baker as an effective illustration of the real power of organized labor; for this, as Mr. Baker points out, was a victory of unionism over itself, and an evidence of farsighted leadership and excellent discipline. Such an object-lesson, however, although impressive, would not have been sufficient to incite the employers to counter-organization. The real cause of the employers' activity is doubtless to be found in what Mr. Baker terms the excesses of a false power,—an inflated unionism.

THE NEW ORGANIZATIONS.

Mr. Baker divides the employers as now constituted into two classes,—first, those who propose to fight the unions; and, second, those who seek to deal with the unions. The leaders of the first class, he says, emphasize the fact that industry is war, while the leaders of the second class declare that industry is business. To the first class belong nearly all the newer organizations, especially the Citizens' Alliances of the West. The Citizens' Industrial Association, of which Mr. D. M. Parry is president, is a fair type of these alliances. The membership of this organization, including its affiliated associations, numbers many thousands of manufacturers, merchants, and other business men, a large proportion of whom were never organized before. Some of the citizens' alliances, notably that of Denver, are made up of citizens generally, including even non-union workingmen. While varying widely in some of their features, these organizations generally announce the following principles: the "open shop," no sympathetic strikes, no violence to non-union men, no limitation of output or of apprentices, no boycott, and some even go so far as to declare against arbitration, trade agreements, and picketing.



MR. DAVID M. PARRY.

(President of the Citizens' Industrial Association of America.)

Most of the organizations of this class, like the labor unions, are secret both as to their membership and as to their methods of business.

ANOTHER TYPE,—THE ILLINOIS COAL OPERATORS.

The second class of employers' associations, organized to deal with the unions, includes most of the older and more experienced organizations, like the Illinois Coal Operators, the National Stove Founders, the American Newspaper Publishers, the Typothetæ, and the master builders of many cities. Many of the leaders of these associations have made a study of the labor problem for years. They look upon the labor union as an accomplished fact in the business world,

and their prime object is to deal with the unions on a friendly basis. These organizations have no secrets either as to membership or as to methods. Mr. Herman Justi, the Illinois Coal Operators' commissioner, said to Mr. Baker:

It is extremely curious that as business men we should be inclined to omit the element of labor from the ordinary rules of business. We contract for our raw materials after a friendly conference with the man who has raw materials for sale, and in turn we dispose of our products by friendly agreement with the buyer. Why should we not treat labor, so far as the wage question is concerned, as a commodity and agree to buy so much of it at such a price after a friendly conference with those who have labor for sale?

While recognizing the fact that the miners' union, like other labor organizations, is still practising many abuses which must be wiped out before it becomes a thorough-going business organization, Mr. Justi declares that the union has not only been of great value to the laborer, but has been a good thing for the industry as a whole. For more than six years, the system of joint agreement between the operators and miners has been in force in Illinois, and during that time there has not been a single general strike, nor any local strike of any consequence. Mr. Justi declares that these agreements have saved the operators, as well as the mine workers, hundreds of thousands of dollars.

THE SAME WEAPONS USED BY BOTH SIDES.

In regard to the methods employed by the more aggressive of the employers' associations and those of the unions, it would seem, from Mr. Baker's account, that there is little to differentiate theone from the other. While the strike is the chief weapon of the unions, the lock-out is the chief weapon of the employers' associations. While employers usually denounce the sympathetic strike, it is a singular fact that this same weapon is resorted to by the associations against the unions in the form of sympathetic lock-outs. This has been done especially in Colorado. The boycott, too, has been adopted by some associations, and has proved as effective in the hands of the employers as when wielded by the unions. There are even "scab" employers, Mr. Baker tells us, and he cites the example of the Fuller Construction Company, in New York City, and states that the employers are as bitter against such offenders as the unions are against the non-union workers.

THE BASIS OF SUCCESSFUL TRADE AGREEMENTS.

Among the associations that deal with the unions, one of the most successful is the Chicago Metal Trades Association, an organization of more than one hundred manufacturers, employing about fifteen thousand men. The president of this association is Mr. John D. Hibbard, of the John Davis Company. In the course of his conversation with Mr. Baker, some of the principles of his organization were summed up as follows:

1. That the employer and the worker are naturally antagonistic, exactly as the seller and buyer are antagonistic—but not necessarily pugilistic.
2. That the right isn't all on one side.
3. That the old idea among employers of waiting until there was trouble and then getting together hastily to meet a well-trained labor organization was no more sensible than sending a mob out to meet an army; and, finally, that a good fighter doesn't despise his opponents,—an important point.

In formulating their agreement with their employees, the Metal Trades Association insists upon four cardinal principles,—first, no limitation of output; second, no sympathetic strike; third, no cessation of work under any circumstances; and, fourth, the freedom of employment of labor. On the question of the "open shop," the association says to the unions: "We will not compel any man to belong to your union in order to work in our shops, and you should not attempt to make us. A man coerced by us or intimidated by you is of no value to you. There's the non-union man; if you can persuade him fairly to belong to your union, all right; if not, you must not interfere with him or his work."

Mr. Baker's general conclusions on the subject of organizations are as follows:

1. Both sides have an equal right to organize.
2. Employers' associations cannot refuse to the unions the same rights and the same methods of fighting which they themselves exercise, and *vice versa*. If one side boycotts and "slugs" and uses injunctions, the other side will use the same weapons. If one side deals fair, it will get fair dealing from the other side sooner or later.
3. Absolutely stable and continuing conditions are not possible in industry any more than in any other department of life; both sides must be prepared for constant readjustment and for the attendant concessions.
4. The condition at present most favorable to industry would seem to be one of strong, well-disciplined, reasonable organization on both sides. A great disparity of strength always means the abuse of power by the more vigorous organization.
5. Organization always presumes a fighting force, as each nation has its standing army, but the prime object should be peace.
6. The same qualities of fair dealing, honesty, and personal contact required in business generally are equally necessary in buying and selling labor—a transaction which is, after all, neither sentiment, nor warfare, nor speechifying, but business.

THE AMERICAN SOLDIER AS SEEN IN THE PHILIPPINES.

IN view of the serious criticisms that have been made from time to time on the conduct of our soldiers in the Philippines, ever since the beginning of the American occupation, six years ago, it is interesting to have the opinion of a disinterested foreign observer. Such a man is A. Henry Savage Landor, the famous Asiatic traveler and explorer, who has recently returned from a protracted journey through the Philippine Archipelago, and who contributes a study of the American soldier to the *North American Review* for June.

Mr. Landor, while not himself a military man, has had unusual opportunities for observing the American soldier, both in active service and in time of peace. Most of the accusations that have been brought against our troops in the Philippines Mr. Landor regards as "absolute nonsense," and the other few as "almost nonsense." "There have been cases, of course, where American soldiers have actually—but generally under severe provocation—lost their heads and behaved in an inhuman way; but these cases, when the facts are impartially sifted down, are but few and far apart." Mr. Landor attempts no defense of those who have actually been guilty of inflicting unnecessary cruelties on the natives; and he unsparingly condemns the "water cure," and calls for the punishment of actual offenders. But he deplores the fact that the names of many brave and innocent officers have been "mercilessly dragged in the mire, either through the spite and jealousy of others or on meager and untrustworthy testimony of interested parties."

THE OFFICERS AND THEIR CAPABILITIES.

This is what Mr. Landor has to say of our army officers as a class:

> I have had the honor of meeting a great number of American officers, both during the Chinese war and in various parts of the Philippine Archipelago, and I was in most cases struck by the morally magnificent type of men who lead the American army—fair, open-minded, business-like, hard-working officers, combining patience in tedious plodding through excessive office-work with pluck and dash, and, above all, tact and accurate judgment when in the field. It is not to be regretted that the American officer lacks the overwhelming love for wearing-apparel which characterizes military men of many European armies, and his simplicity of clothing is, indeed, well matched by his easy, manly, sensible manner. There is no superfluity of gold braiding, no idiotic monocle deforming one section of the face and impeding the sight, no exaggerated sword dangling noisily upon the ground, no swagger worth noticing; but when it comes to doing the actual work of a warrior, although it is accomplished with no show and no pomp, it is done well, very well.

Mr. Landor recognizes the polish of manner acquired by West Point graduates, but he is impressed also by the "remarkable, natural, gentlemanly manner of those many officers who have risen from the ranks." To any one who is familiar with the similar class of men in the European armies, Mr. Landor says that this trait is particularly noticeable, and is due mostly to the fact that, taken personally, the American soldier is vastly the superior of the European in intelligence, and, although often but self-taught, he is most often better educated than the average soldier of other countries.



AMERICAN ARTILLERY IN THE PHILIPPINES.

Mr. Landor has a word of commendation for the modest way in which American officers live in the Philippines. He says that the regimental mess was generally of the simplest description, absolutely devoid of luxury. The food was of the most humble kind. While many officers suffered from dysentery or other internal troubles, all seemed happy enough, and one seldom heard a grumble.

Some of our officers at inaccessible posts seem to have been overworked unnecessarily. Mr. Landor cites the case of one officer who filled no less than fourteen different posts, and, after some years of strain, broke down. Mr. Landor noted, however, with interest, that an American officer, besides being a splendid soldier, "can be switched on to outside work of the most varied kinds." Some of the most practical provincial civil governors were detailed from among army officers. Several of the government bureaus in Manila were in charge of army men, and they did not object to running farms and schools.

THE VIRTUES OF THE MAN IN THE RANKS.

The private soldier seems to have impressed Mr. Landor hardly less favorably. "If you can discard the blunt manner (which is mostly assumed to show his independence) and the profusion of swear-words (which seem to come somewhat more naturally) interspersing his conversation, there is something very nice about the American soldier. He is intelligently simple in his ways, ever full of resource, quick and shrewd, unboundedly good-natured, and possibly he is, of the soldiers of various nationalities who have come under my observation, the most humane of them all. I have seen men in the field, on more than one occasion, whom, from outward appearances, one would put down as perfect brutes, gentle and considerate,—almost as gentle as women,—toward wounded comrades or fallen enemies."

Mr. Landor is inclined to the opinion that the American soldier is the type of the soldier of the future. "He is a general and a tactician in himself. He possesses a great deal of dash and courage, much unconscious perception and natural intelligence." For fighting purposes, Mr. Landor regards the American soldier at present as nearly perfect as he can be made under existing circumstances. His health and endurance are improving, but should be made better. Mr. Landor thinks it a great pity that the American soldier drinks more copiously than wisely, but he lays part of the blame for that bad habit on the interference of the good people at home who have abolished the canteen.

EX-PRESIDENT CLEVELAND ON THE RAILROAD STRIKE OF 1894.

TEN years ago, a strike broke out in the city of Chicago which soon involved railroad transportation in more than a score of States in the West and Southwest. The widespread violence and rioting that accompanied this strike have not been equaled in any labor disturbances that have occurred in recent years. The strike attained its importance as a menace to the industrial peace of the country through the adoption by the American Railway Union, a newly organized body of railway employees, of the cause of the Pullman employees, who had ceased work because of a reduction of their wages.

On June 26, the American Railway Union's order forbidding the handling of Pullman cars became operative throughout the membership. At that time, the Pullman Company's service covered about one hundred and twenty-five thousand miles of railway, or approximately three-fourths of all the railroad mileage of the country. Railroad companies which were using Pullman cars also had contracts with the United States Government for carrying the mails, and many of them were engaged in interstate commerce. In refusing to assist in the hauling of Pullman cars, the membership of the Railway Union, of course, interfered with the carriage of the mails, and also with interstate commerce in many instances. It was this feature of the situation which made the strike of great moment to the United States Government, and which gives special importance to the historical review of the strike by ex-President Cleveland which appears in the July number of *McClure's*.

Mr. Cleveland cites many official documents and reports which show that the menace to government interests was well considered by the federal officials at Chicago at an early stage of the strike, and that the Attorney-General's office at Washington took prompt and vigorous measures to prevent interference with the mails and with interstate commerce. The district attorney of Chicago, having reported by telegraph, on June 30, that mail trains in the suburbs of the

city had been stopped by strikers on the previous night, that an engine had been cut off and disabled, and that conditions were more and more likely to culminate in the stoppage of trains, Attorney-General Olney, on the same day, authorized the employment by the United States marshal of a force of special deputies, to be placed on trains to protect mails.

With reference to the provision of the Constitution that the United States shall protect each of the States against invasion, "and on application of the Legislature, or of the executive (when the Legislature cannot be convened), against domestic violence," ex-President Cleveland remarks that there was plenty of domestic violence in the city of Chicago and in the State of Illinois during the early days of July, 1894, and that no application was made to the federal government for assistance. "It was probably a very fortunate circumstance that the presence of the United States soldiers in Chicago at that time did not depend upon the request or desire of Governor Altgeld." Mr. Cleveland then cites the section of the Revised Statutes of the United States authorizing the President to call out the militia, and to employ the land or naval forces of the United States to enforce the execution of the laws, and to suppress rebellion, domestic violence, or combinations.

On the second day of July, General Miles, who was then commanding the Military Department of the Missouri, at Chicago, was directed to make arrangements for the transportation of the entire garrison at Fort Sheridan,—infantry, cavalry, and artillery,—to the Chicago lake front. On the same day, a sweeping injunction was granted against Eugene V. Debs, president of the Railway Union, and other officials of the organization, and the special counsel of the Government expressed the opinion that it would require the assistance of the troops to protect the transportation of the mails. On the following day, the United States marshal at Chicago, seconded by Judge Grosscup and the special counsel of the Government, applied to Attorney-General Olney for the assistance of the troops in enforcing the injunction, as trains were obstructed in entering the city. Orders were immediately sent to Chicago for the prompt movement of the regular troops, and Colonel Crofton's command arrived in the city on the morning of July 4. General Miles at once assumed the direction of the military movements. Six companies of infantry were ordered from Fort Leavenworth, in Kansas, and two companies from Fort Brady, in Michigan, to Fort Sheridan. On the next day, General Miles reported the open defiance of the injunction by the mob, and he was directed to concentrate his troops, that they might act more effectively in the execution of orders. On the following day, General Miles reported that of the twenty-three roads centering in Chicago, only six were unobstructed in freight, passenger, and mail transportation, thirteen were entirely obstructed, and ten were running only mail and passenger trains. On July 8, an executive proclamation was published in Chicago warning citizens against aiding, countenancing, encouraging, or taking part in unlawful obstructions, combinations, and assemblages. Two days later, President Debs and other officers of the union were arrested on indictments found against them for complicity in obstructing the mails and interstate commerce. A week later, Debs and the other officers were charged with contempt of court in disobeying the injunction; and, instead of giving bail for their freedom, they preferred to be sent to jail. About this time, the strike collapsed, and on July 20 the last of the United States soldiers were withdrawn from Chicago and returned to the military posts to which they were attached.

Debs and his associates, having been found guilty of contempt of court by the circuit court and sentenced to imprisonment in the county jail, an application on their behalf was made to the Supreme Court of the United States for a writ of *habeas corpus*. On May 27, 1895, the court rendered its decision, upholding the decision of the circuit court and confirming its adjudication and the commitment to jail of the petitioners. According to Justice Brewer, the two questions of importance thus decided were: First, are the relations of the general government to interstate commerce and the transportation of mails such as authorize a direct interference to prevent a forcible obstruction thereof? Second, if authority exists—as authority in governmental affairs implies both power and duty—has a court of equity jurisdiction to issue an injunction in aid of the performance of such duty? The court answered both of these questions in the affirmative, and fully approved the imprisonment of Debs and his associates. In concluding his chronicle of the eventful summer of 1894, Mr. Cleveland says:

> Thus, the Supreme Court of the United States has written the concluding words of this history, tragical in many of its details, and in every line provoking sober reflection. As we gratefully turn its concluding page, those most nearly related by executive responsibility to the troublous days whose story is told may well congratulate themselves, especially on their participation in marking out the way and clearing the path, now unchangeably established, which shall hereafter guide our nation safely and surely in the exercise of its functions, which represent the people's trust.

RUSSIAN "REFORM" IN FINLAND.—THE FINNISH CASE.

THE assassination of Governor-General Bobrikoff again calls attention to Russia's "benevolent assimilation" of Finland. A number of Swedish magazines consider the subject in current issues. The imperial manifesto of



GENERAL BOBRIKOFF, RUSSIAN GOVERNOR OF FINLAND.
(Shot by a Finnish member of the opposition, June 15.)

February, 1899, intended to practically do away with the Finnish constitution, failed utterly because its authors ignored the Finnish capacity for resistance. So believes Konni Lilliacus, a Finnish writer, who contributes to the *Nordisk Revy* (Stockholm) a study of the campaign for the Russification of Finland. The Czar and his advisers, says Mr. Lilliacus, seem to have forgotten that Finnish development was due to Finnish labor unaided for centuries, and that the Finns must be judged by another than the Russian standard of civilization. Accustomed to blind obedience from their own people, they evidently believed the manifesto would have like results in Finland. The first great protest against the decree seems to have greatly surprised the autocracy. Officially, all the protests were ignored, but the provisions of the manifesto did not go into effect for two years.

THE CAMPAIGN AGAINST THE FINNISH LANGUAGE

The next attack was on the Finnish language, in the form of a decree requiring the use of Russian in the administration of the country. This decree also suspended the right to assemble for meetings.

But, really, neither of these results was accomplished. Certificates testifying to a knowledge of Russian are certainly necessary for the holding of official positions, but no competent persons knowing the Russian language can be found to fill the positions in the administration of the state. Nevertheless, so much was gained by the proclamation in regard to the official use of Russian that the Finnish Senators, who would not give their consent to the enactment of the decree, resigned their offices. Governor-General Bobrikoff was thus able to fill their places with persons who were ready to yield obedience to whatever commands were issued by Russia. Notwithstanding all this, however, the reforms of the military service were not brought nearer accomplishment. Even in Russia, within the supreme council of the empire, the proposed reforms were opposed by the majority. Yet the minority, consisting of the most influential elements of the court, experienced no great difficulty in obtaining the Czar's consent to the issue of the new ukase entirely ignoring the existing law as to the Finnish army. The ukase was issued in 1901.

HEROIC FIGHT OF THE FINNISH SENATE.

But the Russian military reforms in Finland were not thereby consummated, nor are they to this day. The ukase resulted in a new monster petition of remonstrance from the Finns, signed by about half a million men and women, and the ministers of the churches refused to read the ukase from the pulpits.

The heavy penalty imposed by Bobrikoff upon the disobedient had no effect. The governor-general and the reconstructed Senate then issued a proclamation that the summons to army service should not be issued, as heretofore, by the Finnish official charged with that duty, but upon notice from the Senate; yet it was found impossible to get physicians for the inspection of the recruits. For some years, Russian physicians were appointed, but they were insufficient in number and effectiveness. It was thus evident that, in spite of the unlawful proceedings of the Senate, the attempts to introduce the Russian military rules would prove an entire fiasco. In many places, the summons was entirely ignored, not a single recruit appeared, and in other places only those presented themselves who were certain to be rejected on account of bodily ailments.

A MESSENGER TO THE CZAR.

In order to save the situation, the Finnish governor in Wasa, Colonel Björnberg, undertook a trip to St. Petersburg, and obtained an audience with the Czar, explaining to him the whole

situation,—that the Finnish people would never consent to any decree relating to the new military service which would originate in a manner contrary to the law of the country.

The Czar listened with the greatest interest, thanked the governor, reproaching him for not having laid the matter before him sooner, and commanded the Finnish secretary of state at St. Petersburg, M. von Plehve, to solve the difficult problem. The Czar was for the moment so convinced of the perversity of the political methods of General Bobrikoff that his successor, Prince Sviatopolak-Miriskij, was determined upon, and M. von Plehve sent a communication to the Finnish Senate to the effect that the summons to military service should be suspended and that the Finnish body guard should be consolated by voluntarily paid enlistments.

BOBRIKOFF SAVES HIMSELF.

This communication caused great consternation to General Bobrikoff, who thereupon convened the Senate. It was the sense of that body that at present nothing could be accomplished along the former lines.

All left the assembly with the impression that even the governor-general deemed it best to follow the advice of M. von Plehve. But General Bobrikoff seems to have conceived another idea very soon. Next day, a new consultation was had with some members of the Senate, resulting in a letter to M. von Plehve stating that his understanding of the conditions prevailing in Finland was wrong, being the result of misinformation furnished by irresponsible parties, and stating, further, that the calls for military service could be accomplished without difficulty. The letter was instantly presented to the Czar, who thereby was made to waver in his policy. Other skillful explanations were added. Bobrikoff was saved, and the efforts to accomplish the calls were continued.

The final result was that about 40 per cent. of the thirty thousand summoned appeared, many of them utterly unfit for service.

Of those approved for service, many seemed to have changed their minds about the matter, for to this day the government has not been able to make up the Finnish body guard, which should have been filled out the 1st of last November. Now, it was necessary to find a way by which such stubborn resistance could be overcome,—a resistance fostered by the supreme court, which constantly refused to decide otherwise than according to the laws of Finland. Those refusing service were, without exception, set free, and then it happened that even pleas were brought against such governors as have caused the arresting of the recruits contrary to the law. The Russian governor in Nyland was thus stubbornly resisted by his inferiors every time an attempt was made to overstep law and constitution.

THE RUSSO-JAPANESE WAR AND EUROPEAN OPINION.

THERE is no doubt that the European nations are more influenced in their opinion on the Russo-Japanese war by the beginning of hostilities without a declaration and the fact that a European people is fighting an Asiatic race than by any other considerations, and to a much larger extent than can be easily appreciated in the United States. A French writer on international politics, René Pinon, contributes to the *Revue des Deux Mondes* an exhaustive study of the attitude in Europe, country by country. The war presents, he says, most dramatic features and the strongest claims upon the interest and concern of Europe.

Breaking out abruptly at a moment when the general aspirations were for peace, the first news of the Russo-Japanese conflict has produced a profound sensation throughout the entire world. It has scandalized the "pacifists," coming as a disappointment to their hopes. In a single night it broke up the world's game of politics. The attention of the nations has been turned to this great duel, the decisive importance of which, for their own futures, they realize too well. The far-away field of battle; the vastness of the forces let loose by the power of the conflicting states, one of which is European; the immense railroad, at the end of which the drama is being enacted; the country with the barbarian names, which have no place in our history, and which our lips almost refuse to pronounce; the barbarian peoples, Manchus and Mongols, who, in ancient times, under their inflexible emperor, Genghis Khan, were the conquerors of the world, and who, with terrible suddenness, have reappeared upon the scene; the country itself where the action is unfolding; the trains dragging their slow way across the ice under moonless nights; the silent, gliding torpedoes,—all these have contributed to deepen the impression which the war, in its first hour, produced upon the European peoples.

SHOULD SOCIALISTS SYMPATHIZE WITH RUSSIA?

As to the real opinion of the European peoples, M. Pinon says there has been considerable misapprehension. In the first place, he does not hesitate to denounce as false most of the reports of Japanese victories—this "deluge of apocryphal victories and imaginary triumphs." These reports, he believes, have been manufactured for the purpose of stimulating English and American enthusiasm, and of bringing about, if possible, a diplomatic or military intervention in favor of Japan. In general, he holds, thinking people in Europe are indignant at Japan for breaking the peace, and have "expressed their sympathy with the initiator of the Hague Peace Conference, the Czar of Peace." Even the Socialists, he contends, do sympathize, or ought to sympathize, with Russia.

If the Socialist parties were, in reality, that which would attract popular support; that is, if they were, above all things, interested in the betterment of the lot of the laboring classes, or, again, if they were organized to bring about the collectivization of the means of production, their sympathy in this conflict ought to be with Russia; at the very most, they ought to remain neutral. The empire of the Czar is a nation of peasants, of small cultivators. Industry on a large scale is of recent creation, and it takes the attention of only a fraction, comparatively unimportant, of the population. The workingmen in the Russian factories are not exploited and oppressed as they are in Germany, in England, or in France. The village community known as the Mir,—does not this actually realize a type of collective property? And, finally, if ever, during the past century, any sovereign accomplished a deed which could by right be called socialistic—was not this the emancipation of the serfs by the ukase of Alexander the Second, followed by these measures which have gradually contributed to bringing about free tenantcy of land and of a class of small proprietors?

THE HARD LOT OF LABOR IN JAPAN.

Japan, on the other hand, he says, is the country in which women and children are "more odiously exploited" than in any other country of the world. They are really in slavery. He has heard terrible things about the moral sufferings that the Japanese factory workers receive, and calls Tokio "a hell for workers." The "yellow peril," he says, is not by any means imaginary; it is terribly real, especially in an economic sense. Japan, he says, is the hope of the Socialists and other opponents of modern governmental systems. "The torpedoes and cannons of Admiral Togo are the most revolutionary of ideas." Between the two combatants, "all the revolutionaries have no hesitation as to where to place their sympathy. They are for Japan." Russia is against all revolution by "the prestige of her great military successes and all the resources of her diplomacy and her alliances." Besides, he continues, all thoughtful people in Europe sympathize with a European nation against an Asiatic.



JOHN BULL AND THE DARDANELLES.

"Nothing shall pass there!" John Bull cries aloud to the universe, as he plants his huge foot on the Dardanelles. Russia, disdaining these clamors, cuts a way through the foot with her torpedo boats, and mutilated John Bull cries aloud to the high heavens. From *Silhouette* (Paris).

Considering other Slav peoples of the Continent, he declares that the Bohemians, Croats, Servians, and others are apt to favor Japan, as they are interested in a change in the Balkans. The Poles "diligently seek every means of proving their hatred toward Russia." But, he claims, the persecution to which they have been, and are continually, subjected in Germany should indicate that Prussia is a more dangerous enemy than the Muscovite, "which is, after all, a kindred people." He even believes that the Poles will find in this war inducements to make common cause with Russia because of community of race. The Hungarians, being a Turanian people, naturally wish for a victory for Japan, another member of the Turanian family. Besides, the Hungarians hate Russia.

GERMAN OPINION IS DIVIDED.

In the nature of things, Germans are anti-Russian.

An instinct of race, with memories through long centuries, has made Germany regard Russia, the champion of Slavism, as her enemy. Bound up as they are in the idea of "deutsche cultur," which they regard as the ideal civilization, the Germans can never forgive Russia for despoiling the Baltic provinces and reducing Finland. The resistance of the Poles in Posen to the civilization of "the superior race" has always seemed to them [the Germans] another score against Slavism. Every good German has had the nightmare of a future in which German civilization would be crushed beneath the heel of a Cossack. Russian expansion is a national peril for Germany.

Besides, Russia is the ally of France. German Socialists, and revolutionary thinkers generally, also naturally favor Japan as the possible instrument of humbling Russia. At the same time, Germany cannot forget that she is a modern, commercial, and industrial state; and the possibility of a ruinous competition with Japan in the markets of the world has appeared so imminent that a number of the German journals,

the *Hamburger Nachrichten*, for example, have declared against Japan.

At first, the Italian press, and public opinion generally, this writer declares, were in favor of Japan. The struggles for united Italy, also, against the House of Austria naturally made liberal and revolutionary Italy regard the Russian autocracy as her enemy. Later, however, we are told, the alliance with Germany and the increased cordial relations with France, Russia's ally, have shown that "if Russia should win but one great victory, she would have finally and completely the most ardent admiration of the Italian people." The small countries, such as Switzerland, Belgium, Holland, and Denmark, are mostly anti-Russian, because, M. Pinon points out, they are in a large measure Protestant, and saturated by revolutionary ideas, and, moreover, are afraid of their large autocratic neighbors. The two great enemies of Russia and friends of Japan are Great Britain and the United States.

ENGLISH OPINION VERY ANTI-RUSSIAN.

In England, opinion is almost unanimously pro-Japanese.

In England, the press and the public, with scarcely an exception, have manifested a profound and spontaneous aversion for Russia and enthusiastic sympathy for Japan. The crowds of London and other large English cities, of the imperialistic meetings, of the music halls, cheer for "dear little Japan," and enjoy the sensational dispatches edited for their benefit which announce some marvelous exploit of the battleships or torpedo boats of Japan. To the bourgeoise or the English workman, the Japanese are allies, friends, and pupils. It pleases them to believe that Japan is the Great Britain of the far East, and that she has, like their own England, intrusted her fortune to the ocean, and placed her hope in industry and commerce. Most of the warships and cannon of Admiral Togo were made in British shops, and the English are watching with intense interest the experiments which are testing the methods of their own admiralty. . . . The British jingo has learned to hate Russia. He sees the Cossack, with his great sheepskin cap, his lance poised, ready to descend from the heights of the Hindu-Kush upon the empire of India, to the Persian Gulf, to seize Peking and ravish Constantinople, to banish from Asia the British flag, and to smother in his great arms British civilization and British imperial commerce.

AMERICA'S PRO-JAPANESE ATTITUDE.

Americans, this writer holds, sympathize with Japan really because they recognize that in Russia is a formidable obstacle to American commerce in Asia.

"Business is business" has made the Yankees unable to see far. They concern themselves only with the immediate future. They do not ask whether or not a victory for Japan and the establishment of Japanese hegemony in China would be followed by the expulsion of all the whites from the continent; whether this would not mean an exclusively yellow industrial civilization; and whether a Japanized China would not be the most dangerous competitor of American commerce. They only see that at present the Russian power seems like a limitation on their activity, and for this they incline to the side of Japan.

This writer finds some remarkable divisions of sympathy in the United States. He has discovered that "the Yankee is prompt in his enthusiasm, but he is often the dupe of a generosity which is incompletely informed." He believes in Japan because of her "initiative, the rapidity of her economic advance, her passion for novelty, her ability to help herself, her penchant for bluff." The Russian autocracy has been misrepresented to the American. To him, Russia is "an incarnate anachronism, an organization founded on fanaticism and force, on the stifling of the liberty and the abasement of the people." M. Pinon has discovered that the most ardent partisans of Japan in the United States are the Poles, the Armenians, the Jews, and the Russian refugees, such as the Finns, and the anarchists of all the countries. The Irish, however, he says, are strongly in favor of Russia. The United States Government, he admits, is quite correct in its attitude of neutrality, and has paid no attention to the excited pro-Japanese attitude of the people. President Roosevelt, he says, no doubt perceives that in the American future in the Pacific the Japanese are the real rivals of his country.

FRANCE TRUE TO HER ALLY.

The people of all the nations, with the exception of France, he declares in conclusion, have come to their sympathy for Japan because of



GAELIC COCK: "Mon Dieu! if they both begin to move at the same time in opposite directions!"

From *Budelnik* (St. Petersburg).

their aversion for Russia. The French people, he insists, have a real affection for Russia, and the present war has given the great majority of Frenchmen an opportunity to show their sympathies for their ally. He deprecates the Socialist denunciation of the Franco-Russian alliance as unpatriotic, and declares that the Russian spirit shown in the heroic defense of the *Variag* and the *Korietz*, the obedience of the Russian soldier, and the military spirit have endeared the Russians to the French, who love military glory and heroism.

THE AWAKENING OF RUSSIA.

AN insight into what the Russian people—those who have no printed voice—are thinking at the present juncture is furnished by an article under the above title which appears in the Scandinavian magazine *Nordisk Revy* (Stockholm). The writer, Felix Volkoffsky, is a Russian student who knows whereof he speaks when he describes the recent rioting in the streets of St. Petersburg and other cities, with the encounters between the workmen and students on one side and the soldiers and police on the other.

The Russian military officer, says this writer, is by no means the haughty and arrogant person his Prussian counterpart is always represented as being. He would never answer, as did the Prussian who, when asked whether he would fire on the people if ordered, replied, "Yes, with the greatest of pleasure." The Slav character would not admit of this. The Czar Alexander III. attempted to Germanize the army and to introduce the "honor for the uniform" by importing the duel, but the plan failed.

In spite of an active service of four years, during which the Russian soldier is drilled solely in the interest of the autocracy, there is not time enough to extinguish the love for home and village in the soul of the soldier, nor can it make him incapable of understanding the interest of the peasant, or make him forget what he forfeits in shooting defenseless men, women, and children. This feeling is not only due to humanity. The soldier hates and despises the gendarme, and the Russian army officer is unwilling to put down political demonstrations, because he regards this as cowardly work, fit only for gendarmes and Cossacks.

SPREAD OF REVOLUTIONARY PROPAGANDA.

Mr. Volkoffsky goes on to say that while the autocratic government would no doubt be able to suppress any extensive popular uprising, the fact is nevertheless becoming more and more apparent that the propaganda of the revolutionary elements among the military is advancing surely. The autocracy and its tools can henceforth never be sure of escaping insubordination. What this writer calls the "utter unbelief of the peasants in the efficiency of the present government," which is almost universal, is illustrated by the following true and typical incident:

In a village of the government of Perm, the farmers were accustomed to take their fuel from an adjacent wood, in the belief that the wood belonged to them by right of a decree from the time of the Czar, Peter the Great. There is no doubt as to the existence of the document. Yet suddenly there came an announcement from the owner of the neighboring ironworks, who still kept the peasants in a sort of slavery, that both the ground and the wood belonged to him. Policemen were sent to enforce the command and arrest the disobedient. On account of the menacing attitude of the peasants, the police were forced to retreat, and when appearing, the next day, in larger numbers, shots were fired at them. Finally, with the help of two companies of infantry, and after making use of the bayonet, the authorities succeeded in arresting thirty-nine peasants. Thirty of these were condemned to hard work in the mines for ten years. The Russian press was not allowed to publish the facts, but they appeared later in a Russian secret paper. The resistance of the peasants was planned long ago, and they had already chosen a leader whose purpose was to go to St. Petersburg and, if necessary, appeal to the courts.

SECRET DISTRIBUTION OF LITERATURE.

Before the advent of the Social Democratic movement in Russia, says this writer, there was no hope for the peasant. Now, heavy shipments of secret literature in the very language of the peasants are imported, in spite of the watchfulness of the customs officers, and powerful agrarian organizations have arisen. The millions of copies of literature printed within the empire reach, also, most of the villages, where they are bought chiefly by workingmen.

In these writings, the Czar is never represented as the friend of the common people. Indeed, this thought is always made ridiculous. The peasants value these writings, and conceal them from the officials. A priest who once betrayed them was punished by cutting off his pay. Not less important are the facts which the police discovered in the government of Minsk. They found there a number of secret groups, or circles, of peasants that possessed a sort of circulating library, and received papers and magazines, gathered together for the discussion of political and economic questions. This organization was considered so dangerous that one hundred and fifty farmers were imprisoned during the course of the investigation, while those looked upon as leaders were sent to St. Petersburg for trial.

THE RELATIVE EXPENSE OF THE WAR.

RUSSIA is under three times as heavy an expense as Japan in carrying on the war, declares the *Korea Review* (Seoul). Therefore—contrary to the understanding of the rest of the world—the Japanese will prolong the war as much as possible. In order to make it (the Japanese plan) succeed, it was necessary to have complete command of the sea and render it impossible to feed the Russian army by any other avenue than the Siberian Railway. This the Japanese have done, and the next step is to keep things moving fast enough to make it necessary for Russia to support an enormous army in Manchuria at three times the cost of keeping a Japanese army there. If the Russians want to stop the suicidal expenditure, they must drive the Japanese army off the southern point of Korea; but the nature of the Korean country is such that the Russians would be constantly fighting an uphill game with the ever-present danger of a Japanese army landing in their rear and cutting off their communications. The editor of the *Korea Review* says, at this point:



RUSSIA DRIVING THE JAPANESE OUT OF KOREA INTO THE SEA.
(From a popular cartoon sold in the streets in Russia.)

> We very much doubt whether the Japanese wish to bring the matter to the issue of a single great battle. Japan is now paying for something like fifty thousand men on the field [this was written in April], while Russia is probably paying for six times that number; and when we take into account the vastly greater expense of putting Russian troops in the field, we might be within bounds in saying that Russia's daily expenditure is ten times as great as that of Japan. At that rate, Japan can afford to play the waiting game. This looks the more likely when we notice the satisfaction with which Japan views the restriction of the belligerent territory and the arrangement which she has made with Korea; for, whereas it prevents Russia from drawing supplies from any far-Eastern territory excepting Manchuria, which in a state of war will produce comparatively little, it leaves Japan free to draw upon the enormous agricultural resources of Korea, which, being in the southern part of the peninsula, will be out of the area of actual hostilities at least until the Russians have succeeded in pushing the Japanese to the wall. And before this can be accomplished Russia will have drained every bourse in Europe and beggared her own people.

RUSSIAN EMIGRATION TO SIBERIA.

WHEN Russia was planning the Trans-Siberian Railway, in 1890, she began to consider the advisability of encouraging the emigration of Russian peasants to Siberia, "for the purpose of facilitating the building and rapidly achieving results." The methods employed by the government to further this emigration are described by Mining Engineer Bruno Simmerbach in the *Preussische Jahrbücher* (Berlin). In 1892, Finance Minister Witte undertook to organize and regulate the emigration. Fourteen million rubles out of the sum appropriated for the railway were set aside for colonization purposes, surveying, aiding the settlers, etc. That amount was increased to 21,900,000 rubles in 1897, in order that the newly appointed Trans-Siberian Committee might have a definite yearly fund at its disposal for carrying on its work. This large expenditure on the part of the Russian Government for the purpose of cultivating the Siberian wastes, says Mr. Simmerbach, is unparalleled in history. The committee is proceeding systematically, beginning by carefully surveying the Siberian crown lands, with due regard to the forests, which are to be preserved. In some years, as many as two hundred surveyors were examining and laying out different areas of that vast stretch of land. Roads were built, and, wherever it was found necessary, as in the region of the steppes, in the government of Tomsk, hydrotechnic work was undertaken, as drilling wells, building dikes, draining swamps, etc., thereby making accessible to cultivation large tracts of land which hitherto had been regarded as uncultivable. Fifteen dessyatina (about thirty-seven and one-half acres) are assigned to each

adult settler. The immigrants are also aided otherwise,—they get special rates on the railroad, and occasionally teams to carry them to their destination; money is loaned to them in sums up to one hundred rubles, or an average of fifty to seventy rubles per family, repayable in from ten to twenty years; timber from the state forests and farming implements are furnished at low cost. Along the whole railway line, beginning at Chelyabinsk, storehouses and medical stations have been erected, where the sick and needy receive free treatment and hot meals. In 1900, there were about thirty of these stations, costing the government three hundred thousand rubles. These favorable conditions have induced large numbers of Russians to migrate to the newly opened country, averaging one hundred and thirty-seven thousand a year since 1893, while before that time only about forty-five thousand a year settled in Siberia.

Aside from its industrial importance, this colonization has also a political aspect,—namely, as a means of opposing the expansion of the yellow race in Siberia.

Special attention has been paid to this colonization, in view of the political conditions in the far East; the time seemed to call for a counterbalance to the advance of the yellow race in Siberia, and the Russian peasant appeared best fitted to act as a check. The Russian Government was beginning to view with alarm the increasing Chinese invasion of its territory, since the national and industrial movement of the yellow race which is now under way may become portentous in its consequences. At first, Chinese laborers were imported to help build the Trans-Baikal stretch of the railway, on account of their capacity for work, and also because they are satisfied with one-half of the wages demanded by the Russian laborer. The coolie earning from five to six rubles a month will have some savings to send home. The number of coolies employed on the railway is, however, inconsiderable in proportion to the number employed in the gold mines, for the dearth of labor forces the mine operators to resort to the coolies. Although Russia may gain political advantages over the Chinese state, she will in the end be obliged to retire before the Chinese people.

THE POSSIBLE EFFECTS OF A JAPANESE VICTORY.

IN an article entitled "Twenty Years After the Russo-Japanese War" which appears in the *Taiyo* (Tokio), Mr. Saburo Shimada, one of the most prominent figures in the Japanese House of Representatives since his country inaugurated a constitutional government, forecasts some of the possible effects of final victory which, according to the author, Japan is more than likely to gain in the war with Russia. He commences by predicting that the conclusion of the treaty of peace satisfactory to the victorious nation may come in not less than three years, although the actual warfare may not last longer than two years. The *raison d'être* of the declaration of war on the part of Japan, he asserts, is directly the maintenance of peace in the far East, and, indirectly, in the world at large. Accusing the belligerent conservatives of Russia of being the leading disturbers of the world's peace, he says:

Except for the antiquated conservatives of the Russian Empire, there is no instrumentality that assists in disturbing the peace of the far East. The traditional policy of England and America in the East is to promote their commercial and industrial interests. The French enterprise in southern China and the German colonization in eastern China are at bottom nothing but a means of establishing commercial predominance in the Orient. It is, consequently, natural that these powers are anxious to maintain peace, avoiding warfare as much as possible. The rulers and statesmen of France and Germany, it is true, are more frequently apt to be warlike,



HON. SABURO SHIMADA, OF THE JAPANESE PARLIAMENT.

as compared with those of England and America. But even in these Continental countries public opinion is becoming so powerful that the belligerent ambition of their rulers and statesmen is often checkmated. The only power where public opinion cannot likewise move its ruler is the Russian Empire. To be sure, there are not wanting, in Russia, those foreseeing men who fear to see their country involved in international conflict. But the existing political condition of Russia disregards the wise advice of these thoughtful men. If, as the outcome of the present war, Russia should become destitute of naval base in the Oriental seas and deprived of strategic points in eastern Asia, the main cause of disturbance to the peace of the far East would be removed.

RESTRICTION OF RUSSIA'S ARMAMENT.

Following a precedent established by European powers which restricted Russia's armament on the Black Sea after the Crimean War, Mr. Shimada suggests a rigid restriction of Russian naval force in the far-Eastern waters. He further claims it necessary to place the island of Saghalien in Japan's hands, not so much because Japan has great fishing interests on the island as because the latter possesses rich coal mines which are liable to be utilized by the warlike Russians, not for industrial so much as for belligerent purposes. "If the military prowess of Russia be curtailed to such an extent as I have suggested," says Mr. Shimada, "it will not be Japan alone which will be enabled to lessen the present military equipment both on sea and on land. All the other powers as well will be relieved of a considerable portion of their aggravatingly heavy military burdens."

Commenting on the prediction of De Tocqueville that the two greatest nations of the world will soon be Russia and America, one with sword in hand, the other by means of industrial enterprise, Mr. Shimada suggests that in the course of the ten years succeeding the war the peaceful influence of America will grow immensely greater as the warlike nation of the North is stripped of a greater portion of her military equipments. The United States has already extended her influence into the far East by annexing Hawaii and the Philippines. The completion of the great Panama Canal within ten years will no doubt enable her to transfer a considerable portion of her fleet on the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean. "Inasmuch as the naval force of the United States is an instrumentality for the preservation of peace and for protecting her commercial interests, its supremacy on the Pacific will alter the scene of military activity into that of commercial competition."

JAPAN'S FUTURE ADVERSARIES.

Japan's formidable adversaries in the future, not military, but commercial, Mr. Shimada finds, not in Russia, but in all the friendly powers, such as England, America, Germany, and France. Japan must encounter the competition of these powers, not by means of warships and cannon-balls, but by means of merchantmen and factories. It is by no means Japan's desire to become a military power, as has been popularly alleged in European countries, especially in France and Germany.

KOREA, JAPAN, AND RUSSIA.

JAPAN'S predominating influence in Korea is discussed at length by Major-General von Zepelin in the *Deutsche Monatsschrift* (Stuttgart). Japan was the first country to make a commercial treaty with Korea, in 1876, by the terms of which one port on the eastern coast and one on the western coast were opened, aside from Fusan, where a Japanese factory was then already in operation. There are now twelve treaty ports, including Chemulpho and Seoul, Mokpo, and Masampho. Japanese commerce predominates in all these ports, a fact which is admitted by reliable Russian writers. The St. Petersburg *Journal* stated, not long ago, in regard to imports into Korea, that the sum of $6,300,000, represented by cotton goods, constituted nearly one-half of the entire value of the imports, and that within the last few years Japanese cotton goods had more and more crowded out English cotton goods, surpassing the English imports last year. Japan sends to Korea, in addition to these cotton goods, cigarettes, rice-brandy, matches, iron and ironware, porcelain, salt, straw rope, and straw matting. It receives from Korea, in return, provisions—especially rice, beans, grain, and salt meats—jewelry, hides, and manure. The value of the goods exported by Japan to Korea between 1895 and 1900 rose from $3,800,000 to $10,000,000, and the value of the exports from Korea to Japan from $3,000,000 to $8,800,000, not including the precious metals. The value of the commerce between Korea and Japan, therefore, surpasses that of the commerce between Korea and all other countries. In 1901, it amounted to $8,200,000, while the commerce with China amounted to only $3,200,000, and the commerce with Russian East Asia to $137,500.

JAPAN'S GREAT SHIPPING TRADE.

In regard to shipping, Japan's interests far surpass those of all other nations. According to statistics given out by the Russian ministry of finance for 1898, there were 2,117 Japanese ships, with a total displacement of 602,145 tons, including 758 steamers, out of 3,366 ships, with a total displacement of 659,970 tons, doing business in Korea. The Koreans had only 721 ships, the Russians 34, the Germans 27, the English 1, and the United States none, in that year. Yet five years before, in 1893, Japan had only 956 ships, with a total displacement of 304,224 tons, engaged in Korean commerce. Already the entire regular passenger, freight, and postal traffic is in the hands of the two Japanese steampship companies, Nippon-Yusen-Kaisha and Osaka-Shosen-Kaisha, which are among the first steamship companies in the world. They receive large subsidies from the Japanese Government, which is said to spend, annually, not less than four million dollars in subventioning various steamship companies. Japan herself to-day owns 910 steamers, with a total displacement of 580,000 tons, all of which are at the disposal of the government in time of war, some as auxiliary cruisers, and the rest as transports for troops and war material of all kinds.

The two railway lines in Korea, the one now in operation between Chemulpho and Seoul and the Fusan-Seoul line, now building, are owned by Japanese companies and worked entirely by Japanese, as are also the post-office department and the telegraph lines, both of which were organized as late as 1896. In 1900, Korea joined the General Postal Union. At the same time, it made a treaty with Japan by the terms of which all mail arriving at or departing from Korean ports is in charge of the Japanese post-office and subject to Japanese postal rates.

Japanese influence is felt also in many other ways. The Japanese, for example, have a large share, legal and illegal, in the Korean fisheries. It is said that the Koreans themselves fish extensively only along the northeastern coast, while elsewhere along the coast fishing is exclusively controlled by the Japanese. The center of the fishing industry is Fusan, which is entirely in the hands of the Japanese. Whaling alone is said to have yielded, recently, one hundred and fifty to two hundred whales a year.

KOREAN-RUSSIAN RELATIONS.

The relations between the Russians and the Koreans are essentially different. The commerce between the two countries is inconsiderable. Korea sends to Russia chiefly cattle for the Russian troops, rice, vegetables, and oats, receiving, in return, woven goods, wadding, aniline dyes, petroleum, candles, matches, etc. Between 1894 and 1896, the exports from Russia to Korea averaged $100,000, and the imports from Korea $90,000. Most of the goods sent from the coast district were, however, of English origin, the Russian products being quite secondary. The commerce, carried on by means of sailing vessels, between the still closed ports of northern Korea and Vladivostok, Possiet Bay, and different points along the Gulf of Peter the Great, which is forbidden by the Korean Government, is likewise inconsiderable. Korea exports oats, vegetables, and other farm products. The supplies of oats, cabbage, and potatoes for the Russian troops are furnished almost entirely by Korea.

A curious phenomenon appears in the frontier districts of Russia. After she had extended her dominion to the Tumen-ulla, making that river the boundary line between the two countries, in 1858, many Koreans from the northern provinces, driven by famine and oppression at home, crossed the river and settled in Russian territory. The Russian Government did not want them to come, and the Korean Government did not want them to go. It stationed guards along the river, with strict orders to shoot down every one attempting to cross, and it otherwise took stringent measures to keep its subjects at home. Yet they evaded its vigilance, and crossed in such large numbers that the Russian Government finally protested at Seoul, whereupon the Korean Government did succeed in checking the tide. Still, there were, in the last decade, about twenty-three thousand Koreans in the three southern districts of the coast region.

RUSSIA'S MISTAKE: A FRANK RUSSIAN COMMENT.

IN two numbers of the leading liberal review of Russia, the *Vyestnik Evropy* (St. Petersburg), the well-known Russian sociologist, L. Slonimsky, considers his country's unpreparedness for the war. In view of the increased restraint put upon the Russian press since the outbreak of hostilities, the article is remarkable for its frankness.

After a brief sketch of the development of Japan, beginning with its early history, the

author proceeds to point out that modern Japan has assumed the *rôle* of a civilized power only since the seventies of last century. In 1889, the Emperor of Japan recognized the maturity of the people for active participation in the government of the country. Popular representation was then established, and there remained only, to complete the political independence of Japan, the abolition of the consular jurisdiction and the placing of foreign residents under the law of the land. After the abolition of these extra-territorial rights and the successful war with China, Japan was declared politically of age, and had earned the right to be classed among the great powers. In July, 1899, new treaties were concluded by Russia with Japan on terms of equality. Hence, as a civilized power, with equal rights, Japan has existed only for five years, thus offering a rare example of a newly born great power.

The remarkable rapidity with which Japan adopted the technical and cultural achievements of modern civilization testifies to the extraordinary intellectual mobility and receptive power of the Japanese people, as well as its moral quality, industriousness, steadfast character, and the untiring pursuit of its aims. But, although Japan, after her participation in the coalition against China in 1901, must be ranked among the civilized nations, it would be an error, and a dangerous one, to suppose that Japan has renounced her history of centuries, has forgotten her traditions, and has become permeated with European conceptions and ideals.

BELIEVES JAPAN STILL ASIATIC AT SOUL.

The psychological qualities of a people, inherited from a long chain of generations, cannot be changed in a decade or two. The Japanese masses live an exclusive national life, and do not trust the foreigners. Notwithstanding the active commercial and cultural relations of Japan with the progressive nations, only an insignificant number of foreigners are enabled to live there, while the Japanese living abroad reached one hundred and twenty-three thousand nine hundred and seventy-one in 1899.



DAVID AND GOLIATH.—From *Jiji Shimpo* (Tokio).

Being thoroughly Western in their cultural and technical enterprises, the Japanese yet remain narrow nationalists in world-politics. They prefer to be first in Asia than last among the civilized nations. The Japanese statesmen have relied upon the jealousy existing among the great powers in the settlement of the old quarrels with China. In this they were not mistaken. Not having succeeded in winning over Russia, they easily won the friendship of England, and with her support undertook the realization of the grand plan, which was to assign to Japan the dominating *rôle* in deciding the fate of China and of all eastern Asia.

THE FAILURE OF RUSSIAN DIPLOMACY.

Unfortunately, Russian diplomacy failed to gauge accurately the exceptional qualities of the Japanese people, failed to understand the true nature of its unusual cultural growth, says this writer.

It continued to hold Japan lightly, even after her glorious victory over China. It is quite difficult to determine the guiding principles of Russian policy in the far East, or, to be more exact, these principles are not known to the writer. Certain it is that Russia's East Asiatic policy was, first of all, "a peaceful policy," but it has at the same time placed before us very far-reaching problems, calling for vast enterprise and energy. Thus far, we have, in turn, antagonized China, Japan, and the United States of America through a whole series of misunderstandings the cause of which remains obscure.

The endeavor to counteract Japanese influence in Korea was useless, as was also the attempt to eliminate them from that country. They have gradually established their supremacy in Korea by their cultural and industrial achievements. It was unwise to drive them into an alliance with England and the United States by systematic unfriendliness. It was not justifiable to arouse the protests of the English and the Americans against our misguided commercial policy in Manchuria, a foreign region where we really have no great commercial interests. It was unnecessary, from the very beginning, to oppose the "open door" policy under the mistaken view that Russian industry was, like that of England and America, in need of distant markets. These unfortunate circumstances have led us into a war that none of us desired. More than ever before, it is imperative now to define to ourselves our future policy in the far East, and the results to which we should aspire after successfully repelling the enemy. Evidently, we are living under abnormal conditions, finding arrayed against us, not only the Japanese, but also the great commercial nations.

NOTHING TO FEAR FROM ENGLAND AND AMERICA.

Russia may, he continues, unhesitatingly allow Americans and English freedom from restraint in their extensive eastern Asiatic trade, and need

have no fear of detriment to the population of the far-Eastern countries.

Our own industries need the stimulus of general prosperity and the growth of home markets within the limits of the Russian Empire rather than the sad experiments in competing with foreign merchants in distant lands and seas. The high-sounding phrases of foreign markets and commercial interests usually hide from us the government subsidies and spoliation. Such aims, affecting the material interests of Russia, by no means gain entrance into international politics. It is easy enough to eliminate the causes which have arrayed against us the resentment of the United States. It is not difficult also to pave the way for an understanding with England. And as to Japan, we shall really achieve nothing, even after we conquer her armed forces. The energetic and enterprising Japanese nation will not cease to exist alongside of Russia and China. We shall always be forced to count with the sentiment and interests of this powerful nation, persistently winning for itself a place in the civilized world. The Japanese are undoubtedly Asiatics; yet they have graduated from the Anglo-American school of scientific mechanics and practical sciences. They can play the *rôle* of enlightened Europeans, and cherish at the same time the hope to act ultimately as the guardian of their blood-relative, China, and thus unify the yellow race as a counterbalance to Europe and America. So long as Japan acts alone, she represents simply an ambitious, warlike nation, somewhat resembling England; but, united with China, she can create a vast racial movement such as we understand by the phrase "the yellow peril."

After discussing at length the historical and economic conditions of China, the writer finally concludes by saying that the regeneration of China would not be of any danger to Europe as long as the great powers do not forsake the path of tolerance and justice.

THE MONGOLIAN CONQUEST OF RUSSIA.

IT is suggestive to learn that the Russians were first introduced to the far East by their princes being compelled to travel across Asia to the confines of Manchuria in order to do homage to the Great Khan, whose court was fixed on the Amur. St. Alexander Nevoki was compelled by Bati, one of the Tartar conquerors, to cross Asia in order to pay homage to Koniouk, the Khan, who confirmed him and his brother in the possession of their dominions. The Great Khan received ambassadors from the greatest European sovereigns on the Amur, for the center of the world was nearer Manchuria in those days than it has been ever since.

Mr. William T. Stead builds up a long study of Asia on this fact in the English *Review of Reviews*. He traces the many different invasions of Europe by Asiatic armies and points out how the great continent has loomed up in religion as well as in the military art. The main thread of his argument runs through the century-long invasions of Russia by the Mongols, the triumphs of the latter, and their final defeat by the princes of Moscow. Long before written history began, tradition describes the continuous inroads of Asiatics upon the Russian steppes.

They came like waves, one swallowing up the other. Of these Asiatic invaders, only the names survive. As early as the fifth century, we hear of the Avars, the Bulgars, the Khazars, the Petchenegs, and, finally, of the Polovs, all tribes of Asiatic origin, who, coming from the East, spread themselves, not so much as conquerors as plunderers, over southern and southeastern Russia. As the Northmen found it good business to harry the coasts of all nations whose frontiers they could reach in their swift sea-horses, so these denizens of the steppes of Asia found no difficulty in riding and harrying the miserable peoples who dwelt on the plain, which was to them what the sea is to the descendants of the Vikings.

THE MONGOLS ENTER RUSSIA.

But it was not till the thirteenth century that Russia experienced the first shock of the Mongol invasion. From the year 1224 until the year 1572, this attempt of Asia to found an empire in Europe was fitfully persisted in. Even in 1571, the Asiatics were strong enough to seize and burn Moscow.

For two centuries they were as supreme in Russia as we [the English] are this day in India. Nor did they confine their ambitions to Russia. They submerged Poland, ravaged Hungary, and carried their victorious standards as far as Olmutz, in Moravia. Olmutz in the East, as Tours in the West, marks the high-water mark of the Asiatic invasion of Europe. Since the Turks were driven from the walls of Vienna by the valor of Sobieski, in 1683, the Asiatics have abandoned the initiative of conquest. But that is only two centuries since, and a habit of making conquest of European soil which was persisted in for a thousand years may easily revive if circumstances foster the latent ambitions of Asia.

When Genghis Khan was born, in 1154, the various tribes of the steppe lands of northern Asia appear to have been in a more or less disorganized condition, although fifty years before the Kara Kitaï Empire, in Central Asia, had been founded in what is now Russian Turkestan. With this as a nucleus, Genghis Khan began to combine the various tribes into one great combination. After achieving considerable success in this direction, he summoned a great congress

of all the federated chiefs, and there and then proclaimed himself Emperor-Autocrat, or Great Khan. His argument in favor of autocracy was simple, but apparently convincing. "As there is only one sun in heaven," he pointed out, as a self-evident proposition, "there must only be one emperor on earth." Not less obvious was it that Genghis Khan, he and no other, must be that emperor. The congress acquiesced in his doctrine, and Genghis Khan reigned henceforth as absolute lord of northern Asia. It is interesting to note that almost at the starting-point he conquered Manchuria. From there he swept westward, subduing all northern China, the whole of Russian Turkestan, including Bokhara, and thence, marching still westward, he pushed



ASIA.—THE GROUP AT THE BASE OF THE ALBERT MEMORIAL, KENSINGTON, LONDON.

his conquests as far as the Crimea. The advent of the Mongol horde came as a thunderbolt to Europe.

THE TERROR OF THE BARBARIANS.

"In those times," ruefully say the Russian chroniclers, "there came upon us, for our sins, unknown nations. No one could tell their origin, whence they came, what religion they professed. God alone knew who they were." Some thought that they were the host of Gog and Magog, but what all men knew was that they were as ruthless as the fiends from the nether pit. "They respect nothing but strength and bravery. Age and weakness are condemned." They recked nothing of their own lives, and thought nothing of sacrificing ten thousand lives in the capture of a town. As they spent their own blood like water, they were merciless with their foes. "After a siege, all the population was massacred, without distinction of old or young, rich or poor, beautiful or ugly, those who resisted or those who yielded. No distinguished person escaped death if a defense was attempted." They were rude and barbarous men who could neither read nor write. But they could ride like Boers; they were all mounted, and wherever the green grass grew there they found as free a road as the Norse rovers found the sea.

The Russians were defeated with great slaughter in the first battle, and the campaign lasted for three hundred and fifty years. Russia was actually conquered by Bati, a nephew of Genghis Khan's son, Oktai, who poured across the Urals with five hundred thousand men. All the great Russian towns, including Moscow, were burned and the inhabitants put to the sword. In their course, says the old chronicler, "the Russians' heads fell beneath the sword of the Tartars as grass beneath the scythe." The forest and the flood were more effective in delaying Bati's advance than the Russian armies. At last, at the Cross of Ignatius, fifty miles from Novgorod, he halted. That was the high-water mark of the Tartar conquest. Europe took alarm, and Hungary essayed to stem the tide, but her king, Bela, was routed in battle, and Hungary, Transylvania, and Austria were ravaged. The Poles were defeated, and Bati began the siege of Olmutz, in Moravia. The death of Oktai, however, recalled him to the East, and this was the only invasion of the Mongols which passed the Russian frontier.

From a tent on the Volga, Bati and his successors governed Russia. Their system seems to have been somewhat like the British colonial system of to-day. They left the various principalities their laws, their courts, and their princes. They were tolerant of all religions, and made a special point of winning over the support of the Greek orthodox clergy, whom they exempted from taxation. But although they left their vassals their autonomy, they never failed to insist upon asserting their authority.

THE TURNING OF THE TIDE.

Gradually the humiliations made the Russians desperate, and, in 1380, at Koulikovo, the Tartars were defeated. But another great scourge was on its way,—Tamerlane. The Russians, Poles, and Lithuanians were again defeated. The end, however, was drawing near. After the reign of the unfortunate Wassili the Blind, Ivan the Third came to the throne. He began to reign when twenty-two years of age. When he died, in 1505, he had seen the beginning of the end of Tartar domination, and had, moreover, welded together Russia into a solid bulwark against Asia. The manner in which he did it can hardly be commended.

He was an empire-builder, a nation-unifier. Russia had suffered so much from intestine feuds that it seems almost like looking a gift horse in the mouth to scrutinize too closely the methods by which the anarchic

warring princedoms were forged into one empire. During his reign, the Empire of the Golden Horde had been split up into four states—Kazan, Astrakhan, Nogoi, and Crimea. In 1480, when Khan Akhmet summoned him to send him the tribute, Ivan trampled the image of the khan under his heel and slew all his envoys save one, who was allowed to carry back to the Horde the news of Ivan's revolt. The khan and the czar each mustered huge armies, which encamped opposite each other on the banks of the Oka. There they remained for weeks, until one fine morning a panic broke out in both camps and the two great armies ran headlong from each other. Such was the last invasion of the horsemen of the Kiptchak. It was in this unheroic way that Russia broke at last the Mongol yoke under which she had groaned for three centuries.

The fall of Kazan, in 1552, captured by Ivan the Terrible, marked the turning of the tide. Hitherto, Asia had ravaged Europe; now Europe was to turn upon Asia and carry the cross even farther eastward than Asia had borne the crescent westward.

JAPAN'S POSITION SECURE.

Even if Japan does not Japanize China, she seems to have established her position as paramount sea power in those Eastern waters.

Suppose that she confines herself to the sea, it is obvious even to the meanest understanding that the whole political situation in Eastern waters, including Australia, will be revolutionized if she can maintain her present ascendency. All islands will be held at her mercy,—the Philippines, the Netherlands' East Indies, New Zealand, and Australia. The advocates of White Australia will have to keep a more civil tongue in their heads if the Japanese choose to enforce our favorite doctrine of an open door, so as to render possible Japanese immigration into the uninhabited regions of the Australian Commonwealth. And it is not altogether beyond the bounds of possibility that Japan may, before long, undertake the championship of the Celestial helots who are to be shut up in the compounds of Johannesburg. The Japanese are forty million strong. Like the brave men of Marseilles, they know how to die. The story of their suicidal valor recalls the memories of the early days of Islam, and it is only rendered the more remarkable by the fact that their readiness to sacrifice their life does not appear to be sustained by any faith in the next. They have shown themselves to be quick to seize the advantages offered by the weapons and the craft of the West. They have not studied in vain in the headquarters staff of Germany or in the schools of the British navy. They are like other human beings, subject to the temptation of vanity, and they are not immune against the promptings of ambition. In the watchword "Asia for the Asiatics" they have a weapon which may be used in a hundred centers at once, and which has already roused echoes beyond the Himalayas.



RUSSIA AND THE FAR-EASTERN LEMON.

(The Muscovite reconquest of Asia.)
From *Lustige Blätter* (Berlin).

THE NEW WOMAN OF NEW JAPAN.

JAPANESE women of 1904 are more like those of western countries than they are like their own mothers and grandmothers, says Madame Yo Uchida, wife of the Japanese consul-general in New York, writing in the new magazine, the *Far East*—"A Voice of the Orient." Formerly, she continues, Japanese women only thought to be good wives to their husbands and good mothers to their children. They were not uneducated, but received very little school training. Now it is different.

Girls of the present time all receive modern school education the same as in western countries, but only in our own language. Japanese ladies in 1904 are not contented merely to stay at home and take care of their children. They attend lectures, meetings, and entertainments. They publish women's magazines and discuss their rights and duties. Recently, they organized a society for poor soldiers' families, and the members visit the houses in their own district to console or help the families. They are much more independent, and are not so blindly obedient as were their mothers. I think there is no girl now in Japan who cannot write her own name, for the parents are compelled by law to

send their girls as well as their boys to school when they reach the age of six. In the primary school, girls receive the same education as boys, with the additional study of sewing. After they graduate from the primary school, many girls attend the high school. Girls' high education improved very rapidly until about thirteen years ago, when public opinion inclined to reduce the standard. It has, however, now been reëstablished.

Numbers of foreigners visit Japan every year, and some write books, but very few know the true state of the country, especially the condition of the women. I have been told that they often get their impression of the women from the geisha (dancing girls), who are generally deceitful, professional flirts. Ladies would be much offended if they were judged by such a low standard. They are not at all frivolous, like the geisha. On the contrary, modesty is an essential quality in Japanese ladies.

A fact that might interest American readers is that the women in Japan never get stout when they grow old, although they take hardly any exercise. Young men and women, while they are in school or college, take much outdoor exercise, but as soon as they leave school they give it up. Tennis is a popular game among young ladies.

It is impossible to take outdoor exercise in Japanese costume, although it is very comfortable to wear in the house. Several years ago, many girl students adopted the Western dress, but soon returned to their own style, because the former was not suitable for Japanese houses. They are now trying to invent a new style that is convenient both in the house and out-of-doors.

I think a good American home life would now be the most delightful thing to introduce into our country, says Madame Uchida, in conclusion.

THE STATUS OF JAPANESE NOBILITY.

IN Japan, the nobility occupies a position rather different from that of the so-called privileged orders in other countries. The Japanese nobles are backed by the favor of the court and the real respect of the people. In a study of this question, in the *Tonjo*, of Tokio, the late Prince Konoye, one of the leading men, not only in Japan, but in all Asia, declares that the nobility of his country has always exercised a very strong influence upon the social condition of the people.

Their doings have partly constituted the history of this nation. In all public undertakings,—for instance, philanthropic movements,—names of nobles, if allowed to head the list of projectors, are an unmistakable sign that the movement will be a success; or at least it carries with it much greater weight than it would otherwise. Indeed, the nobles may be in one sense regarded as the leaders of the people. The misbehavior of the nobles provokes greater depreciation and condemnation than the same misconduct of the common people, because the public pays the strictest attention to the doings of the nobles, either good or bad. It is the tallest tree that suffers most from the storm.

The nobility, he explains, is made up of three classes:

1. The Kugé, who are closely related to the court. In fact, at one time they were the main supporters of the imperial family themselves wielding political power. However, in the Middle Ages the power was transferred to the hands of military men. The imperial family, being thus deprived of its authority, was sinking gradually into oblivion. Even at this moment, the Kugé were the constant followers of the Emperor. 2. The Daimyo. These were ancient great families who on account of their own special merit were given certain privileges in different parts of the country. They enjoyed independence till the Middle Age, under feudalism the government of their respective provinces being left



THE LATE PRINCE KONOYE.

in their charge. Since the Restoration, they have been raised to the position of peers. They bear some resemblance to ancient lords in European countries. 3. The Shin Kwazoku, or the newly-created peers. These are the men who, either through their own merit at the time of the Restoration or by special favor for what they have done since the Restoration, have been made peers. Although they are thus all included under the name of the nobility, each of them has a distinct feature of its own.

CONSTRUCTING THE WORLD'S GREATEST TUNNEL.

ON July 1, 1905, all being well, the Simplon Tunnel, the fourth piercing the Alps, and the longest tunnel in the world, is due to be opened. *Good Words* for June contains an article by Mr. H. G. Archer full of interesting facts about the Simplon Railway, and illustrated by a number of photographs. The following table shows the world's chief tunnels and their length :

Tunnel.	Length.	Date of completion.
Simplon	12¼ miles	Probably July, 1905
St. Gothard	9¾ miles	1883
Mont Cenis	Just on 8 miles	1870
Arlberg	6¼ miles	1884
Severn	4 miles 624 yds.	

PECULIARITIES OF THE SIMPLON TUNNEL.

The reason for the great length of the Simplon Tunnel is that its course is at a far lesser altitude above sea-level than that of any of the others, being only 2,310 feet, as compared with 4,300 feet (Arlberg), 4,298 feet (Mont Cenis), and 3,788 feet (St. Gothard). To its estimated cost of fourteen million dollars, one million seven hundred thousand dollars has recently been added. Instead of having one tunnel only, it was from the outset resolved that it should have two tunnels, one for the up and the other for the down track, fifty-eight feet apart, and connected at intervals by transverse passages. Except for two short curves at the entrances, the tunnel is absolutely straight.

The engineers of the tunnel are a Hamburg firm, Messrs. Brandt, Brandau & Co., who began work in August, 1898, undertaking to complete within five and one-half years—a period which, through unforeseen accidents, had to be extended. Outside the portals of the works at each end is a long line of buildings with well-appointed dressing-rooms, hot and cold baths, etc., for the miners. Four hundred men and over are employed on the Swiss, and six thousand on the Italian, side, all the miners being Italians. Work, except on a very few special days, goes on incessantly night and day, in eight-hour shifts, year in, year out. The greatest care is taken of the health and comfort of the men. The tunnel having seven thousand feet of earth above it, the temperature of the rock (exceedingly hard granite and gneiss) is usually 90° F., and sometimes 131° F. "The ever-increasing heat in the tunnel is the worst obstacle." Work in such temperatures would be impossible but for arrangements being made for cooling the air by using spray and ice, by means of which the temperature is lowered to 70° F. A narrow-gauge light railway is laid in each tunnel, the engine exhausts its own smoke, and on starting, the steam in the boiler reaches a pressure of two hundred and twenty pounds to the square inch, so that no stoking is needed inside the tunnel. The drills are driven by hydraulic pressure of fifteen hundred pounds to the square inch. The power to drive them,—in fact, for everything, inside and outside the tunnel,—is obtained by harnessing the rivers and mountain torrents adjoining each portal, furnishing over two thousand gallons of water a minute.

FINSEN AND HIS LIGHT CURE.

NEARLY two years ago (October, 1902), the REVIEW OF REVIEWS published an article on the light cure at Copenhagen founded and directed by Prof. Niels R. Finsen. Since that article appeared, Professor Finsen has won the great Nobel prize for scientific research, and in the *Pall Mall Magazine* for June, Mr. Georg Bröchner describes him as "An Apostle of Light." Professor Finsen, it seems, is still only forty-two. "His life hangs on a thin thread. Every day he is growing thinner, though it is impossible to say what miracles his marvelous vitality and mental stamina may yet work." He suffers, and has suffered for many years past, from affections of the heart and liver, as well as from dropsy.

Even if Finsen were not the world-famed doctor and scientist,—by instinct he is more of a brilliant explorer in the regions of science than he is a doctor,—he, by reason of his personality, by his views, as to the earnestness of which he has just given the most convincing proof, would be a most remarkable and interesting man, imbued as he is with a fervent, idealistic, human radicalism, holding opinions that in some respects may be said to resemble those of Tolstoy. Finsen, for instance, almost seems to dislike money—not so far as his dear "institute" is concerned, but as regards himself and his family. He wishes his son to be able to say, in the words of the charming Danish poet, Holger Drachmann, "I thank thee, my father, thou wert not a wealthy man ;" and if Finsen's son inherits his father's views, he will say so, or he will in any case have the opportunity of doing so. Finsen was pleased, truly pleased, when a registered letter from Stockholm brought him the news of the Nobel prize having been

awarded him, but this pleasure probably did not contain one vestige of selfish joy ; he knew it would benefit the great cause to which he has given his life, that it would throw additional luster upon his beloved institute, and that it would enable him, the poor man, to endow it.

A GENEROUS, MODEST INVALID.

It was with difficulty that he was persuaded to give only half the Nobel prize to the institute known by his name and the interest of the other half to his family. He is, and always has been, very poor, though private benefactors and the Danish Government have both lent him a helping hand.

Even in his boyhood, light and the effect of light had a wonderful charm for him, and he very early noticed and studied the influence of light upon animal



PROFESSOR FINSEN.

life. He is a native of the Faröe Islands, and passed his student's examination at Reykjavik, in Iceland, lands where the contrast between light and darkness is not unlikely to be brought strongly home to an observant mind.

Radical as Finsen is, he has the sincerest regard for the Danish royal family, who have always been his friends. Both the King and Queen of England have visited him, as well as the German Emperor and the Dowager Empress of Russia. The Kaiser is reported to have said, when he visited Finsen, "This man ought to have a monument raised to him in his lifetime," which must have been an embarrassing suggestion for one who, Mr. Bröchner says, is unusually modest, has always preferred to keep in the background, and has a marked distaste for everything savoring of self-advertisement.

Chronically ill for nearly twenty years past, he is now compelled to live with the greatest caution, his food being carefully weighed. His temperature is always subnormal, and he spends most of his time lying down, unable to see anybody, even in his own family. For a year or more he has not even been able to visit the institute, which is only a few steps away from his house.

THE LIGHT CURE.

His discoveries have evolved, so to speak, from his mind during a long process of thought and work. He has been a successful inventor, and one of his inventions, certain hematite or blood lozenges, are now sold in all countries, the considerable proceeds going, of course, to the Finsen Institute.

In the year 1893, he first brought out his negative therapy of light, the essence of which is the removal of the chemical rays that have the inflammatory effect upon the skin. His red-light or negative-light treatment has been adopted in numerous countries with excellent results, more especially for smallpox, though also for other affections; it does not exactly cure the illness of smallpox, but it does away with the most dangerous symptom, the secondary fever, and its outcome, the suppuration.

His positive-light cure, curing terrible diseases of the skin, diseases with which science had hitherto been unable to battle, by direct application of chemical rays, is itself a most conservative treatment, as no sound tissue is hurt or damaged. Downes and Blunt had already shown that light, more especially the chemical rays, can kill bacteria ; it was also known that light can produce inflammation of the skin. Finsen's great discovery is the killing of the bacteria *in* the skin by light, or perhaps by the inflammation which the light causes. Perfect clearness has not yet been arrived at on this point, but Finsen is inclined to believe the latter.

In his Medical Light Institute, at Copenhagen, there were last year two hundred and ninety-two patients from all over the world ; in all, seventeen hundred and ten have been treated there, and yet only seven years ago he could not find a publisher in Germany. What he has done, however, he considers as only the small beginnings of the study of the sun's biological and hygienic qualities ; and in order that his work may be carried on, he has insisted on a special "light" laboratory being attached to the institute as a permanent section, where "light" researches are carried on by three young doctors.

THE CHEMISTRY OF EXTREME HEAT AND COLD.

UNDER the title "Die Chemie bei extremen Temperaturen," the *Biochemisches Centralblatt* (Leipsic) publishes a series of papers by Dr. Franz Sachs in which he reviews the most recent discoveries made in chemistry by means of experiments conducted at very high and very low temperatures, and shows how the nature of substances with which we are familiar changes under different conditions of heat and cold.

CHEMICAL AFFINITY BELOW THE ZERO POINT.

The absolute zero, the temperature at which all heat is lost, is so elusive that investigators have been unable to demonstrate in what state matter would be under conditions of perfect cold. After making more than two hundred experiments in chemistry, Pictet decided that practically no chemical reaction can take place below a temperature of 130° C. below zero, a conclusion which has since been modified. He found that concentrated sulphuric acid will not unite with strong bases, such as caustic potash, sodium, etc., below a temperature of −90° C. Action between barium chloride and sulphuric acid stops at −70° C., but, on the other hand, the customary reddening of phenol phthalein with potassium occurs as low as −100° and −110° C.

Pictet's theories regarding chemical inactivity at low temperatures were accepted until the past year, when, a few months ago, Moissan found that free fluorene retained its full power of reaction toward certain bodies at the lowest temperatures that could be attained. But most reactions taking place under the influence of such extreme cold required a long period of time, and the changes were too slow to be watched as in reactions taking place at ordinary temperatures.

To produce the very high temperatures used in his experiments, Moissan made direct use of the electric current, and with his electric oven succeeded in carrying through a long series of most remarkable reactions, in which he discovered a large number of new combinations of elements and was able to vaporize many substances formerly considered infusible. The degree of heat used was about 3,600° C.

ARTIFICIAL FORMATION OF DIAMONDS AND RUBIES.

Among the most important of his experiments was the artificial formation of diamonds by means of liquid pig iron saturated with carbon, first heated to the highest temperature, and then cooled rapidly.

When melted iron solidifies, it undergoes great expansion, similar to the expansion of water when it solidifies as ice; and if a bar, or so-called "pig," of this iron saturated with carbon is plunged into water or melted lead, the outer surface hardens quickly, and the inside of the bar has to cool under very strong pressure, on account of its tendency to expand.

Under ordinary pressure, carbon passes directly from the solid to the gaseous condition when heated, and from the gaseous to the solid condition on cooling, without passing through any intermediate fluid state, as most elements do; but under the high pressure produced by this method of experimentation it becomes fluid as it cools, and hardens into crystalline form. Black and transparent diamonds were produced, the latter in regular octahedral and dice shapes, in drops, and in crystals, which in time deteriorated and became partly transparent, partly flecked, but in all respects exactly like those found under natural conditions, except that the crystals were very small. Carbon is also found existing as peat, coal, or graphite, according to the amount of pressure it has undergone, and this last modification into graphite was easily produced in the laboratory by means of the electric oven.

Calcium, aluminum oxides, silicic acid, etc., were easily brought to the fusing point, or vaporized in the electric oven, and the metals separated from their oxides and brought into crystalline form.

Rubies were produced by fusing aluminum oxide with a little chrome oxide.

The synthesis of unrelated classes of compounds was effected, although the compounds arising in this way are very simple, for the chemistry of high temperatures is simple. For example, a silicate of carbon is produced by the reduction of silicic acid with carbon, the resultant compound being unusually hard, and only slightly inferior to the diamond in that respect. Other combinations with silica are still harder, as the compound formed with titanium, which is hard enough to scratch many varieties of diamonds.

The carbides, however, are a far more important class of the compounds formed at high temperatures. They have the interesting characteristic of decomposing when water is poured over them. One of the most important of these is calcium carbide, which forms acetylene under the action of water.

A glance at the reactions between bodies at the highest and the lowest temperatures shows that at both extremes only very few, and those very simple, reactions take place. In the greatest cold, the activity of the molecules is so reduced that it becomes almost null, and chemical reactions, for all practical purposes, do

not take place. On the other hand, at the highest degrees of heat the activity of the molecule is so great that not only the customary union of molecules is destroyed, but the molecules themselves break up into their component atoms, which then, of course, are free to form entirely new combinations.

This breaking up into atoms begins with the chlorine, bromine, iodine, fluorine, group, at from 1,000° to 1,200° C.; at about 1,800° for sulphur, and at still higher temperatures for other elements, so that we must think of all the constituents of the sun, and of the fixed stars, as existing in this simple form.

From the chemistry of extreme temperatures, it appears that the greatest number of combinations occur in the interval between the very high and the very low degrees of heat where the organic unions can take place. Although more than one hundred thousand compounds are known to exist in this interval, there is still abundant opportunity for investigation, for the combining power of organic elements is almost unlimited.

THE MUSIC OF EDWARD MACDOWELL.

ROMANTIC in the real, beautiful, and exalting sense is the music of the American composer, Edward MacDowell, says Lawrence Gilman, writing in the *North American Review*.

I account Mr. MacDowell so notably a romantic of the finest attainment because, true to the deeper genius of his art, he devotes himself, in his practice of it, to a rendering, extraordinary for vividness and felicity, of those essences and impressions which have seemed to me to be the ultimate concern of the romantic spirit in its dealings with life. He has chosen occasionally to employ, in the realization of his purposes, what seems at first to be precisely the magical apparatus so necessary to the older romanticism. Dryads and elves inhabit his world, and he dwells at times under faëry boughs and in enchanted woods; but for him, as for the poets of the Celtic tradition, these things are but the manifest images of an interior passion and delight. Seen in the transfiguring mirror of his music, the moods and events of the natural world and of the incessant drama of psychic life are vivified into shapes and designs of irresistible beauty and appeal.



EDWARD MACDOWELL.

A CELT OF THE CELTS.

Mr. MacDowell's music is, "of intention, persistently pictorial and impressionistic."

He is constitutionally and by right of ancestry Celtic of the Celts, with the Celt's intimate vision of natural things and his magic power of poetically vivifying them. It is making no transcendent claim for him to affirm that, in such splendid fantasies as his "To the Sea," "In Mid-Ocean," "In Deep Woods;" in such exquisite impressions as "Starlight," "To a Water-Lily," "To a Wild Rose," there is an inevitable felicity, a graphic nearness and beauty, an imaginative intensity and lyric fervor which exist nowhere in external tone-painting save in Mr. MacDowell's own work.

It is as much in his choice of subjects as in the peculiar vividness and felicity of his expression that he is "unique among tone-poets of the external world."

He has never attempted such tremendous frescoes as Wagner delighted to paint; nor does he choose to deal with the elements,—with winds and waters, with fire and clouds and tempests,—in the epical manner of the great music-dramatist. Of his descriptive music, by far the greater part is written for the piano; so that, at the start, a very definite limitation is imposed upon magnitude of plan. You cannot achieve on the piano, with any adequacy of effect, a mountain-side in flames, or a storm at sea, or the prismatic arch of a rainbow; and as Mr. MacDowell has seen fit to employ that instrument as his principal medium of expression, he has refrained from attempting to advance musical fresco-painting beyond the point at which Wagner left it. Instead, he has contented himself with such themes as he treats in his "Forest Idyls," in his "Four Little Poems" ("The Eagle," "The Brook," "Moonshine," "Winter"), in his first orchestral suite, in the inimitable "Woodland Sketches" and "Sea Pieces," and in the recently published "New England Idyls." As a perfect exemplification of his practice, consider, let me say, his "To a Water-Lily," from the "Woodland Sketches,"—than which I know of nothing in objective tone-painting, for the piano or for the orchestra, more

sensitively felt, more exquisitely accomplished. The method is the method of Shelley in the "Sensitive Plant," of Wordsworth in "The Daffodils."

Mr. Gilman believes that the American composer has recalled in his music the very life and presence of the Gaelic prime—that he has "unbound the Island harp."

Above all, he has achieved that "heroic beauty" which, believes Mr. Yeats, has been fading out of the arts since "that decadence we call progress set voluptuous beauty in its place"—that heroic beauty which is of the very essence of the imaginative life of the primitive Celts, and which the Celtic "revival" in contemporary letters has so singularly failed to recrudesce. For it is the heroic Gaelic world that Mr. MacDowell has made to live again in his music,—that miraculous world of superhuman passions and aspirations, of bards and heroes and sublime adventure—the world of Cuchullin the Unconquerable, and Laeg, and Queen Meave; of Naesi, and Deirdré the Beautiful, and Fergus, and Connla the Harper.

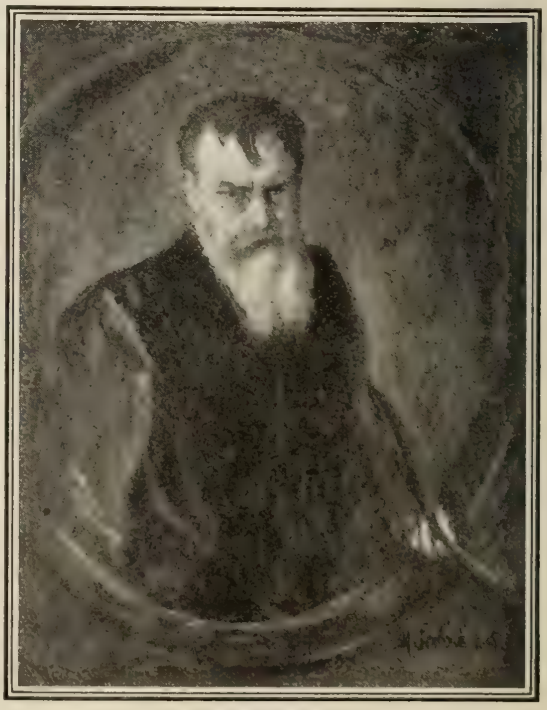
From first to last, says Mr. Gilman, in conclusion, the work is the work of a master of imaginative expression, a penetrative psychologist,—above all, an exquisite poet.

FRANZ VON LENBACH, THE PAINTER.

THE death, in May last, of Franz von Lenbach, Germany's greatest contemporary artist, has called out many tributes in the periodical press. An appreciation of the artist, which includes considerable anecdotal material of unusual interest, is contributed to the *Contemporary Review* (London) for June by Sidney Whitman. Referring to the thought that Lenbach's work will hand down to the coming generations the dominant personalities of a glorious period in German history, this writer recalls Prince Bismarck's declaration that it pleased him to feel that he would be known hereafter by means of Lenbach's portraits. On the other hand, it may be said that the artist himself is known outside of Germany largely because of the fact that he painted Bismarck, although the Iron Chancellor was only one of many exalted personages whose portraits were painted by Lenbach. It is said that no artist of his time was less impressed by rank, and he refused almost as many commissions as he accepted. Mr. Whitman states that he declined an invitation from the Emperor Alexander III. to come to St. Petersburg, and he once showed Mr.



ELEANORA DUSE AND LENBACH'S LITTLE DAUGHTER, MARION.
(From a painting by Lenbach.)



FRANZ VON LENBACH.
(From a painting by himself.)

Whitman a telegram from Cecil Rhodes summoning him to come to London to paint his portrait with the impatient exclamation, "Let him come to Munich."

It has been remarked of Lenbach that the work of his later years surpassed his earlier productions both in richness of color and in power of composition and execution. His portrait of Leo XIII. is an instance.



PRINCE BISMARCK.

(From the famous painting by Lenbach.)

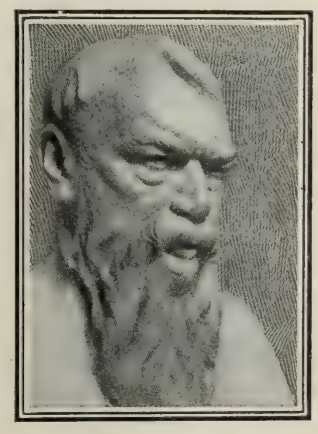
THE ARTIST'S BUSINESS SIDE.

Mr. Whitman reveals some of Lenbach's marked characteristics as a business man. To the question once asked as to his price for a portrait, the artist replied: "That all depends. From twenty thousand marks, which I may ask, down to five thousand marks, which I may be willing to pay for the privilege of painting an exceptionally interesting face." Although Lenbach was often able to ask what he liked, he never went beyond a certain figure; and that figure, says Mr. Whitman, was considerably less than rumor credits certain English, French, and American artists with getting for their work. Lenbach said that he disliked to ask what he considered to be an excessive price, even when certain of obtaining it. In some cases, when exceptionally high prices were offered to reconsider previous refusals, he always stuck to his first figure. A Berlin banker once asked Lenbach, point-blank, what he would charge for painting his portrait. Lenbach mentioned an unusually large sum; this was a way he had of avoiding a direct refusal in case he was disinclined to undertake work. "But surely that is too much?" blurted out the close-fisted millionaire. "I bought a portrait which you painted of Prince Bismarck for less than half that price." "That may be," replied Lenbach, quietly. "It was a pleasure for me to portray him; but surely, Herr X——, without offense, you do not imagine that it would be an equal pleasure to me to paint you."

Mr. Whitman shows that sympathy and personal antipathy had not a little to do with influencing Lenbach's decision even in matters of art. Some years ago, when a few friends of the late Professor Virchow intended to present him with his portrait, they approached him with a view to accepting a commission and asked what the price would be. Lenbach declared that he would consider it an honor to paint the great scientist's portrait, and named a comparatively small sum, but added that if Professor Virchow had not been such an inveterate enemy of Prince Bismarck he would have been only too pleased to paint his picture for nothing.

Mr. Whitman closes his article with this description of the great artist's physique:

Lenbach was of stately stature and powerful build. In fact, I once shocked his devoted wife by comparing him to a gorilla. But he understood my playful reference to the fierce, broad-shouldered king of the African forests, and smiled. Everything about the man denoted strength, and yet refinement. Particularly the powerful forehead, the piercing expression of his luminous eyes, which at times took a haze of tenderness rare even in a woman. His smile was set off by the possession of faultless white teeth, of which he had not lost a single one. He used to call himself ugly, for there was a certain ruggedness about his strong features which one finds among portraits of the Dutch masters. But for those who can read aright the outward expression of great qualities of heart and mind, the proud dignity of manliness, Lenbach looked what he was—"'Every inch a king' among men!"



LENBACH.

(From a bust in the Glyptothek, Munich, reproduced in *Jugend*.)

Lenbach's Method.

Franz Wolter, writing in *Brush and Pencil*, declares that

Lenbach's personality belongs wholly to the present. "His works breathe the breath of the modernity in which they were created." Further, "no modern artist has ever succeeded so completely in fashioning the whole surroundings of his actual works into one artistic, harmonious whole as has Lenbach." His method was that of the old masters.

They wrought boldly, disdaining to jeopardize the spontaneity and freshness of their work through painful attention to detail. Such, also, was Lenbach's method. In working, he involuntarily excluded much that was immaterial,—much, too, that would, as detail, be full of charm and attraction. But this he did with careful purpose, for he knew that an accumulation of charm and attraction, secondary though they be, would only obscure, and make the composition uneven and uneffective. "I leave it to the beholder to fill in what he wishes to see," he frequently explained. But in return for all these omissions he gives, wholly and completely, the spirit, and he gives it in its true environment, in its own world of thought and feeling. And since this it is that appeals to all true lovers of art, and since Lenbach, in setting it forth, was giving his contemporaries what they desired and most rejoiced to receive, therefore he became great, and in his greatness remained in closest harmony with the spirit of his age. In many respects, indeed, he fairly forced his will upon the public; the reality which he followed so admirably in the portrayal of a character was scorned when it demanded the reproduction of an actual costume. The male attire of the present he steadfastly avoided painting whenever he could. In fact, he thoroughly disliked modern garments, which were not sufficiently picturesque, and frequently presented his subjects, as he has often painted himself, in an old black Spanish costume.

A PIONEER SPANISH JOURNALIST AND PUBLICIST.

SPANISH journalism was late in taking its place among the cosmopolitan forces of Europe, says Juan Pérez de Guzmàn, writing in *España Moderna* (Madrid). Señor Guzmàn's article is entitled "The Supremacy of the Press in Spain," and he tells us that the first organ of the government, the *Gaceta*, was founded in 1661, which has survived the vicissitudes of two centuries and a half. After the coming of the Bourbons, the liberty of the press was nipped in the bud.

A rigorous law of censorship repressed the publication of beliefs and opinions which endangered the unity of the faith. . . . The new dynasty which ascended the throne at the beginning of the eighteenth century looked upon the kingdom as a private and personal domain; the people, however, precisely at that period, began to think upon their own rights, and the seeds were sown which ripened into the revolutionary movements which followed.

It was at this time (1758) that Don Francisco Mariano Nifo founded his *Diario* (Daily News), which flourished almost to the end of the nineteenth century. He also started the *Estafeta de Londres*, in imitation of the London journals.

The fever of patriotic indignation which was roused by the enthronement of a usurping Bonaparte at Madrid fifty years later had little time to seek expression by the methods of journalism. Yet the struggle for Spanish independence which began in 1808 was encouraged by the evening journal of Quintanaz, the *Semanario Patriótico*. In its brief pages it breathed the sentiment of the national conscience, of national dignity, together with a majestic spirit of liberty and justice, in a tone of moderation and restraint, and an ardor characterized by the broadest tolerance.

But the real pioneer journalist of Madrid was Don Andrés Borrego, before whose day periodical literature in the Iberian Peninsula had not cast off its national swaddling-clothes. A wider horizon was opened up by the appearance of this man, who was indeed a new figure among his fellow-countrymen, for his life, up to 1834, had been spent in expatriation in London and Paris. "He was an Andalusian of Malaga; with his own eye he had seen, invading the Peninsula, the soldiers of Napoleon, and again the mercenaries of the Duke of Angoulême (in 1823). He found the press of his country crippled by excessive censorship, and the journals that existed filled with triviality and pedantry. There was neither courage nor sincerity in the little



NERO AND SENECA.—BY EDUARDO BARRON.

(The first-prize group of statuary at the Spanish Exposition of Fine Arts recently held in Madrid.)

sheets which professed to guide public opinion." With "the force of an intellectual giant, he had thrown all his influence into the balance of his country's future;" he had long embraced the side of those thinkers and patriots who were the rejected and proscribed among his fellow-coun trymen. In writing to a friend in 1836, he says .

I have placed myself under the banner of the people, and my conscience has never accused me of having deserted the sacred cause of humanity. When the ruin of national liberty drove the stubborn defenders of that lost cause to seek an asylum in foreign lands, my enthusiasm for the people's rights led me to fight in the ranks of the proscribed. I became one of the most active agents of that French press which for ten years (1823–33) opposed with unwearied persistency the pretensions of Louis XVIII. and Charles X.

Borrego founded, in Malaga, the *Confederacion Patriótica* (1820–23); in Argentina, the *Correo Nacional* (1825); and in Paris, the *Temps*, the most completely international of Parisian jour nals. From 1831 to 1834, he was editor of the *Constitutional*, of Paris, and Paris correspondent of the *Morning Herald*, of London. He had a great reputation for bold liberal ideas, both in London and Paris, and, coming to Madrid, he set out to inaugurate a reign of journalism which should be a genuine organ of public opinion without personal aims or sectarian rancors.

He was then in the prime of life (1834), a born journalist, bent on instituting at the Spanish capital a newspaper like the *Temps* and the *Constitutional*, which he had founded in Paris. But in attempting to realize this scheme he was met by almost unsurmountable obstacles. Spain was destitute of even those mechanical arts which are the auxiliaries of newspaper publication. The National Printing Press of Madrid, from which the *Gazette* and official publications issued, was equipped with only the most primitive machinery in 1834, and even the paper procurable was of sheets too small for his purpose. He was forced to import his materials and presses from Paris, and eventually founded a joint-stock company with the assistance of noblemen and others of capital, for the purpose of setting up a printing establishment equipped with all the latest improvements and capable of providing the Spanish public with productions of the press executed in the highest perfection and at a price as low as that at which other countries disseminated printed literature. . . . It was his ambition to create a periodical literature which should approach, in loftiness of tone, freedom of utterances, and perfection of manufacture, the highest standard reached by that of the most polished and civilized nations of Europe.

This design was accompanied by the publication of the *Español*, the first number of which appeared November 1, 1835. English machinery, type, paper, and the skill of English pressmen produced work equal to that done on "the most famous English papers, the *Times*, the *Standard*, and the *Morning Post*. The 'make up' of the paper was methodical and perfect," and included government announcements (Gazette), extracts from domestic and foreign journals, editorials, political news, local and general news, and foreign and provincial correspondence. But Borrego went further than mere newspaper publication. He founded the *Revista Europea* (1837) and the *Revista Peninsular* (1838), which were intended to take the place, in Spain, of the *British and Foreign Review* and *Blackwood's Magazine*, in England, and of the *Revue de Paris* and *Revue des Deux Mondes*, in France. Finally, after completing his work as a journalist, in which he either founded or edited ten journals (1820–72), he took up the work of a publicist. His many books, thirty-one in all, "are the Bible of the true Liberal-Conservative of Spain." He had a seat in the Cortes from 1837 to 1858.

The Spanish Press To-Day.

An exhaustive study of the origin and history of the periodical press all over the world is contributed to the *Revista Contemporánea* (Madrid) by Pedro Gascón de Gotor. Señor Gotor believes that there is much to be desired in the conduct of the Spanish press at present.

BOOKS AND LIBRARIES FOR CHILDREN.

A SERIES of articles on books for children appear in the June *Chautauquan*. Mary Imogene Hazeltine, librarian of the Prendergast Free Library, Jamestown, N. Y., considers "the children's room" in the public library. These librarians are trained, experienced women, mostly. They have found that several considerations should enter into the selection of books, especially their mechanical make-up, their literary value, and the moral effect on the child's character.

The books must be printed on good paper, in clear type, and must be securely bound. Their illustrations must be the work of artists who do not overcrowd with details, who give good outlines, and who preserve the traditions of perspective, color values, form, and proportion, else will the children gain false notions of things. The pictures of Cruikshank, Kate Greenaway, Palmer Cox, Howard Pyle, and Caldecott, and the outline marginal drawings of Thompson-Seton, are examples of those possessing the requisite artistic merit. While the question of the subject-matter must be duly regarded, that the stories be wholesome, with *real* situations and *true* accounts, and that books of informa-

tion be accurate, it must be as carefully considered whether they be presented in clear, vigorous English, and in good literary form, and that their tone and import be neither mawkish nor sentimental, but sincere and high.

A child readily understands and appreciates a book whose subject-matter is adapted to his comprehension, even though it was avowedly written for adult minds and in the best literary style. A recent and forceful illustration of this is in the books of Mr. Thompson-Seton.

Many of the familiar stories appearing in them were published first in the *Century* and *Scribner's* magazines, the recognized province of mature readers. But the children claim these books as their own, and read them with avidity and delight. Indeed, the borderland between juvenile and adult books is hard to define when the best literature is under discussion, for the children's classics, "Arabian Nights," "The Odyssey," "Robinson Crusoe," "Pilgrim's Progress," "Gulliver's Travels," Cooper's novels, "Ivanhoe," were not written for children at all, but have been adopted by them.

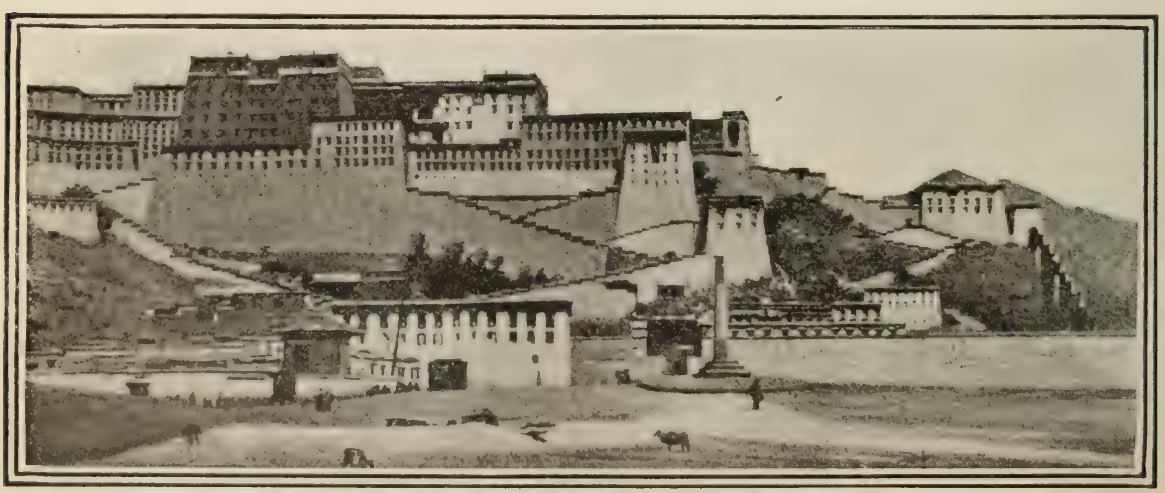
SUGGESTIONS AS TO HOME LIBRARIES.

Home libraries for poor children is the subject discussed by Frances Jenkins Olcott, chief of the children's department and director of the training school for children's librarians in the Pittsburg Carnegie Library. This writer, in speaking of the selection of books for such home libraries, says:

Let us say that we have made a working center of the home of the president of our club of volunteer home-library visitors. A committee may be appointed to procure books from the public library of the city. The club is indeed fortunate if the public library will undertake the selection and exchange of the books, for this will enable its members to throw their whole efforts into the actual work with the children and their families. But if the library rules interfere with the loan of books for such a purpose, the members of the club might pledge themselves to solicit contributions to the amount of twenty-five dollars each. Frequently, libraries are given as memorials by parents who have lost children and who are glad to have the influence of good books go among the poor and needy; and sometimes the libraries are named for the children or for a child's favorite author. Twenty-five dollars purchases a neat bookcase and twenty volumes. In selecting the books, it must be borne in mind that boys who have fed on the adventures of "Dashing Charlie, the Texan Whirlwind," "Gentleman Joe, the Gilt-Edged Sport," "Dick Dead-Eye," "Tracy the Outlaw," and "The James Brothers" cannot be interested at once in "Alice in Wonderland," "Tom Brown's School Days," "Ivanhoe," and other children's classics. The transition from reading dime novels to actual enjoyment of good literature must be slow, and can be accomplished only through the infinite patience and perseverance of the visitor. An occasional boy will rise to the height of the "Oregon Trail" and "Ivanhoe," but on the whole the visitor must be satisfied if she raises the general standard of reading to Munroe, Henty, and Otis. The same rule holds good in selecting books for girls.

THE LAMAISM OF TIBET.

THE dominant religion of Tibet is Lamaism. It is more than a religion, however. In reality, it represents the entire organism, religious, social, and political, of Tibet. It is an absolute theocracy, without parallel in the world. So we are informed by M. L. de Milloué, a French writer, in the *Revue Universelle*. Lamaism, he says, has many points in common with the Catholic hierarchy. Everything is subordinated to the clergy, the highest religious offi-



POTULU, THE "VATICAN" OF THE BUDDHIST POPE AT LASSA.

cials, among whom, in Tibet, are the lamas. M. L. de Milloué traces the history of the development of Lamaism from the earliest times. He says that since the beginning of the ninth century the history of Tibet has been merely the history of the clergy, who have had almost absolute power over the people. Lamaism, he says, is a sort of Buddhism, but much corrupted by mingling a certain mythology and mysticism which was peculiarly Tibetan, and afterward became still more corrupted into a sort of fantastic sorcery to which many local superstitions were added.



ÇÂKYA MOUNI.
(The most sacred of Buddhas).

The word "lama" stands for the term "priest." It really signifies "superior, venerable." The Tibetan priests are subjected to the most rigorous training during their youth, and are monks in the strictest sense of the term. They are very numerous, representing, it is said, one-eighth of the entire population of the country, and possessing almost all the public property. They are in reality, says this French writer, a great plague to the people, and are themselves corrupt and insincere.

Not the Supreme Head of Buddhism.

The new quarterly, *Buddhism*, published in Rangoon, Burma, ridicules the idea that the Dalai Lama of Lassa has any headship over Buddhists generally. Commenting on Colonel Younghusband's "mission" to the Tibetan capital, this review says: "We may state incidentally, in view of wild rumors to the contrary, that the Buddhists of Burma—and, we presume, all Buddhists in the British Empire—view with absolute indifference the affairs of the Dalai Lama and of Tibet generally, with which they have nothing in common, and that the fiction that Buddhists regard the former in the same light as do Roman Catholics the Pope is too absurd for serious discussion."



THE DALAI LAMA.
(From a drawing by Sven Hedin).

WHAT EMIGRATION MAY MEAN TO ITALY.

STATESMEN and economists in Italy are devoting considerable attention to the emigration problems which face their country. In two articles in recent numbers of the *Nuova Antologia* (Rome), the possibilities of emigration in the way of improving the economic and social condition of the kingdom are discussed. Enrico Cocchia writes on "The Emigration of Educated Italians," and in his article declares that he longs for the day when "the educated class, increased beyond all measure, shall feel, equally with the lower classes, the impulse toward emigration, and shall make their homes in distant lands, with a view to establishing, once more, the national wealth and greatness of Italy, revived and flourishing in the prosperity of her colonial possessions." He points out that the power of all nations, ancient and modern, has been maintained and supplemented by means of colonization, which has fostered their commerce. The commerce of Italy with foreign lands is of less magnitude than that of either England, Germany, France, Russia, Japan, Austria, or Holland. This, he says, is due to the fact that Italian emigrants belong neither to the commercial nor to the educated classes. Yet the great high-roads of foreign emigration, "as in ancient times, ought not to be monopolized to-day by the mere laborers of the land, but should also, and above all, be taken by the educated and learned classes, who at present, like the same classes in Germany up to 1870, suffer from stagnation and inertia within the narrow confines of their native land."

For a people like ours, which possesses traditions of a civilization so productive in works of intellect and material grandeur, emigration should not result in degradation, and cause us to be placed in the same category as that of negroes or coolies in North America. Our destiny in the world and the proper mission of

Italy ought to be something very different from this. Emigration ought to be, to us, the most potent engine and pathfinder of commerce. The more numerous the sons of any country dwelling in a foreign land, the greater the influence of that country, the larger the export of her productions. But commerce with a foreign country will never receive proper encouragement unless the intelligence of the learned classes is enlisted in its service.

EMIGRATION OF THE INTELLIGENT URGED.

In order to prepare Italian emigrants for establishing successful commercial relations, he suggests that the minister of agriculture and commerce, in distributing bursaries and scholarships, should take more count of a candidate's practical knowledge of the languages current in those countries of Europe and of the East with which the opening up of new commercial relations seems most desirable and practicable. Moreover, there is plenty of room abroad, he says, not only for the muscular energy of Italians, but for their intellectual activities also. "The northern coast of Africa, the eastern shore of the Adriatic, the ancient ports of the Levant, the boundless territories of the farthest East, might easily become seats of culture eagerly to be sought after by men of all professions, scientific, industrial, and artistic, to whom the soil of their native country had proved a barren home." Lawyers, doctors, veterinarians, engineers, pharmacists, professors of literature in every department, painters and musicians, as well as the graduates of industrial and artistic institutions, would there find a wide field of activity, provided they were first equipped with some knowledge of those foreign countries and had become versed in the methods of dealing with their inhabitants. He concludes by reverting to his main contention.

It is only by the devotion of the professional and studious class to the work of industry and commerce that Italy will be enabled to find a way to wealth and salvation. . . . If the cultivators of science, instead of locking themselves up in the laboratory of their specialty and applying themselves solely to some pursuit founded upon the learning they had laboriously acquired in their university, would only seek a new field in a foreign country which gave opportunities more propitious to their pursuit of fortune, Italy would be more likely to achieve her destiny and to save herself from the fate to which she has, so far, for four centuries, been condemned,—namely, that of wasting and exhausting the rich patrimony received from her forefathers. The narrow confines of this country are not sufficient for the abounding activity of Italian intelligence.

Italian Colonies in South America.

"Plans for Italian Colonization in South America" is the title of an important article in the same review. The author, Donato Sanmiatelli, dismisses as absurd the narrow and short-sighted policy that would discourage Italian emigration and keep the youth of the country at home for military service and the cultivation of the Italian soil, which is already in the hands of owners. As an argument in favor of foreign emigration, he refers to the increase of the birth-rate and the decrease of the death-rate in Italy, and the narrowness and worn-out condition of arable belts in many Italian provinces. He also gives reasons why South America is a land of promise. He thinks the unsettled wilderness of the La Plata valley is more likely to afford the best room for scattered Italian colonies, keeping up their national character and language, buying the manufactured goods of Italy, sympathizing with her political life, and selling their productions in her markets. Consider, he says, "the joyless, often unfortunate, condition of our fellow-countrymen, emigrants herded together in the great city centers of the United States, and the jealous restrictions, or fatal competition, by which, in all countries where the English language is spoken,—as in Australia, for instance,—our countrymen are excluded from prosperity."

The Italian Government, therefore, appointed a commission of emigration to visit South America and report on places most suitable and available for emigrants to settle in. Strict laws had already been passed, at the instance of Senator Bodio and his colleagues, to protect the emigrant during his voyage out and provide assistance for him on his arrival on a foreign shore. At the end of June, 1903, two commissioners, Prof. Angelo Scalabrini and Dr. Alessandro Piacentini sailed for Buenos Ayres. The two commissioners determined to take nothing on hearsay, and set out to explore the province of Buenos Ayres. They were much struck with the abundant pasturage and fine cattle of that region. They traveled through the wheat tracts of Santa Fé and Entre Rios.

A FAVORABLE REPORT ON ARGENTINA.

The soil was good, the climate most healthy, the products similar to those of Italy. They visited Chaco,—a province half the size of all Italy,—Ocampo, Corrientes, and others. In the report which Professor Scalabrini finally presented to the commissioners of emigration, he represented Argentina as a home for sturdy colonists of rural habits, emigrating at their own expense, and advised that such be conducted to this place, blessed with a healthy climate, fertile soil, and fine situation. Signor Sanmiatelli does not tell us whether any large number of Italian emigrants have left for South America, but he says that on the guar-

anty of such advantages capitalists are likely to come forward without hesitation ; and, in fact, many proposals are to be laid before the commissioners of emigration and examined by them at an early date. Signor Ernesto Nathan has offered to them fifty million lire (about ten million dollars) on condition that the state guarantee him the interest of it at the lowest rate paid on treasury bonds, and an institute of colonization has been projected by the civil engineer Antonio Tansini, of Bologna, who has gone to Argentina under the instructions of a provisional committee of this institute, with a view to take definite measures for securing lands in Santa Fé and Cordoba.

HOW A WOMAN MAY LEARN TO SWIM.

HUNDREDS of those who perished in the *General Slocum* disaster at New York, last month, might have saved themselves and rescued helpless children had they known how to swim. There is much encouragement, as well as abundance of sound advice, to all women who frequent the seashore or inland lakes of our country in the article on "Things a Woman Should Know in Learning to Swim," contributed to the July *Outing* by Clara Dalton. According to this writer, a lesson or two should suffice to teach any woman how to keep her mouth above water, while one-quarter of the time expended by most women in jumping up and down about the ropes at a seaside resort would make them expert swimmers.

The beginner, we are told, should first get accustomed to having her head under water. She should enter the water gradually, wading out till the water comes to her neck ; then stooping till she is entirely submerged, she should remain thus for a second. It will soon be found quite possible to stay under water for increasing periods of time with nostrils open, and to hold them free of water.

Having become "at home in the water," the pupil is ready to begin the real business of learning to swim. The first movement is the breast stroke.

The pupil should wade out from the shore up to her chest, then face the shore, join the palms of the hands together at the breast with the fingers tightly closed, The last injunction is one frequently disregarded by beginners. Then the hands should shoot straight out in front, a little below the level of the chin. When the arms are stretched out straight in front to their fullest extent, the palms of the hands should be turned flat downward, lying almost horizontal to the surface, and the arms should make a semicircular sweep to their widest extent on either side, the arms being in a straight line with the shoulders. During the motion, care should be taken all the time to keep the arms perfectly straight and the palms downward ; also that the arms shall not be drawn farther back than a line perpendicular to the shoulders.

Last, the hands must be brought back to first position again, care being taken to drop the elbows, and the hands kept as near the surface as possible without splashing. The palms are on the way gradually turned so that they will meet again at the breast ready for the next stroke. This is the breast stroke, and it is a good idea to practise this also out of the water, even before going in at all.

On shore, counting aloud as the strokes are made will help the pupil to keep time with the leg strokes. This single stroke should be practised until it is thoroughly mastered. The arm stroke will enable the pupil to keep her head above water long before she is able to swim, and it demands far less practice than the leg stroke.



CORRECT POSITION,—BEGINNING OF LEG STROKE.

The leg stroke is more difficult to master, but is more important. A good preparation may be afforded by shore practice.

Lying face downward across a stool, the instructor should take the pupil's ankles and pull the legs straight out, heels touching and toes directed outward; then the feet must be pushed up toward the body as far as possible, care being taken to keep the heels together and the knees turned out, frog fashion. Next, the legs should be pulled out straight, as far apart as possible, the feet being still in a horizontal line; then, the legs, being still kept straight, should be brought together, the heels touching with a snap. Thus, the water compressed between the legs will push the body forward. Then, as the heels are about to be brought together at the end of the movement, the ankle joints should be quickly relaxed and the feet struck sharply together until the soles almost meet and lie in line with the legs. And while the legs are once more assuming the position nearest the body, the feet should always be kept in line with the direction to be taken.

Having become thoroughly familiar with these movements on shore, the pupil may wade out in open water to the depth of her shoulders, face the shore, and push off from the bottom with her feet, at the same time bringing the arms to the first position with the palms together under the chin.

Then, without stopping, the arms must be shot forward to the second position of the arm stroke, the legs at the same time being kicked out as far apart as possible, the motion continued by snapping the heels together. Legs and arms are then brought quickly back to first position. This motion, made at first with the hand of the instructor to support the chest, can, after a few lessons, be made with no support at all. Only care must be taken to kick the legs straight behind, not under, the body. If they are allowed to fall, the swimmer will at once assume an upright position.

The writer declares that if a woman will spend three hours in the determined effort to learn to keep afloat or to take the swimming strokes she will be insured against losing her life by drowning, provided she has presence of mind. Her rescue would depend mainly upon her physical endurance and the slowness of her strokes. Quick strokes soon exhaust a swimmer.

The article concludes with several cautions which the writer thinks that every woman swimmer ought especially to observe.

1. She should never go in the water for swimming when she is fatigued. Since the late afternoon hours are the popular time for bathing at the seaside resorts, a woman is likely to be fatigued by the golf, or bicycle-riding, or walking that have made up her day, and she is then not in fit condition for the exertion of swimming.

2. She should never go in swimming within two hours after eating a heavy meal. This is a rule never to be broken, and failing to observe which almost wholly takes away from swimming the benefits that the exercise would otherwise give.

3. She must not stay in the water a minute after she feels fatigue or chill.

4. She should never allow herself to be "dared" to swim farther than she has ever swum; overexertion in swimming is extremely dangerous to her health, to say nothing of the peril while in the water.

5. She ought not to swim away from the crowd until she is an expert swimmer.

6. She should learn not to be frightened or to lose her head if a limb becomes cramped. If it is raised from the water and rubbed for a minute, the pain will cease.

7. If she ever has occasion to save any one from drowning, she can do so even if she is not an adept swimmer by remembering not to come in front of the drowning person in order to rescue her. She should approach her from the back, and seize her firmly by both arms, near the biceps.

JULES VERNE ON HIMSELF AND OTHERS.

MR. GORDON JONES contributes to *Temple Bar* an interesting interview with the venerable scientific novelist at Amiens. Asked as to the beginning of his career as an author, M. Verne replied:

As early as twelve or fourteen, I was never without a pen in my hand, and during my school days I was always writing, my tasks being chiefly poetical. During the whole of my life, I have always had a great passion for poetical and dramatic work, and in my later youth I published a considerable number of pieces, some of which met with a fair amount of success. My second and principal career did not commence till I was over thirty, and was brought about by a sudden impulse. It struck me one day that perhaps I might utilize with advantage my scientific education to blend together science and romance into a work of an advantageous description that might appeal to the public taste. The idea took such a hold upon me that I sat down at once to carry it into effect, the result being "Five Weeks in a Balloon." The book met with astonishing success, and several editions being soon exhausted, my publishers urged upon me the desirability of producing some more volumes in the same style. . . . Although not wholly pleased with the idea, I complied with their request.

He owed the suggestion of "The Green Ray" to his visit to Fingal's Cave in the Isle of Staffa.

"The Floating City" was entirely suggested by a trip taken to America in the *Great Eastern;* and "Round the World in Eighty Days," perhaps the most celebrated of all his works, was due merely to a tourist advertisement seen by chance in the columns of a newspaper.

Interrogated as to method of work, M. Verne replied that until recently he invariably rose at five and did three hours' writing before breakfast. The bulk of his work was done at this time. He kept himself abreast of the times by wide reading in newspapers and periodicals, by clipping out interesting paragraphs and entering them for future use.

BRIEFER NOTES ON TOPICS IN THE PERIODICALS.

SUBJECTS TREATED IN THE POPULAR AMERICAN MAGAZINES.

The Labor Question.—Mr. Victor S. Yarros, writing in the *American Journal of Sociology* (Chicago), discusses the labor question in its relation to the social problem. He points out that the labor leaders of to-day have adopted radically individualistic views, notwithstanding the fact that they are constantly charged with socialistic leanings. Mr. Yarros maintains that the labor question can only be solved when we shall have solved the problem of the control and use of the natural media and the problem of the relation between the individual and the body politic.—In the same periodical, Mr. Hayes Robbins reviews the New York building trades paralysis of 1903. Mr. Robbins contends very justly that neither Parks nor his followers could be regarded as fairly representative of the present character or tendencies of labor-unionism either in New York or in the country at large. "The labor movement is entitled to be judged by the solid, permanent elements that underlie it rather than by the surface accidents of vicious leadership."—In the current number of the *Political Science Quarterly*, a paper by Mabel Atkinson on "Trust and Trade-Unions and Their Mutual Relations" brings out the point that the unions, by fixing a definite level of labor cost, may in some cases make combination among the capitalists easier. By restricting the amount of available labor, the unions may even succeed in drawing a portion of the profits into their own pockets. But in those interests where the labor is unskilled and the wages low, combination among the capitalists—if it comes before the trade-union—makes organization among the workers more difficult, and lessens their power of resisting unwise or unjust demands. In the *North American Review* for June, Mr. Maurice Low describes and commends the conciliation boards which adjust labor differences in England.

American Politics.—Considering the imminence of the Presidential campaign, the recent issues of our magazines have been strikingly destitute of material relating to national politics. One of the few exceptions to this rule of silence in our periodical literature is the political forecast by Eltweed Pomeroy which appears in the June number of the *Arena* (Boston). Mr. Pomeroy is president of the National Direct Legislation League, and has been for many years identified with what may be termed the "radical" wing of American publicists. His article is interesting not so much for the prophecies that it contains as for the analysis of conditions in the two great national parties. So far as the Republican campaign is concerned, Mr. Pomeroy is convinced that the great factor will be, not money, nor the management of men, nor the swinging of the influence of the great corporations. All these were factors four and eight years ago; but in the coming campaign, Mr. Pomeroy believes that a more decisive factor will be President Roosevelt's personality and the popular belief in his integrity, courage, and real sanity of vision. As Mr. Pomeroy views it, however, there is an "indeterminateness" in President Roosevelt's position in regard to the trusts, but in that very attitude the President represents the great middle class of the country, and for that reason it seems probable to Mr. Pomeroy that he will be elected. On the Democratic side, Mr. Pomeroy still regards Mr. Bryan as the best-known and most influential man in his party. But, in his opinion, Bryan is to-day at the height of his influence. Bryan at heart is not a radical, and he will not disguise his real sentiments for the sake of gaining the support of radicals. Next to Bryan, the most important man in the party, in Mr. Pomeroy's opinion, is Mr. Hearst. To the Hearst candidacy Mr. Pomeroy attaches great importance. Roosevelt's chances against Hearst if regularly nominated by the Democrats are placed by Mr. Pomeroy at not more than sixty or sixty-five out of a hundred. In the July number of the *World's Work*, the editor ventures to forecast three interesting results of the coming campaign,—first, a searching popular examination and criticism of Mr. Roosevelt's administration; second, the regeneration of the Democratic party, causing a stronger opposition, even in case of Republican success, than the Republicans have had since Cleveland went out of power; and, third, the continuance of business conditions practically undisturbed.—In the current number of the *Political Science Quarterly* there is an informing study of State central committees by Mr. C. E. Merriam, of the University of Chicago. In this sketch is presented a brief outline of the organization of the central, or executive, committees of the Republican and Democratic parties in the several States. This paper deals with such topics as the apportionment of membership, term of service, method of election, vacancies and removals, officers, and sub-committees and their powers. The paper is packed with information never before collated and presented in this compact form, so far as we are aware.

Negro Disfranchisement Again.—In two of the July magazines appear important contributions to the discussion of negro disfranchisement in the South. Mr. Thomas Nelson Page treats the question in *Scribner's* as "One Factor in the South's Standing Problem." Mr. Page's position on this question is fairly well known from several of his books, as well as from a number of magazine articles published during the past year, and we need not state his argument in detail. It is sufficient, perhaps, to say that his is the view shared by the influential whites of the South in general, with perhaps rather more of consideration for what he terms the upper fraction of the race,—that is to say, the educated negroes,—than is commonly expressed in the utterances of the Southern white leaders. While taking the ground that the disfranchisement of the main body of the negroes in the Southern States was a necessary measure,

and expressing the full belief that this disfranchisement is for the permanent welfare of both races, Mr. Page is free to admit that many negroes are good men and good citizens, that they contribute their part to the public wealth, and that they are entitled, on every ground of justice and sound policy, to consideration. Of one thing, however, he is certain,—that the ignorant negro, "and hence all ignorance," must be eliminated by law. In the *Atlantic Monthly*, Mr. Archibald H. Grimke sets forth some of the evils of disfranchisement. He argues that disfranchisement is bad, not only for the negro himself, but for the South as a section and for the rest of the nation. The portion of his argument that will particularly interest Northern readers, we think, is his attempt to show the harmful effect that is produced by disfranchisement on the black labor of the South. Mr. Grimke holds that disfranchisement makes a large proportion of the South's laboring population restless and discontented with their civil and social condition, and hinders employers of this labor from producing the largest and the best results with it.

Problems in Education.—Several papers of general interest appear in the June number of the *Educational Review* (New York). President Charles Cuthbert Hall presents his annual survey of progress in religious and moral education, concluding that, upon the whole, the strategic points in any such system of education designed to affect the country at large are the universities and colleges.—A paper by Mr. James Russell Parsons, Jr., on "Tendencies in School Legislation, 1903," is reprinted from the Bulletin of the New York State Library. This legislation suggests to Mr. Parsons the type toward which State education in America is moving,—a school strong in local support, aided by the State in proportion to its needs, subject to supervision, furnishing instruction in elementary and academic branches by specially qualified teachers, and compulsory attendance at some approved school.—Several articles in the *World's Work* for July are devoted to various phases of education in the South. Perhaps the most interesting and suggestive of these is Miss Martha Berry's account of "Uplifting Backwoods Boys in Georgia." Miss Berry shows how the children of the poor whites in the pines are taught to scrub, to cook, to farm, to build houses, and to save money. She relates the experience of a group of boys who built an industrial school. Optimism is likewise the dominant note in Mr. William Heck's paper on "The Educational Uplift in the South," which tells how the people of various Southern cities are aiding in the development of the rural schools, how illiteracy is being gradually eliminated, and how rural communities are voting to tax themselves for school funds. Still another inspiring contribution is Prof. John Spencer Bassett's record of the educational progress made in the city and county of Durham, N. C., where industrialism has aided powerfully in the building up of education.—Miss Adele Marie Shaw's paper in this number of the *World's Work* is a study of the system of school work adopted at Council Bluffs, Iowa, where the pupils are taught the three R's through geography, and where objects and pictures are studied as well as books.

Art Topics in the Magazines.—"An Important Art Treasure of New York" is the subject of an article by Mr. Charles De Kay in the July *Century*. This treasure is a chariot of bronze from ancient Rome,—truly a grand prize for the excavator, since its equal according to Mr. De Kay, is not to be found either in the Louvre, the British Museum, in Berlin, or in any of the museums of Italy. The chariot was found last year in a forgotten burial-ground near the modern Norcia (ancient Nursia). The relic was offered in Paris, but was sent to New York, and was bought by the Metropolitan Museum of Art. Its age is estimated at from twenty-five to thirty centuries.—Mr. Charles Mulford Robinson writes, in the *Atlantic*, on the artistic possibilities of advertising. This writer has discovered a trend in the direction of art and beauty in our advertising, and looks forward to the production of fairer cities and towns, and an easier, happier life within them. Suggestions of the future to which Mr. Robinson looks forward with such confidence are undoubtedly to be found in the great expositions that have been held, at short intervals, in this country since 1893.—The principal articles in the *International Studio* for June are: "The Modern French Pastellists,—Gaston La Touche," by Arthur Octave Uzanne; "A German Decorative Landscape Painter,—Walter Leistikow," by W. Fred; "Tibetan Art," by Mrs. Le Mesurier; and "The Work of Herbert Alexander," by Laurence Housman. In the *Magazine of Art* for June, the editor reviews the exhibition of the Royal Academy; Mr. Cyril Davenport writes on "Cameo-cutting in France;" and there are papers on two modern British etchers, Alfred East and F. V. Burridge, and the third installment of the symposium on "L'Art Nouveau," the work of Mr. Frederick H. Evans, who is described as a "romanticist in photography," by Mr. A. Horsley Hinton. In his fourth paper on "Masterpieces of Painting," contributed to *McClure's* for July, Mr. John La Farge discourses on the portraits of children. Writing in the *Fortnightly Review* for June on "Verestchagin as a Painter," Rosa Newmarch comments on the lack of the militant spirit shown by Russian art and literature. The spirit of jingoism is commendably absent from Russian poetry, and the same thing is true of the majority of Russian painters, Verestchagin himself being a marked exception. George Porter Fernald contributes to the July *Cosmopolitan* an entertaining sketch of an Italian villa, with illustrations by himself.

Architecture at Home and Abroad.—An attractive forecast of "The New West Point" as it will appear when the comprehensive architectural plans recently adopted in connection with the liberal government appropriation for buildings shall have been fully worked out is contributed to the July *Century* by Mr. Sylvester Baxter. The illustrations accompanying Mr. Baxter's article show that the design of the architects is to preserve as far as possible the natural features of the landscape, and also to make the new buildings harmonize in style with the majority of those now standing. The style that prevailed in the architectural composition was the Gothic. The successful architects in the competition were Messrs. Cram, Goodhue, and Ferguson, and they have chosen Messrs. Olmsted Brothers, the two sons of the lamented Frederick Law Olmsted, to collaborate.—Not a little promise for the future of American architecture is contained in this month's number of the *World's Work*. The article on "The Uplift in American Cities," by J. Horace Macfarland and Clinton Rogers Woodruff, shows, among other things, how the public buildings of our cities, as well

as the surroundings of the parks and playgrounds, have been greatly improved in many instances during the past few years. In the same magazine, Mr. Charles H. Caffin, writing on "How American Taste Is Improving," traces the growing appreciation of good paintings, sculpture, and architecture back to the Centennial Exposition of 1876. The illustrations of his article certainly show a remarkable advance in the standards of public taste.—In the July number of *Outing* there is an interesting description of several American copies of English great halls. The attempt to reproduce these features of English architecture in this country seems to have begun with the rise of great country-seats on this side of the ocean. Perhaps there are more of these American copies than the general public is aware of. This article in *Outing* describes one such gallery in a house at Tuxedo, N. Y., which is 65 feet long by 15 feet wide, and is Gothic in general effect, although the style of the wainscoting and of the ceiling is Jacobean, or Stuart. Another American mansion on Long Island boasts a hall 90 by 65 feet, extending directly through the house from front entrance to back. The "Colonial" hall has so long been an American possession that it would seem hardly necessary for our millionaires to go to England or the Continent of Europe for examples.—Besides these articles in the popular monthlies, the papers appearing in the *Architectural Record* on such topics as "Decorative Work in Iron and Bronze," "The First Concrete Sky-Scraper," and "A Type of the Metropolitan Hotel" will fully repay perusal even by the non-technical reader.

Literary Topics.—Several of the July magazines have interesting articles in literary biography. In the *Century*, Hawthorne's centenary is commemorated in a study contributed by the Rev. Dr. Theodore T. Munger. —Apropos of the six-hundredth anniversary of the birth of Petrarch, on July 20, the *Atlantic Monthly* contains an elaborate survey of Petrarch's life and work, by Dr. Henry D. Sedgwick. There is also in the July *Atlantic* a brief article by George Santanna on "The Illustrators of Petrarch."—Another installment of the Ruskin letters to Professor Norton appears in this number of the *Atlantic*.—*Munsey's* for July contains a brief paper, by T. Edgar Pemberton, on the friendship between Charles Dickens and Washington Irving. Some of the great English novelist's letters to the American writer bear testimony to Irving's influence upon his earlier work.— Rafford Pyke's paper on "Memorable Love Letters" in the July *Cosmopolitan* is largely concerned with the correspondence of literary men and women, notably such distinguished writers as Balzac, Lord Lytton, Margaret Fuller, and the Brownings.

Out-of-Door Life.—A racy account of Western harvest life is contributed to the July *Scribner's* by Mr. Charles M. Harger. The Eastern college boys who think of going West as harvest hands this season will find Mr. Harger's article full of suggestions.—"The Wilderness Near Home" is the title of an attractive sketch in the July *Outing*, by Robert Dunn. This writer expatiates on the beauties of camping in the Adirondacks, the Catskills, or the White Mountains, and gives some excellent advice for those who are planning to invade one or the other of these quite accessible regions.—In the *World's Work*, Dallas Lore Sharp, the author of "Wild Life Near Home," writes on "Our Uplift Through Outdoor Life." This writer asserts that more interest is taken in nature in the United States than in any other country. He sketches the beginnings and spread of the nature-study movement, and shows how Americans are devoting themselves more and more enthusiastically, from year to year, to the cultivation of mind and body in the outdoor world. —Mountaineering is the subject of articles in two of the July magazines. Mrs. Aubrey Le Blond writes, in the *Cosmopolitan*, on "Perils of the High Peaks," while in *Outing*, Earl Harding gives a thrilling account of the various attempts to climb Long's Peak, in Colorado, —the American Matterhorn. The first party of explorers to reach the top of this great summit was led by the late Major Powell, in 1869. Colonel Long, whose name the peak bears, saw the peak as early as 1820, but never ascended it. The east precipice was ascended, for the first time, a quarter of a century ago by Elkanah Lamb, a pioneer guide, and was again surmounted, in June, 1893, by Enos A. Mills.

The Advance in Fruit-Culture.—Two of the July magazines take note of the recent wonderful developments in what they term without exaggeration "the creation of new fruits." The article in *Scribner's*, by Mr. W. S. Harwood, describes the work of Mr. Luther Burbank, the well-known horticulturist of southern California. Some of Mr. Burbank's remarkable achievements in the selection and breeding of fruits and plants are illustrated in the pictures accompanying Mr. Harwood's article. Mr. H. Gilson Gardner, writing in the *Cosmopolitan*, describes the new fruit called the "tangelo," the "creation" of which has just been announced by the Department of Agriculture. He also gives some of the results of recent experiments in grafting for the cultivation of oranges. Lest his readers should be skeptical on this matter of the creation of new fruits, Mr. Gardner reminds us that the tomato as now known has been created within the last fifty years. People are still living who called tomatoes "love apples" and did not consider them fit to eat.

The Spirit of the West.—Writing in *Harper's* for July, Mr. Henry Loomis Nelson pays a fine tribute to the character of the men who have built up our great West. He comments rather unfavorably on the part that the general government has had in this development. The public lands have been wasted, while individuals have staked their all on the country's future and have largely succeeded. "There is no wool in the Western mind," says Mr. Nelson, "and there is no decadence in the Western conscience."

Religious Problems.—In the *Century Magazine*, Mr. Henry R. Elliot gives many impressive facts regarding the printing, sale, and distribution of the Bible. He states that the Bible alone, of all books claiming a divine authorship and authority, is distributed systematically and on a large scale, not only among those who wish copies, but even among indifferent and hostile communities. It is also true at the present time that there is not a land or a language of importance on the face of the earth where the distribution of the Bible is not carried on with system and success.—Dr. Thomas C. Hall, writing in the *North American Review* for June, considers "Socialism as a Rival of Organized Christianity." He regards socialism as "a religious faith, a new standard of values, a fighting ideal, and a militant enthusiasm rapidly hardening into an aggressive dogmatism."

THE SPIRIT OF THE FOREIGN REVIEWS.

The American Woman,—A French View.—In a review of three books,—"The American Woman at Home," by Th. Bentzon; "The Woman Workers of the United States," by the Misses J. and M. Van Vorst; and a collection of articles by Cleveland Moffett, M. Émile Faguet, of the French Academy (writing in the *Revue Bleue*), expresses his opinion that the American woman, while brilliant and beautiful, is a snob. She wishes, above all things, not to be, but to seem to be, he says. The American workingwoman, especially, is subject to this fault of wishing and endeavoring to appear as though she were richer, better, and more intelligent than she really is. She is a "profound egoist," he continues, "who cares for nothing but to enjoy life, to make a show, to strut, and to boast of possessing more money than she really does. . . . She is nothing but egotism and vanity. She does not wish to become a mother or a wife. She looks upon her husband only as a machine for making money. To make money for one's wife is not only an expression well known and proverbial in America, but, for the American woman, it is the first and last word of the conjugal programme, the duties and rights of marriage. The husband, a person very often brusque and uncouth, is deliberately neglected by the wife, especially among the middle classes; and, if there are children, these are considered to be a charge and a burden which one must, if possible, avoid or be spared." The causes of this state of affairs this French writer declares to be manifold. The principal one, however, he declares, is a national trait of character. The American is vain, and wants his wife to make a show. The American woman, M. Faguet continues, is actually idolized by her husband and regarded by the whole American people as a queen, an empress, and a most sacred object. In fact, the United States is a gyneocracy. So long, he concludes, as American men live exclusively for the excitement of business and the sole purpose of making money, that their wives may spend it, so long will American money-aristocracy continue to grow worse. But there will some day be an insurrection. "The American aristocracy may yet have its 1789."

If France Went to War.—Colonel de la Panouse, who is often called the "coming Kitchener" of France, discusses in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* the present state of the French army and tells how, in his opinion, the republic would meet the financial strain of a great war. Each individual in France, according to statistics, pays something like seventeen francs each year toward the upkeep of national defenses,—that is, the army and navy; but, he points out, there is no war chest, as there is in Germany, and if France went to war she would have to rely, in the first instance, on the Bank of France. So good has always been the credit of this national institution in the markets of the world that even in the darkest days of 1870 a French note was always worth its face value. Colonel de la Panouse considers that in these modern days no war can last for any considerable time; at least, he prudently adds, no war carried on in Europe itself. The battles of Gravelotte and of Sedan were awful in their slaughter, but the loss of life then was nothing to what it would be now. New engines of destruction are being invented every day, and the wars of the future will have a terrible effect on both vanquished and victor; the unready country, however glorious her past record, will have to take a lower place among the nations; not to her will be given the chance of recovering lost ground. If a country is to be ready to defend itself, every able man should be something of a soldier. He deprecates the modern theory, now rather gaining ground in France, that the army should be a thing apart from the nation at large.

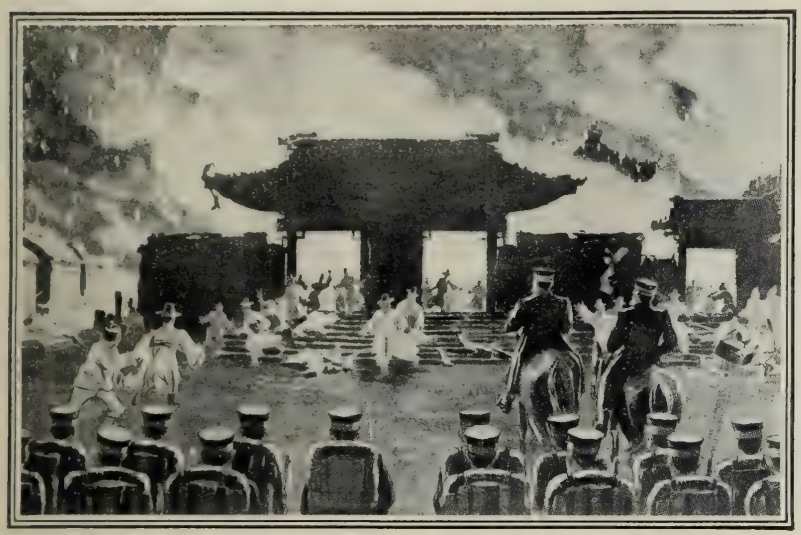
Political Australia and New Zealand.—A study of the political progress of Australia and New Zealand, in the *Revue Bleue*, by Albert Métin, traces the development of commercial and labor legislation in these British colonies, which, says this writer, are the paradise of the workingman. The logical result of almost all the legislation, he says, is to the disadvantage of the large landed proprietor, and in favor of the small proprietor. The Australians and New Zealanders have unusual political and practical sense, and "this has given to their political system a simplicity which Europe has never known." "In the Antipodes, politics are honest. The interests which inspire them are very often the general interests, and are eminently respectable. Politics are often elevated to the status of universal principles, with such men as M. P. Reeves, ex-minister of public works in New Zealand. . . . Their political ideas come to them ready-made from England in books and journals, and, by an extraordinary lack of logic, in these democratic and radical countries, it is not always the inspiration of the radical and democratic English minority which penetrates to the public sense, but often the conservative and Puritanical spirit of the Anglo-Saxon majority." From the standpoint of Puritanism and pietism, says this writer, New Zealand is to the British Empire what Boston is to the United States. M. Métin points out the fact that, while in Europe the Radicals and Socialists contend for commercial liberty, the Labor party in the Antipodes is strongly in favor of prohibitive and protective tariffs.

Would a Japanese Victory be a Loss to the World?—A French writer, Charles Depuis, declares, in the *Quinzaine*, that the triumph of Japan would work less harm to Russia than to the other powers who have interests in the far East. The armies of the Mikado, he declares, would not only have possession of the Manchurian frontier, but would menace the French possessions in Asia. On the other hand, he believes that a decisive victory for Russia would arouse the indignant and warlike passions of Great Britain.

A French Tribute to King Edward VII.—An anonymous character sketch of King Edward the Seventh of England appears in the *Revue de Paris*. This writer believes that King Edward is almost an ideal monarch, who has, he says, "conquered the world by the high distinction of his attitude, his affability, his simplicity, and his *bonhomie*. . . . He does not abuse the pen or the spoken word. What he says, he says with moderation, and his natural tact does not permit him to venture historical allusions which might wound. He is not, like most of his compatriots, ignorant of everything which is not English. He has few equals in diplomacy." According to this writer, it was the influ-

ence of King Edward which has brought about the better feeling between England and Ireland. It was he who succeeded in ending the Boer war; who is putting an end to colonial quarrels; who has brought about a *rapprochement* with France, and who may yet be mediator in the far-Eastern conflict.

Burning the Korean Imperial Palace.—The *Korea Review* (Seoul) has a graphic description of the burning of the royal palace on April 14. After the



BURNING OF THE PALACE OF THE EMPEROR OF KOREA.

(From a sketch by a Japanese artist—who witnessed the fire—in the Japanese *Graphic* of Tokio.)

Emperor had escaped, says the account, in the room occupied by his majesty there was a heavy chest containing a large amount of solid gold and silverware of various kinds. As soon as his majesty left the apartment, eight soldiers were detailed to bring out this chest, but their combined strength was inadequate to the demand, and it had to be left. After the fire, the *débris* was removed, and it was found, of course, that the gold and silver had melted and run in all directions, but the bullion was recovered. In an adjoining room was another case containing a large number of silver spoons and other implements. The cover of this was burned off and the contents partially melted.

Bold Thinking among Italian Catholics.—Two unusually frank articles on religious subjects appear in the Italian Catholic magazine, *Rassegna Nazionale* (Firenzi). One is on the Magi, pointing out how nothing is known of them save the very meager Gospel narrative, how in all human probability they remained pagans for the rest of their lives, and how, therefore, it is quite absurd to cultivate a devotion to them, whether as saints or martyrs, or to venerate their supposed bones, said to be preserved in a sarcophagus in the Church of Sant Eustorgio, at Milan, the authenticity of which could certainly never be established. In conclusion, the author, who signs himself "Filalete," protests energetically against a recent attempt that has been made to revive interest in so "obscure and dubious a legend" bequeathed to us by the credulity of the Middle Ages, and to treat it as of faith. Another noteworthy article, signed "A Curate," points out once again the futility of the papal *non expedit* in political affairs, asserting that it in no way prevents Catholics voting when they please, while it does prevent really good Catholic candidates from coming forward, and acts as a constant source of annoyance to men genuinely anxious to be loyal both to Church and State. He points out that all the political calculations on which the prohibition was founded have proved themselves false, and he therefore implores Pius X. to restore their political freedom to the Italian people.

French Influence in South America.—According to Ruben Dario, writing in *Quincena*, of Buenos Ayres, German influence in Latin America is practically *nil*, while the influence of France is constantly on the increase. Proofs of this can be found in the spread of the theories advanced by Comte, in which Mexico and Brazil are enthusiastic believers. Nietzsche has no followers. The mentality of the South Americans is not molded by Rome or Berlin, but by Paris; and the best writers of South America get their inspiration from French thought. It is only in Chile that the German spirit has made appreciable conquests.

Peace a Result of Empire.—A thought-provoking study, under the title "What Is Peace?" is contributed to the *Süddeutsche Monatshefte* (Munich) by Friedrich Naumann. Peace, says this writer, is merely the absence of war, which is the normal condition of mankind. The greater the preparation for war, the greater the likelihood of peace. Europe, he says, has peace, "in spite of all her cannon,—no, not in spite of her cannon, but because of them. If we look at the map of Europe during the Middle Ages and see all the blood and agony and oppression, and follow the many wars, we will find that centralized power makes for peace, and that the story of peace is the story of the concentration of sovereignty."

Gold Production and Speculation.—One of the authorities on finance in France, Marcel Labordère, analyzes, in the *Revue de Paris*, the relation between the production of gold and speculation. While the hope of riches through speculation on the Bourse is generally an illusory dream, he says, it is fundamentally human, and will no doubt always characterize the human race. He hopes that in the near future the civilized world will agree upon some other medium of exchange and standard of value than gold, the production of which is so uncertain and depends upon so many facts over which men cannot have any control.

French Schools in Morocco.—The conclusion of the Anglo-French treaty, which has practically settled all the points upon which these two nations have dif-



THE SCHOOL AT TANGIER, MOROCCO, TAUGHT BY MME. SAINT-RÉNÉ TAILLANDIER, WIFE OF THE FRENCH MINISTER.

fered during the past century, will have a stimulating effect on France's pacific conquest in Morocco. *L'Illustration* rejoices over the situation in Morocco, especially because, it says, now we have a "splendid opportunity to make the natives love France, and to advance, not only our political, but our moral and economic, preponderance." This journal describes the French school at Tangier, which is under the protection and patronage of the government of Morocco, and which is presided over by Mme. Saint-René Taillandier, the wife of the French minister. This school is largely attended by the native children, who first learn the French language and then the rudiments of all the practical studies.

A Spaniard on the Failure of Spain's Colonies.—A Spanish writer on politics and economics, Luis Manuel de Ferer, contributes to the *Revista Contemporánea* (Madrid) a detailed analysis of the colonial systems of the European nations and the United States, and reads a lesson to Spain in the success of other nations and in her own failure. He favors Spanish expansion into Africa.

French Peasant Property in Danger.—France is worrying over her peasant-property problem. The rapid increase in the number of large properties, and the disappearance of the peasant's farm, have dangers which seem immediate and far-reaching to Ludovic Contenson, writing in the *Revue de Paris*. The whole tendency of the times, this writer declares, is to aggregate land into large properties and force the peasants to become mere employees of the landed proprietors, thus destroying their independence as citizens. He offers no special plan for the solution of the difficulty, but declares that a terrible revolution may be the result of the constantly increasing influence and size of the landed properties.

Theology in the English Reviews.—Lloyd Morgan, writing in the *Contemporary Review* for June on Haeckel's "Riddle of the Universe," advises scientific inquirers to solve the riddle if they can, and to cherish their religious beliefs just in so far as they do not conflict with other beliefs, and, above all, just in so far as they appeal to their sense of value in the conduct of life.—In the *Nineteenth Century* for June, Mr. Richard Bagot, as a Roman Catholic, protests against the recent action of Pope Pius X. in regard to church music.—Writing in the *Hibbard Journal*, Prof. W. J. Brown declares that a loss of religious convictions has followed the acquirement of the new knowledge, and, still more, that of the new wealth and new pleasures. He says: "We have lost belief in rank, in the family, in nature, in the God of our fathers."—In the same periodical, Canon Henson argues that the resurrection of Jesus Christ was his survival of death in the fullness of personal life, but need not be bound up with the conflicting details of New Testament narrative. Sir Oliver Lodge discusses the question of the atonement.

"Mal de Terre."—*La Revue*, in a paragraph commenting on an article in the London *Lancet*, declares that "mal de terre," or land sickness, is as real a malady as the *mal de mer*. It designates a pathological condition of modern life, principally brought about by traveling in Pullman cars, and by other methods of transportation which cause an automatic movement of the muscles and a difficulty in preserving the equilibrium of the heavy organs. This sickness generally induces sleep, but a sleep which does not refresh. Very often this is caused by a sort of vertigo from looking at trees or telegraph poles along the route of a fast train. This condition is often made worse by reading.

The Mineral Wealth of Manchuria and Korea.—In a detailed study of the geological constitution and mineral resources of Manchuria and Korea, in the *Revue Scientifique*, Prof. L. Pérvinquiere, of the Sorbonne, declares that there are very rich petroleum veins in Manchuria. Coal, copper, and lead are also found, also some iron and gold, the latter in very rich deposits. Korea also contains oil springs, and a good quality of coal. Near Wonsan there are gold veins, and at Takusan there are several rich veins of hematite. It is only within the past decade that the mineral wealth of Manchuria and Korea have been extensively and systematically worked.

Will Germany Profit by the Far-Eastern War?—Writing from first-hand knowledge of the extreme Orient on the causes of the Russo-Japanese war, in the *Correspondant*, M. Chéradame declares that it is really "a German game." In the course of travels which took him to Washington, Tokio, Seoul, Port Arthur, and Peking, the writer heard everywhere, from innumerable independent authorities, that during the last few years agents of the German Government had done everything possible to engage Russia as much as possible in the far East,—done it none the less thoroughly because very discreetly. The most probable result he considers the victory of Russia. This will in every way favor Germany's designs. There will be practically no Russian fleet; the Baltic is now, and must remain for years yet, entirely at the mercy of the German navy; and Japan will not compensate Russia in any way for having to keep up an army of at least five hundred thousand in Asia, while exhausting her European garrisons. Therefore, while the war lasts, and the Russian forces are recuperating, it is really Germany who will become the arbiter of Europe. She saw this as a possibility, and therefore, says M. Chéradame, discreetly worked to bring about the war.

NEW BOOKS FOR SUMMER READING.

NOTES ON RECENT AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS.

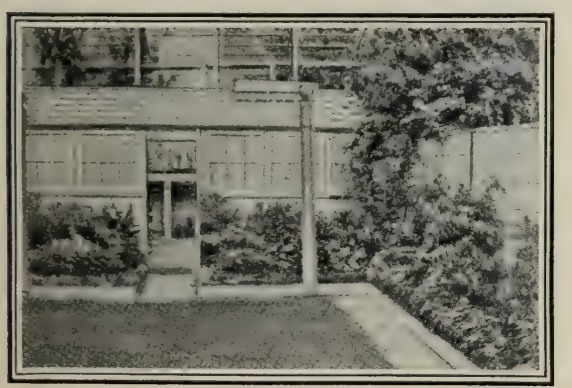


FRONTISPIECE (REDUCED) FROM "OUR MOUNTAIN GARDEN."

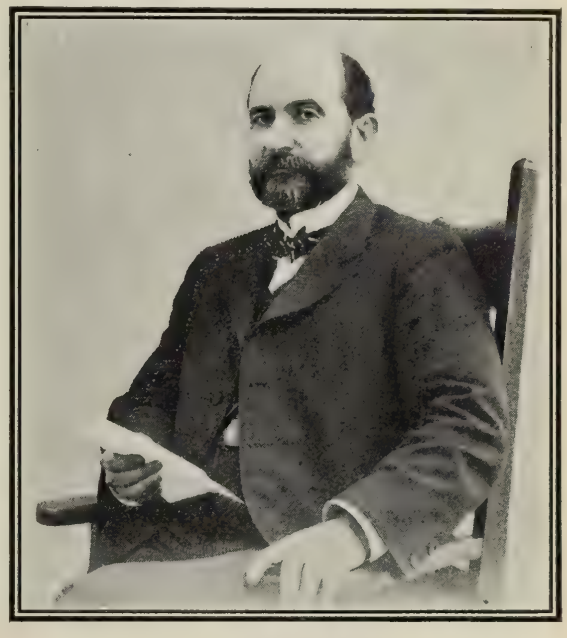
LIFE IN THE OPEN.

In this day of unending experiments with "abandoned farms," when the delights of rural life and the simple pleasures of husbandry are persistently proclaimed in the "best-selling" books and in countless magazines, it may be worth while to recall the fact that as many as fifteen years ago a city man who made his living by his pen fomented a revolt from the established order and betook himself to the country, there to live the Thoreau life, to a degree, and to demonstrate to a skeptical world the economic possibilities of such an existence. That venturesome pioneer was Philip G. Hubert, Jr., and the book that recorded his experiences was aptly entitled "Liberty and a Living" (Putnams); for it appeared that, besides liberty, there was actually a living in the country for at least one city man and his family, and a second edition of the work this year reiterates the discovery. It is a book that may renew hope in the breast of many a fagged-out city-dweller.

It is safe to say that the publication, last year, of "A Woman's Hardy Garden," by Mrs. Helena Rutherford Ely, was responsible for many more or less successful attempts to repeat her experiments in amateur gardening. The interest that was aroused by that book is likely to be still further stimulated by the unpretentious volume entitled "Our Mountain Garden" (Macmillan), in which Mrs. Theodore Thomas relates her experiences in naturalizing many varieties of American shrubs, vines, flowers, and weeds. Mr. and Mrs. Theodore Thomas have their summer home amid the mountains of New Hampshire, where they built their cottage and laid out the surrounding grounds, unhampered by any of the conventionalities. Any one at all interested in hardy gardening can profit by the experiences of Mrs. Thomas in dealing with New England plants, many of which are common throughout the Northern States.



A CITY BACK YARD.
(Illustration [reduced] from "Little Gardens.")



WILLIAM T. HORNADAY.

A book of suggestions to those whose efforts in gardening are restricted to city and suburban yards is Mr. Charles M. Skinner's "Little Gardens" (Appletons). The owner of a large estate will find little, perhaps, to interest him in this volume, but the family that must be content with a house-lot for its field of operations may be profitably guided by Mr. Skinner's practical hints, all of which are based on personal experience.

STUDIES OF ANIMAL LIFE.

A most satisfactory book from every point of view is "The American Natural History," by W. T. Hornaday, director of the New York Zoölogical Park (Scribners). Teachers and school officers will find that this book bridges the gap between the simple nature-study lessons of the common school and the technical zoölogy

taught in colleges. As a book of reference in the home and in the public library, it is especially useful, since both the text and illustrations are clearly printed and accurate.

"The Bird Paint Book," by William A. Selden (Akron, Ohio: Saalfield Pub. Co.), is an attractive arrangement of drawings of some of our best-known birds, with descriptive text. Children may employ their ingenuity in filling in these black-and-white sketches with colors.

Mr. Ralph Hoffman has prepared a comprehensive "Guide to the Birds of New England and Eastern New York." This volume contains a key for each season, with short descriptions of over two hundred and fifty species, with particular reference to their appearance in the field.

While the literature on American butterflies is regarded as a very rich one, it is said that comparatively few students know the subject thoroughly. Believing that this fact argues a lack of suitable aids to beginners in the study, Prof. John Henry Comstock and Anna Botsford Comstock, of Cornell University, have prepared a manual, "How to Know the Butterflies" (Appletons), in which they give brief descriptions of species and the more important facts of the lives of our butterflies. While it is intended that the work shall be of use to students in all parts of the country, the descriptions have been restricted, in the main, to those species that are to be found in the eastern half of the United States. Accompanying the text are forty-five full-page plates from life, reproducing the insects in natural colors, together with numerous smaller cuts.

The English naturalist, John J. Ward, in a volume entitled "Minute Marvels of Nature" (Crowell), introduces his readers to some of the wonders revealed by the microscope. The illustrations in the book are greatly magnified photographs, or photo-micrographs, in most cases made from the actual objects. The image of the new object, as seen by the eye when looking into a microscope, is projected directly on to a sensitive photographic plate, the camera occupying the position of the observer at the head of the microscope.

Another book of animal life, entitled "The Watchers of the Trails" (L. C. Page), has come from the pen of Charles G. D. Roberts. "The Kindred of the Wild" gave Mr. Roberts almost instant fame as an interpreter of animal life, and this latest volume, which is made up of a series of sketches which have already appeared in the magazines, sustains his reputation. They are all animal biographies, fascinatingly written. The book is finely illustrated by Charles Livingston Bull.

HUNTING BIG GAME.

An immense amount of helpful advice to deer-hunters is contained in Mr. Theodore S. Van Dyke's book called "The Still-Hunter," first published many years ago and now appearing in a new illustrated edition (Macmillan). Mr. Van Dyke tells us that he gained his experience in hunting deer made extremely wild from continuous still-hunting by Indians, wolves, and a few white hunters who paid no attention to the law. Some of his descriptions of the habits of the deer, therefore, would not apply to deer that have been made tame by the extremely short open season and the fact that people frequently camp on their range without harming them. Skilled hunters, however, always value caution, and many of the suggestions given in Mr. Van Dyke's book, especially in his pictures, are likely to prove of value.

In the "American Sportsman's Library" (Macmillan), the musk-ox and his ways are described by Caspar Whitney, the bison by George Bird Grinnell, and the mountain sheep and the white goat by Owen Wister. Mr. Whitney's account of the musk-ox is needed, since so little opportunity has been given to Americans to become acquainted with the distinctive habits of this animal. The only two specimens which have been brought alive in captivity into North America died within a few months. The range of the musk-ox is confined to Arctic America, approximately north and east of a line drawn from the Mackenzie River to Fort Churchill, on Hudson Bay, Greenland, and Grinnell Land, in latitude 30° 27′. The bison was, of course, far better known to Americans, although now all but extinct, and it is well to have Mr. Grinnell's description of this former "monarch of the plains" to go on record. Mountain sheep and the white goat are as little known as the buffalo to residents of our Eastern States. Mr. Owen Wister gives an interesting account of their prominent characteristics.

OTHER OUTDOOR SPORTS.

Of all American sports, none is more wholesome or exhilarating than yachting. The history of the sport as conducted by successive generations of American yachtsmen is creditable alike to Yankee seamanship and to the Yankee spirit of fair play in international competitions. The volume on "American Yachting," by W. P. Stephens, in the "American Sportsman's Library" (Macmillan), is a record of progress and achievement of which Americans may well be proud. The impetus given to yacht-designing both here and in England by the *America's* victory of 1851 marked the beginning of notable advances in that science,—for it is a science,—and the improvements that have followed one upon another in the past half-century are so clearly described by Mr. Stephens that even the lay mind can grasp their significance.

One of the outdoor games that America and England enjoy in common, with perhaps equal zest, notwithstanding an occasional lapse of interest, is lawn tennis. At the present time, the tennis champions of England, if not of the world, are Messrs. R. F. and H. L. Doherty. What these English youths have to say about methods



Copyright, 1903, Baker & Taylor Company.

THE BROTHERS R. F. AND H. L. DOHERTY.

(Frontispiece [reduced] from "R. F. and H. L. Doherty on Lawn Tennis.")



GENEVIEVE HECKER.

(Frontispiece [reduced] from "Golf for Women.")

of play, together with much detailed information as to records and championships, is embodied in a compact volume published by the Baker & Taylor Company. The same publishers have brought out "Golf for Women," by Genevieve Hecker (Mrs. Charles T. Stout), who was the American woman champion of the game in the years 1901–02 and 1902–03. In the same volume is included a chapter entitled "Impressions of American Golf," by Miss Rhona K. Adair, the English and Irish champion. Women golf-players, whether beginners or experts, will find in this book a concise and lucid presentation of the subject from a point of view distinctly feminine.

"Physical Training for Women by Japanese Methods," by H. Irving Hancock (Putnams), describes the jiu-jitsu, which has been usually regarded as a system of tricks to be employed in attack and defense, but which really includes, as Mr. Hancock shows, a whole science of health and physical vigor. American women can make good use of many of the suggestions contained in this book, even if they do not at once adopt in its entirety the scheme of training followed with such good results by their Japanese sisters.

About everything having to do with collegiate athletics that the aspirant for honors in that field would expect to find in a book is embodied in Mr. Ralph Henry Barbour's "Book of School and College Sports" (Appletons), which contains chapters on football, baseball, lacrosse, ice hockey, lawn tennis, and track and field athletics, with the American school and college records in these various sports, and the playing rules of all of them. The pictures, which are reproductions of photographs, are excellent.

TRAVEL AND DESCRIPTION.

An informing book with a happy title is "The Mystic Mid-Region" (Putnams), by Arthur J. Burdick. It is remarkable how much of interest and charm can be found in such a forbidding subject as a desert. This book is a study of the deserts of the American Southwest, appropriately illustrated. The story of Death Valley forms one of the most interesting chapters in the book.

The first sovereign to make a complete tour around the world was King Kalakaua I. of the Hawaiian Islands. William H. Armstrong, a member of the cabinet of this last King of Hawaii, has recounted the story of this trip in a volume entitled "Around the World with a King" (Stokes). This work is copiously illustrated with portraits of many of the great men and women of the earth who met the Hawaiian monarch, but who are now no more.

One of the Methodist presiding elders of the Manila district, Rev. Homer C. Stuntz, has written a book on our Pacific possessions under the title "The Philippines and the Far East" (Jennings & Pye). Mr. Stuntz has laid down what he believes American Christian voters ought to know for their guidance in acting wisely when questions concerning the far East come up for settlement. The book is fully illustrated.

The latest volume in the series "Our European Neighbors" has appeared, under the title "Belgian Life in Town and Country" (Putnams), by Demetrius C. Boulger. This writer has a good, swinging style, and his text is packed full of information. Particularly interesting is his chapter on the two races of Belgium. The book is well illustrated.

ESSAYS AND MISCELLANY.

Josephine Dodge Daskam's latest baby book, "The Memoirs of a Baby" (Harpers), is longer than usual, but just as fascinating as the others. It is the story of the development of a boy baby whose mother refuses to heed the advice of a good aunt with a penchant for relying on the *Young Mother*, a useful periodical devoted to bringing up children.

A certain corner from which "the sky in its beauty seems so much nearer than the street,"—this is the "Old Maid's Corner" (Century Co.), in which Lillie Hamilton French finds a great deal of philosophy and quaint poetic wisdom. The particular "old maid" in question is a delightful soul whose kindly ideal is of the Ike Marvel order. She is indeed one of Mark Twain's "unappropriated blessings."

"When a Maid Marries," she sometimes has quite a number of cares and perplexities mingled with her loves and joys. Lavinia Hart, in a book with these words for a title (Dodd, Mead), has some good things to say,—old, old, well-known things, but she says them in a bright, readable way.



JOSEPHINE DODGE DASKAM.

"Cheer Up and Seven Other Things" is a little collection of wise sayings about advertising, by Charles Austin Bates,—which are true, by the way, of life in general as well as of publicity methods. No wonder Mr. Bates has succeeded.

Another book on the advertisers' art,—a manual of the art, indeed,—is J. Angus MacDonald's "Successful Advertising: How to Accomplish It" (Philadelphia: Lincoln Publishing Company). The whole field is covered in this book.

"Overtones" (Scribners) is what its author, Mr. James Huneker, calls "a book of temperaments." In his usual vigorous, pyrotechnic style, Mr. Huneker considers Richard Strauss, "Parsifal," Nietzsche, "Literary Men Who Loved Music," "Anarchs of Art," Flaubert, Verdi, and Bóito, "The Eternal Feminine," and "After Wagner—What?" Mr. Huneker thinks that "Parsifal" has been overestimated, but lays a loving tribute at the feet of Richard Strauss, whom he calls "a music-maker

of individual style, and a supreme master of the orchestra."

A little volume of essays, under the general title "The Double Garden" (Dodd, Mead), by Maurice Maeterlinck, has just appeared. There are not many good essay-writers, but this Belgian author is certainly one. His style is a delight. Among these essays, the one on "Sincerity" is especially good. The essays appeared in a number of English and American periodicals. The entire translation has been done by Alexander T. de Mattos.

We now have a sequel to Booker T. Washington's "Up From Slavery." The result of Mr. Washington's experiences in the value of industrial training, and the methods employed to develop it at Tuskegee, are embodied in his latest book, "Working with the Hands" (Doubleday, Page). This story is told with the directness, simplicity, and force of all this author's other writings, and the book is well illustrated from photographs.

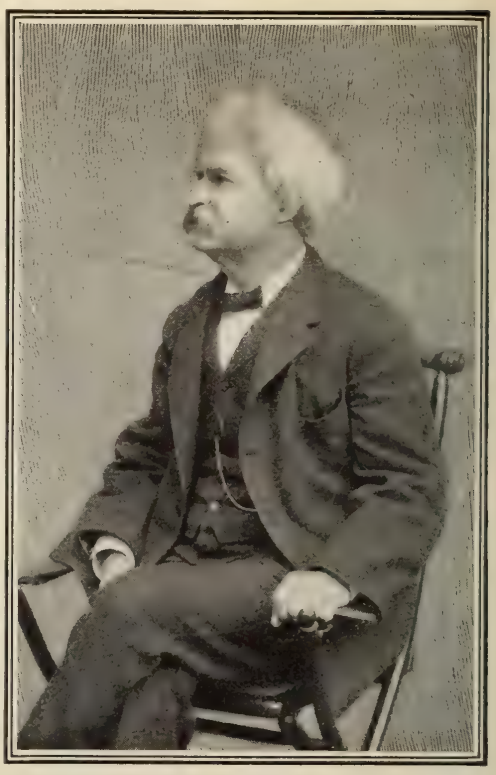
The Second Reader of the Standard Series has been issued by Funk & Wagnalls Company. It is a handsome little volume, with some accurately colored illustrations of plants and animals. Like the First Reader of the series, it introduces the child to a noble range of social and ethical ideas. This reader has been edited by Dr. I. K. Funk and Mr. Montrose J. Moses.

Ferdinand E. A. Gasc's "Concise Dictionary of the French and English Languages" (Holt) is very compact and convenient without sacrificing anything (so far as some detailed examination can show) of accuracy and fullness. The typography is excellent.

"My Airship" (Century Company), by Albertos Santos-Dumont, is an unusually interesting and simply told account of an earnest, brave man's struggle against incredulity and obstacles to solve the problem of aërial navigation. In 1901, Albertos Santos-Dumont, a comparatively unknown Brazilian, won the Deutsch prize of twenty thousand dollars for successful navigation of the air. He will try again at the St. Louis Exposition, this year. This book is a description of his trials, successes, and failures. It is evident that Mr. Santos-Dumont takes his successes in the spirit of a true scientist. He says it is only the beginning of greater things. The volume is helpfully illustrated with reproductions of photographs and diagrams. Mr. Santos-Dumont is still a young man, and will certainly make other discoveries in aërial navigation; at least, he will have the satisfaction of reflecting more glory on his native country than perhaps any man of whom the rest of the world has heard. He believes that the problem will be solved, not, as heretofore supposed, by imitating nature in the flight of birds, but by going contrary to her precepts. Man, he says, has never accomplished anything worth having except by combating nature.



ALBERTOS SANTOS-DUMONT.



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MARK TWAIN.

(From a photograph recently taken in Italy.)

WIT AND HUMOR.

That eminent archæologist, Mark Twain, having exhumed the tablets on which our common ancestor, Adam, had engraved his memoirs for the benefit of a somewhat numerous progeny, now presents a faithful translation of "Extracts from Adam's Diary" (Harpers). The hieroglyphics thus far deciphered record some of Adam's early experiences, the departure from Eden, and the arrival of Cain and Abel.

Faithful readers of Mr. John Kendrick Bangs have long been interested in the sayings of "The Idiot." In "The Inventions of the Idiot" (Harpers) we are let into some of the ways and means devised by that worthy for the amelioration of humanity's ills and discussed with the other boarders at Mrs. Smithers-Pedagog's High-Class Home for Single Gentlemen.

"Eppy Grams by Dinkelspiel," per George V. Hobart (Dillingham), is a collection of maxims in droll German-English vernacular by a well-known newspaper writer.

THE SEASON'S NOVELS.

NEW AMERICAN HISTORICAL FICTION.

MR. WINSTON CHURCHILL'S new novel, "The Crossing" (Macmillan), will be measured by various standards, according to the varied points of view of its readers and critics; but we wonder whether it has occurred to anybody to estimate its educational possibilities. Here is the medium through which thousands of Americans will learn about all that they will ever know concerning the beginnings of the great movement of population across the Alleghanies during and after the Revolution which later made the whole continent its field and fixed forever the destiny of the Mississippi Valley and the vast domain to the west. What migration in all history has been more significant than this? And yet, if we except President Roosevelt's "Winning of the West" and a few volumes known to the scholars rather than to the general public, the subject has been practically ignored in the histories. In the States that were given to the Union by the Revolutionary victories of George Rogers Clark, many a boy has grown to manhood without any definite knowledge as to the impelling cause of this great wave of Western settlement or of the motives that actuated the settlers. "The Crossing" is one of the series of stories which Mr. Churchill planned some years ago,—before the "historical novel" had become a fad. These epoch-tales began with "Richard Carvel," which dealt with the Revolution. In the order of time, "The Crossing" comes second in the series. "The Crisis" covered the period of the Civil War, while the first half of the nineteenth century remains an unfilled gap. In "The Crossing," the hero is David Ritchie, whose autobiography makes up the story. David was the drummer-boy in Clark's successful expedition against Vincennes, in 1779, which resulted in the winning of the present States of Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois for the Colonies, and he lived to see the Stars and Stripes float over St. Louis and the Territory of Louisiana. In his career is typified the resistless advance of the English and the Scotch-Irish stock across the mountains and down the fertile valleys leading to the Father of Waters. The story is well told. There is a dignity in its movement that befits so weighty a theme, and a skill of expression that transmutes the thoughts of a bygone age into an effective English of to-day. To read "The Crossing" is to make one's self master of the most dramatic period in American history.



WINSTON CHURCHILL.

"When Wilderness Was King" (McClurg), by Randall Parrish, is a tale of the Illinois country, illustrated in colors. It is a typical story of the West, with a Cooperesque swing to the interest and style. The famous Fort Dearborn massacre is the climax of this good love-story.

The central point of Eden Philpotts' new romance, "The American Prisoner" (Macmillan), is the great war prison in the "West Country" of England, where many French and Americans, taken during the Napoleonic and 1812 wars, were detained. It is a story of mysteries and perils, through which the reader is piloted by the sure hand and delicate touch of Mr. Philpotts. There is a fineness and nobility about the characters which remain in the memory.



CAROLINE ABBOT STANLEY.

The old-time Virginia family,—how we all love it! Caroline Abbot Stanley has given us still another picture of it in the proper setting of self-sacrifice, devotion, and domestic happiness in her "Order No. 11" (Century Company). Mrs. Stanley has lived in the region she writes about and knows her background thoroughly.

The third in Mr. George Cary Eggleston's series of Virginia stories,—"Evelyn Byrd" (Lothrop),—deals with the last stage of the Civil War. It will be remembered that in "Dorothy South" Mr. Eggleston pictured the *ante-bellum* Virginia, while in "The Master of Warlock" the Virginians appear in the flush of their early successes on the battlefield, when their hope of victory was strong and justified by achievement. In "Evelyn Byrd" we are brought face to face with the desperation of the "Lost Cause," but the valorous qualities of the people are the more resplendent in this final stand of the Confederacy. Mr. Eggleston knows his Virginians; only one to the manner born could depict so accurately the pride, the nobility, and the chivalry, in victory and defeat, of a race that freely poured out its life-blood in leading the Confederacy's forlorn hope.



ILLUSTRATION (REDUCED) FROM "EVELYN BYRD."

The scenes of several Civil War stories are laid in Tennessee, that borderland of the Confederacy where families were divided between the two armies, but in general the writers have been Northerners. A view of



MAURICE HEWLETT.

the conflict from the Southern side of the line is presented by Joel Chandler Harris in "A Little Union Scout" (McClure, Phillips & Co.). The little scout, it is almost needless to say, turns out to have been a young woman, who acted as a spy, with a Confederate officer for a lover. General Forrest, the Confederate cavalry commander, has a leading part in the tale. The story is interesting in itself, as well as for the sidelights that it throws on conditions in the Southern army.



GEORGE MORGAN.

Another book has been added to the long list of fiction having the Civil War for a background, by George Morgan, in his new story, "The Issue" (Lippincott). Some new and interesting aspects of the conditions in Virginia just prior to the opening of hostilities are presented, woven in with a good war-story.

STORIES OF TIMES LONG GONE BY.

All the fascination of the Scandinavian spirit, the Vikings, the long-haired princesses, the lonely castles, and the great sea voyages,—not forgetting the great sea fights,—have been gathered into a setting, by M. E. Henry-Ruffin, for a story entitled "The North Star" (Little, Brown). This tale of Norway in the tenth century is really a chronicle of the life and love of Olaf Tryggevesson, whom Carlyle called "the wildly beautiful man in body and in soul that one has ever heard of in the north."

There is a lavishness of excitement and adventure in John P. Carling's new novel, "The Viking's Skull" (Little, Brown). It is strange how many anachronisms we will pardon in an author if he only entertain us with a good story of action. The transferring of modern people several centuries backward, or the bringing of the worthies of the times of the Crusades into 1904, are not new expedients in novels; but somehow, no matter how improbable, a well-told story is always entertaining.

It is one of the good points of the novel that, if the writer is only careful and informed, he can tell his readers a great many useful things while he is entertaining them. It is probable that Mr. Waldo H. Dunn knows a great deal about the mound-builders, which he believes the great reading public ought also to know; and while, in his novel "The Vanished Empire" (Robert Clarke Company), he may not have made a great story, he has certainly told us a great deal about those mysterious first inhabitants of the American continent. The traditions, religion, daily life, and final destruction of the mound-builders are clustered around a story of love and adventure.



COVER DESIGN (REDUCED).

Those who enjoy romances of the Middle Ages will find "The Sign of Triumph" (L. C. Page), by Sheppard Stevens, worth reading. It seems rather odd that the movement known as the "children's crusade," which lost to Europe one hundred thousand children, had never been used as the theme for an historical romance until Mr. Stevens thought of the idea. There is not too much history, but you have the beautiful lady, the great castle, the brave soldiers, innocent children, and all the rest of the paraphernalia which go to make up the equipment of a good story-teller. There are some good pictures.



EZRA BRUDNO.
(Author of "The Fugitive.")

Mr. Samuel M. Gardenhire has done a venturesome thing in writing "Lux Crucis" (Harpers), another story of the time of Nero; but he has done it really quite well. His plot is a rather involved one, but the main features are the love of a Roman patrician officer for a



STEWART EDWARD WHITE.

(Author of "The Silent Places.")

poor Christian girl. Some of the descriptive bits are excellent, particularly that of the fight in the training-school for gladiators. One of the great characters of the book is the Apostle Paul.

"The Villa Claudia" (Life Publishing Company), by John Ames Mitchell, is a rather entertaining medley of antiquity and modernity, bound together with a thread of story and a good deal of sentiment and humor. The scene of the story is in a modern villa, in a town in which the jolly old Latin poet Horace had his celebrated Sabine farm. There are copious quotations from the classics; but the spirit of the theme is modern, and the characters are mostly Americans of 1904.

"The Yoke," a story of the Exodus, by Elizabeth Miller (Bobbs-Merrill), is one of the new books which will be widely read. With erudition and familiarity with Egyptology which often suggest Ebers and Kingsley, Miss Miller has written a very readable novel, in which some highly dramatic incidents turn upon the plagues of Egypt, and in which a few thoroughly fine characters are depicted. The element of the miraculous, which necessarily enters largely into the book, is handled with skill.

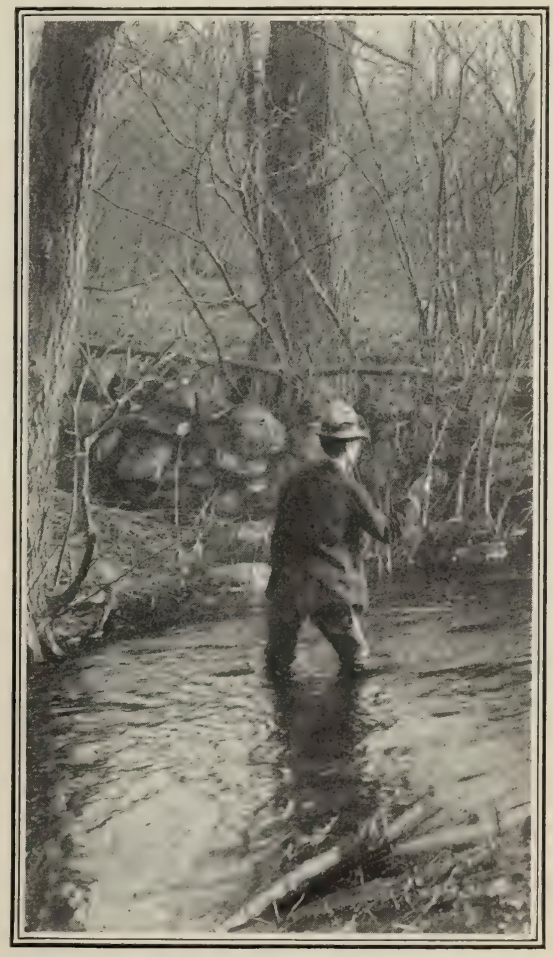
A story of the destruction of Jerusalem by Sennacherib is the subject of "In Assyrian Tents," by Louis Pendleton (published by the Jewish Publication Society).

"The Queen's Quair" (Macmillan), by Maurice Hewlett, is the love-story of that most fascinating of women, Mary Queen of Scots. The "quair" is a little book; and this little book is the story of plot, intrigue, and love, through which walks that magnetic, passionate, and very human woman.

"The Castaway" (Bobbs-Merrill), by Hallie Erminie Rives, is the story of the loves of George Gordon, Lord Byron, written with all the swing and passion which characterizes novels by this author,—in this instance very happily appropriate. Of excitement there is almost a plethora,—"three great men ruined in one year, a king, a cad, and a castaway." Howard Chandler Christy has made the pictures.

STORIES OF LOCALITY.

Another autobiographical novel, which is throbbing with humanity, intense with dramatic and tragic incident, is "The Fugitive" (Doubleday, Page), by Ezra S. Brudno. "The Fugitive" is a story of Russian oppression of the Jew, by a Lithuanian Hebrew who himself has felt the sting of the oppressor's lash. Mr. Brudno is a graduate of Yale, and wields a powerful pen. His book, he himself says, is an endeavor to interpret the new Jew in America by "an American citizen born in Russia."



HENRY WYSHAM LANIER.

(Author of "The Romance of Piscator.")



MARGERY WILLIAMS.
(Author of "The Price of Youth.")

The deserts of Egypt are not without attractions for the story-writer seeking new fields to exploit; certainly, the element of "local color" is not wanting. Mr. C. Bryson Taylor, under the title "In the Dwellings of the Wilderness" (Holt), records the adventures of three American engineers who set out to make excavations in one of those deserts. Even the Sudan has been laid under tribute by the novelists. Florence Brook Whitehouse has written a romance of that region entitled "The Effendi" (Little, Brown), which deals with the siege of Khartum and the death of its hero, the famous Chinese Gordon. The epilogue recounts England's retribution upon the Arab hordes.

"The Silent Places," by Stewart Edward White (McClure, Phillips), is a strong story of a man-hunt through the forests of Canada. It is full of action, impressiveness, and power, and the strange love of the Indian girl for the white man is well handled. "The Silent Places" is an excellent successor to "The Blazed Trail."



MRS. E. L. VOYNICH.
(Author of "Olive Latham.")

A "vague tale" of the justice of the East, full of the loves of women and the jealousies, grim jestings, treasons, and fightings of men, and, at the same time, the hermits, ascetics, and mortifiers of the flesh, —such is Margaret Horton Potter's "Flame Gatherers" (Macmillan). It is a love-story of old Hindustan and of Indian transcendentalism, well told and well sustained.

While Jack London was on the Klondike trail, his first inspiration to write came, and it has not failed him in his latest book, "The Faith of Men" (Macmillan), which is a collection of stories about the Alaskan natives and the Eskimos. There are eight stories in the collection, most of them told with that virility and art which Mr. London showed in his "Call of the Wild."

OUT-OF-DOOR STORIES.

In Miss Sherwood's new book, "Daphne: An Autumn Pastoral" (Houghton, Mifflin), we have a most delightfully refreshing story. In addition to a charming love-story of a young Italian for an American girl, Miss Sherwood has given us some rare descriptions of Italian peasant scenes, and some graphic pictures of Italian woods, mountains, and sunsets.

In his latest story, "The Commuters" (J. F. Taylor), Albert Bigelow Paine has shown how "the little woman and the precious ones" helped to build a home in the country. There is some delicious humor in the book, and the incidents are true to life. It is well illustrated.

Lighter fiction adapted to the season's mood is by no means lacking. In "The Romance of Piscator" (Holt), Mr. Henry Wysham Lanier makes a fetching appeal to "every one who has hearkened to the siren song of the reel." But trout and landlocked salmon are not permitted to monopolize the reader's attention, any more than they monopolized Piscator's; for there is a Peri in the tale, and hence, it goes without saying, the complications needed to make a story.



"JOHN STRANGE WINTER."

Dr. Henry C. Rowland's story, "To Windward" (A. S. Barnes & Co.), is a "first novel," although the forceful young writer had done a number of excellent short stories for the magazines. The present work is in part a tale of the sea, in part the narrative of a surgeon's life in New York. Freshness, vigor, and dramatic interest are the predominant qualities in Dr. Rowland's writing.

"The House in the Woods," by Arthur Henry (A. S. Barnes & Co.), like Mr. Hubert's "Liberty and a Living" and other books of that class, makes its appeal primarily to those who are wearied with the artificialities of existence and ready to listen to the gospel of country life.

STORIES OF JAPANESE LIFE.

In the lull after the flood of descriptive and historical books about Japan, which began with the opening of the war, a number of novels about Japanese life, by native and other authors, are coming from the press. An interesting and quaint picture of the upper-class life in Japan, through which is woven a story illustrating the great struggle going on between feudal and modern ideas, is "Nami-Ko," by Kenjiro-Tokutomi (Boston: Herbert B. Turner). This realistic novel has no less lofty an aim than that of doing for Japan's slavery of women what



SAKAE SHIOYA.

"Uncle Tom's Cabin" did for black slavery. It is translated by Sakae Shioya and E. F. Edgett. The story moves briskly, and presents some well-put descriptions of scenery and a fine running account of the Chinese-Japanese battle of the Yalu, in 1894. Kenjiro-Tokutomi is one of the best known of modern Japanese novelists.

Onoto Watanna has added another clever Japanese novel to her popular stories, "Wooing of Wistaria" and "A Japanese Nightingale." Her latest novel, "Daughters of Nijo" (Macmillan), has the proper admixture of the change of children, the high-born lover of the peasant maid, and the love of the princess for one not of royal blood. The "Daughters of Nijo" would make an excellent vacation novel. It is a pure love-story, and presents the softer side of Japan.



MIRIAM MICHELSON.
(Author of "In the Bishop's Carriage.")

There is certainly enough action and "atmosphere" in Mrs. Hugh Fraser's novel "The Stolen Emperor" (Dodd, Mead). It is a rattling good story.

A LOVE-STORY OF RURAL ENGLAND.

A love-story of rural England with an interest almost evenly balanced between humor and tragedy,—a really absorbing story,—is "Petronilla Heroven" (Doubleday, Page), by Una L. Silberrod, a young English novelist who is making a reputation for power and keenness of analysis. There is real charm in the style.

THREE SCOTCH TALES.

"Wee Macgreggor" was so quaint, so humorous, so Scotch, that it is a pleasure to welcome some of his later adventures, which the author has given us under the title "Later Adventures of Wee Macgreggor" (Harpers). The little Glasgow boy is himself all through this second volume. "Mrs. M'Lerie" (Century Co.), a later creation of Mr. Bell, is likely to become a popular talked-of character in much the same way. Mrs. M'Lerie is inclined to be talkative, and she has a twist in her phrases which is like Mrs. Partington, and yet quite her own good Scotch.

That fine Scotch story-teller, S. R. Crockett, has given us another excellent novel in "Strong Mac" (Dodd, Mead). This story contains all the love, mystery, and tragedy which is necessary to a real good Scotch story.

A COUPLE OF POLITICAL NOVELS.

A novel of Canadian political life, full of economic and political discussions which are sometimes tedious, and of character-description which is good,—such is Sara Jeannette Duncan's latest story, "The Imperialist" (Appletons). We do not remember ever seeing a Canadian election treated so informingly.



MRS. JOHN VAN VORST.
(Author of "The Issues of Life.")

The author of "The Gadfly," Mrs. E. L. Voynich, has written a new novel entitled "Olive Latham" (Lippincott). This is a dramatic love-story of Russia, — of Nihilism, love, and politics. The character-painting is uncommonly strong, but there is so much insistence on the cruelty and hatred of life that the heart is repelled from what is admired as an intellectual creation. Mrs. Voynich says she spent fourteen years preparing to write this novel.

SOME "NOVELS WITH A PURPOSE" AND OTHERS WITH NONE.

We seem to see an old friend in a novel by John Strange Winter. The fascination of "Bootle's Baby" appears again in the latest novel of this author, "Cherry's Child" (Lippincott). Cherry's child is so very human that we cannot help loving her.

Margery Williams writes with a steady hand. Her "Price of Youth" (Macmillan) is a story about the backwoods of New Jersey and life close to nature, with a good deal of keen character-dissection in it. More, it is a story of humanity.

Maarten Maartens has a faculty of putting dashes of color on the canvases of his novels in a way quite his own. His latest story, "Dorothea" (Appletons), is "a story of the pure in heart." It is essentially European in atmosphere, and yet fundamentally human. Maartens is certainly a great word artist, and this book will maintain the reputation he acquired as the author of "God's Fool."



MELVIN L. SEVERY.
(Author of "The Darrow Enigma.")

The first chapter of "In the Bishop's Carriage" (Bobbs - Merrill), by Miriam Michelson, appeared as a short story in one of the magazines. It was so successful that the author enlarged it to its present form, in which it makes capital reading.

King Sylvain and Queen Aimée, of different countries, having grown tired of the hollowness which fills the life of a monarch, and, moreover, being in love with each other, run away together. Their adventures are told in quaint, pretty style by Margaret Sherwood, in "The Story of King Sylvain and Queen Aimée" (Macmillan).

Robert Shackleton has written a novel, "The Great Adventurer" (Doubleday, Page), in which there is both the glare of Madison Square and the dimness of a monastery; a clergyman and a thief; palaces and shabby boarding-houses; the biggest trust,—love and divorce.

It is to be doubted if two young ladies ever lived through more startling adventures than did Anna and Annabel in "Anna the Adventuress," by E. Phillips Oppenheim (Little, Brown). Although the characters do most unconventional things, and although Mr. Oppenheim's style is far from elegant, his ability to tell a good story makes one overlook these crudities.

Mrs. John Van Vorst, author of "The Woman Who Toils," has followed up her study with a realistic "race suicide" novel entitled "The Issues of Life" (Doubleday, Page), which cuts down to the bone of the contention and finds—among other things—woman's clubs and club women. The reader feels in this book the grip of a certain knowledge which can only have come from actual experience with conditions.

A capital "detective story" is Mr. Melvin L. Severy's "The Darrow Enigma" (Dodd, Mead). In the working out of his plot, the author displays great skill by repeatedly leading the reader off on false scents, so that the final revelation of the villain of the piece is a complete surprise.

NOVELS OF THE MONTH.

Adventurer in Spain, The. By S. R. Crockett. Stokes.
Aladdin & Co. By Herbert Quick. Henry Holt.
Alicia. By Albert A. Hartzell. Revere Pub. Co.
All's Fair in Love. By Josephine Sawyer. Dodd, Mead.
At the Big House. By Anna Culbertson. Bobbs-Merrill.
Autobiography of a Beggar, The. By I. K. Friedman. Small, Maynard & Co.
Bachelor in Arcady, A. By Halliwell Sutcliffe. T.Y.Crowell.
Baronet in Corduroy, The. By Albert Lee. Appletons.
Barrier, The. By Allen French. Doubleday, Page.
Black Familiars, The. By L. B. Walford. Longmans.
Bruvver Jim's Baby. By Philip Verrill Mighels. Harpers.
By the Good Sainte Anne. By Anna Chapin Ray. Little, Brown.
Cadets of Gascony. By Burton E. Stevenson. Lippincott.
Cap'n Enri. By Joseph C. Lincoln. Barnes.
Captain's Daughter, The. By Gwendolen Overton. Macmillan.
Captured by the Navajos. By Captain Charles A. Curtis, U.S.A. Harpers.
Congressman's Wife, The. By John D. Barry. Smart Set.
Corner in Coffee, The. By Cyrus Townsend. Dillingham.
Cost, The. By David Graham Phillips. Bobbs-Merrill.
Court of Sacharissa, The. By Hugh Sheringham and Nevill Meakin. Macmillan.
Day Before Yesterday. By S. A. Shafer. Macmillan.
Dayspring, The. By Dr. William Barry. Dodd, Mead.
Descent of Man, The. By Edith Wharton. Scribners.
Desire. By Charlotte Eaton. Dillingham.
Forward. By Line Boegli. Lippincott.
French Wife, The. By Katherine Tynan. Lippincott.
Gates of Chance, The. By Van Tassel Sutphen. Harpers.
Gingham Rose, A. By Alice Woods-Ullman. Bobbs-Merrill.
Governor's Wife, The. By Mathilda Malling. Thomas M. St. John.
Grafters, The. By Francis L. Lynde. Bobbs-Merrill.
Heart of Lynn. By Mary Stewart Cutting. Lippincott.
Hercules Carlson. By Alice McAlilly. Jennings & Pye.
Her Infinite Variety. By Brand Whitlock. Bobbs-Merrill.
Her Realm. By Ella Perry Price. Jennings & Pye.
Homebuilders, The. By Karl Edwin Harriman.
Horse-Leech's Daughters, The. By Margaret Doyle Jackson.
Huldah. By Alice Macgowan and Grace Macgowan Cooke. Bobbs-Merrill.
I: In Which a Woman Tells the Truth About Herself. Appletons.
In Old Alabama. By Anne Hobson. Doubleday, Page.
In Search of the Unknown. By R. W. Chambers. Harpers.
In the Red Hills. By Elliott McCants. Doubleday, Page.
Jack Barnaby. By Henry James Rogers. Dillingham.
Jewel of the Seven Stars, The. By Bram Stoker. Harpers.
Joan of the Alley. By Frederick Orin Bartlett. Houghton.
Johnnie. By E. O. Laughlin. Bobbs-Merrill.
K. K. K., The. By C. W. Tyler. North River Pub. House.
Knight of Columbia. By General Charles King. The Hobart Co.
Left in Charge. By Clara Morris. Dillingham.
Lizette. By Edward Marshall. Lewis Scribner & Co.
Love Among the Ruins. By Warwick Deeping. Macmillan.
Love's Proxy. By Richard Bagot. Longmans.
Lynchgate Hall. By M. E. Francis. Longmans.
Magic Mantle, The. By Stephen Jackson. M. S. Greene.
Merry Hearts. By Anne Story Allen. Henry Holt.
Micmac, The. By S. Carleton. Henry Holt.
Middle Wall, The. By Edward Marshall. Dillingham.
Modern Arms and a Feudal Throne. By T. Milner Harrison. R. F. Fenno.
"My Li'l' Angelo." By Anna Yeaman Condict. Appletons.
Nancy Stair. By Elinor Macartney Lane. Appletons.
Nature's Comedian. By W. E. Norris. Appletons.
Other Side of the Story, The. By Leslie Derville.
Peril of the Sword. By A. F. P. Harcourt. H. M. Caldwell.
Port Argent. By Arthur Colton. Henry Holt.
Quintus Oakes. By Charles Ross Jackson. Dillingham.
Rainbow Chasers, The. By John M. Whitson. Little, Brown.
Red-Head. By John Uri Lloyd. Dodd, Mead.
Richard Gresham. By Robert M. Lovett. Macmillan.
Robert Cavelier. By William Dana Orcutt. McClurg.
Rulers of Kings. By Gertrude Atherton. Harpers.
Seeking the Kingdom. By E. E. Day. Macmillan.
Shipmates in Sunshine. By F. Frankfort Moore. Appletons.
Shutters of Silence, The. By G. B. Burgin. Smart Set.
Singoalla (Victor Rydberg's). The Grafton Press.
Singular Miss Smith, The. By F. M. Kingsley. Macmillan.
Son of Destiny, A. By Mary C. Francis. Federal Book Co.
Son of Light Horse Harry, The. By James Barnes. Harpers.
Spirit of the Service, The. By Edith E. Wood. Macmillan.
Steps of Honor, The. By Basil King. Harpers.
Stone of Destiny, The. By Katherine Mackay. Harpers.
Story of Susan, The. By Mrs. Henry Dudeney. Dodd, Mead.
Sword of Garibaldi. By Felicia Buttz Clark. Eaton & Mains.
Sylvia's Husband. By Mrs. Burton Harrison. Appletons.
Texas Matchmaker, A. By Andy Williams. Houghton.
Transgression of Andrew Vane. By Guy Wetmore Carryl. Henry Holt.
Twisted History. By Frank C. Voorhies. Dillingham.
Typee. By Herman Melville. John Lane.
Violett. By Baroness von Hutten. Houghton.
When It Was Dark. By Guy Thorne. Putnams.
Woman with the Fan, The. By Robert Hichens. Stokes.
Wood Carver of 'Lympus. By M. E. Waller. Little, Brown.
Woodhouse Correspondence, The. By George W. E. Russell and Edith Sichel. Dodd, Mead.
Yarborough the Premier. By Agnes R. Weekes. Harpers.
Yellow Holly, The. By Fergus Hume. Dillingham.
Yeoman, The. By Charles Kennett Burrow. John Lane.

THE AMERICAN MONTHLY REVIEW OF REVIEWS.

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW.

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HON. ALTON B. PARKER, OF NEW YORK.

(Nominated for the Presidency by the Democratic Convention, at St. Louis, July 9, 1904.)

THE AMERICAN MONTHLY

Review of Reviews.

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THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

Waiting for Election Day.

The American people have now before them three months of a political campaign which most of them would be willing to have shortened to three weeks if possible. The preliminary contests in both parties were of an unusually prolonged and definite character, so that when the two conventions had finished their work the vast majority of the intelligent voters of the country had made up their minds, and would have been glad to dispense with a long period of party missionary work and campaign oratory. Everybody is ready and waiting for Election Day, so far as the national contest is concerned. The State situations, on the other hand, are not so ripe.

Republican Harmony.

The question whether or not Theodore Roosevelt should be nominated for the Presidency had been under consideration within the organization of the Republican party ever since the death of President McKinley. Gradually, but inevitably, the opposition to him had diminished, until there remained not a single man to state openly at the party's convention that he was for any other candidate. Thus, President Roosevelt was nominated with as complete unanimity at Chicago as President McKinley had been four years before at Philadelphia. Furthermore, there was no difficulty at all about agreeing upon a Republican platform at Chicago, and the selection of Senator Fairbanks for the second place on the ticket was accomplished with the utmost ease and dispatch. The results, as a whole, were eminently satisfactory to the entire Republican party, and the issues, as the Republicans had to present them, were so little dubious or obscure that they would have been prepared to meet their opponents at the polls on any day, however early. The campaign will have to be fought out alertly, however, and the Republicans will find that their unity and self-satisfaction will not alone win the victory in November.

The Democratic Factions.

The preliminary contest in the Democratic party had been of a much more serious character. The so-called "conservative" wing had set out a long time ago to reorganize the party. The two wings had as their most conspicuous representatives ex-President Cleveland and the Hon. William J. Bryan. Mr. Cleveland had been three times nominated and once defeated for the Presidency, while Mr. Bryan had been twice nominated and twice defeated. While many of the leading conservatives had believed that the best hope of the party lay in giving a fourth nomination to Mr. Cleveland, such a step was abandoned as not being feasible. The ex-President was still regarded, however, as the foremost member and most sagacious counselor of his party. Mr. Bryan did not seek or desire a nomination this year, but he was incessantly active in the preliminary fight for party control, and remained individually the most influential man in the radical wing.

Hearst vs. Parker

The greater part of the radical following was in due time enlisted in the movement to promote the nomination of William R. Hearst. The supporters of Mr. Hearst showed so much energy and achieved so much early success in different States that the conservatives took alarm and felt the need of concentrating their work upon some one candidate. A very skillful and substantial organization had been formed to promote the candidacy of Judge Alton B. Parker, of the State of New York. The Parker movement had for its manager one of the most experienced and adroit political strategists in the United States—ex-Senator David B. Hill. Mr. Hill and Judge Parker had always been intimately associated in politics, the one owing much to the other. Mr. Parker had been chairman of the Democratic State Central Committee nineteen years ago, and had successfully managed the campaign in which Mr. Hill

had been elected governor of New York State. Mr. Hill, in return, soon after his election, had appointed Mr. Parker to a high position on the State bench. It was a good appointment.

The Judge's Availability.

As a jurist, Judge Parker had gained the confidence of the legal fraternity, while very little known to the general public outside of his own portion of the State. His long absence from the arena of active politics had kept him safely out of controversies and embroilments, and thus, in the negative sense, he possessed unusual availability.



HON. DAVID B. HILL, OF NEW YORK.

The principal object of Mr. Hill's work was to convince the conservative Democrats of other States that Judge Parker would be more likely than any other Democrat to carry the great pivotal State of New York in an election contest. The attainment of this object was rendered difficult by the fact that the Tammany organization of New York City, which must be relied upon to furnish the Democratic votes, was violently opposed to Judge Parker's candidacy. Ex-Senator Hill and his Parker organization, however, received a highly substantial accession of strength when it was found that the Wall Street interests, deeply opposed as they were to President Roosevelt, had definitely decided upon Parker as the man to support. These were able and willing to bring weighty influence, extending through the various sections of the country, to bear on securing agreement among conservatives upon Parker's name. The sharpest skirmish in this preliminary combat had to be fought in the New York State convention, in April, where Tammany was completely vanquished by the combined Hill and Belmont forces and formal instructions were given to the New York delegates to St. Louis to support Parker for the Presidency. In State after State, the fight for delegates went on between the radicals and the conservatives, and it was apparent several months ago that the conservatives would have a majority at the St. Louis convention.

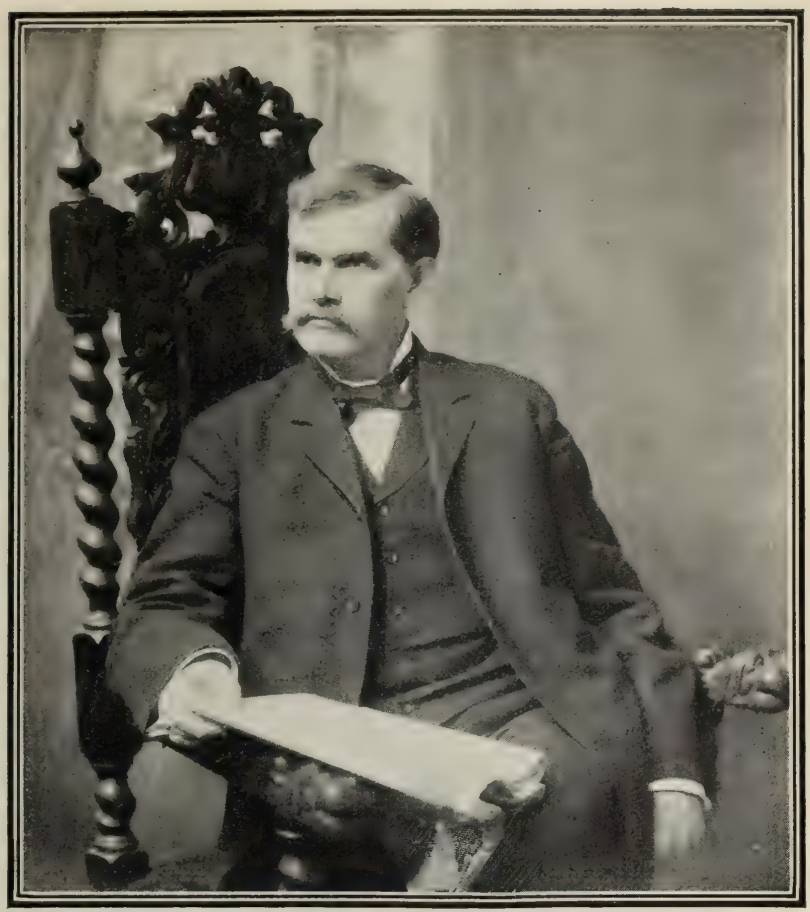
How Hearst Nominated Parker.

The only question was whether the radicals could consolidate more than one-third of the delegates in such a way, under the working of the two-thirds rule, as to prevent the nomination of Parker and compel the selection of a compromise candidate. The final decision, however, of some large delegations like that of Pennsylvania to support Parker from the start, and the decision of other delegations which were to give a complimentary vote on the first ballot to some local favorite of their own, to vote for Parker as second choice settled the fight so far as the nominee was concerned. The Hearst movement, instead of preventing the nomination of Parker, had brought it to pass. Mr. Hearst's candidacy was regarded as of such a revolutionary character that it compelled conservative concentration, and thus favored Parker. Mr. Bryan, in the St. Louis convention, when the result had become a foregone conclusion, declared himself in favor of ex-Governor Pattison, of Pennsylvania, or Senator Cockrell, of Missouri.

What Might Have Been.

If the Hearst movement and the Bryan wing had decided several months ago on either one of these two gentlemen,—or upon some other public man of similar experience and standing,—and if Mr. Hearst had then been willing to spend one-half as much money and energy for the success of such a candidate as he actually expended for himself, the result at St. Louis would have been totally different, and, whoever might have been nominated, it certainly would not have been Judge Parker. But the Hearst work had been put in for a candidate who could not possibly be nom-

inated, and the Bryan effort had not been expended on behalf of a well-selected candidate, but rather in a fuming, scolding, purely negative attempt to prevent Judge Parker's nomination. Thus, the radicals had thrown away their only chances. By sheer force, however, Mr. Bryan achieved a great personal success in the St. Louis convention. Although his enemies were in full control, he had become the most influential and effective figure in the great gathering before a final adjournment was reached.



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HON. JOHN SHARP WILLIAMS, OF MISSISSIPPI.

Bryan and the Platform.

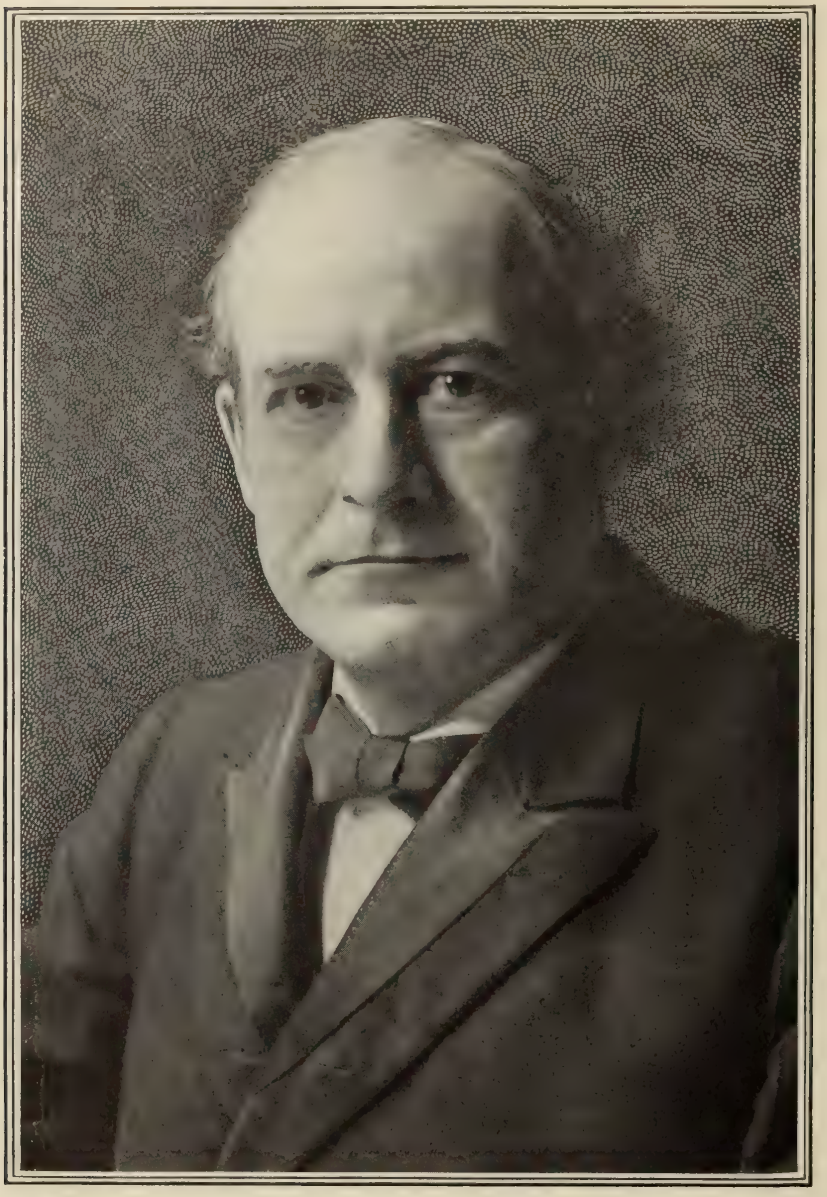
Mr. Bryan's great achievement at St. Louis lay in the part he took in making the platform. The Hon. John Sharp Williams, of Mississippi, — who has recently acted as leader of the Democratic opposition in the House of Representatives at Washington, and who was made temporary chairman of the St. Louis convention, —had brought with him the draft of a platform similar to the one that had been written by him and adopted by the Mississippi State Democrats. The drafting of the platform at St. Louis was referred by the large committee on resolutions to a sub-committee of ten members. This smaller body, after very careful and protracted work, based on that of Williams, produced an instrument that was at once given to the Associated Press and published all over the United States as the platform which it was expected the convention would adopt without change. To the surprise of everybody, however, the full resolutions committee was not satisfied with the work of its sub-committee of ten, but spent a day and a night in overhauling it and very materially changing its character. In this principal fight of the convention, Mr. Bryan took the lead with conspicuous success. He changed the tariff, trust, and other planks to meet his more radical views. He, Hill, and Williams, as a special committee of three, "compromised" the gold plank wholly out of the platform.

The Question of a Gold Plank.

The platform as reported by the sub-committee had contained the following plank upon the money question:

> The discoveries of gold within the last few years, and the greatly increased production thereof, adding $2,000,000,000 to the world's supply, of which $700,000,000 falls to the share of the United States, have contributed to the maintenance of a money standard of values no longer open to question, removing that issue from the field of political contention.

When the full committee had finished its work, there was left no allusion whatever to the gold standard or to any phase of those questions of currency, banking, and the like that in recent campaigns had been made so prominent in Democratic platforms. Since the money question had formed the one recognized distinction between the Cleveland Democrats and the Bryan Democrats, it was a marked victory for Mr. Bryan to secure the omission of the gold plank. In the sub-committee, this plank had been sus-



HON. WILLIAM JENNINGS BRYAN.

tained by a vote of 7 to 3. In the full committee, on report of Messrs. Hill, Bryan, and Williams, it was rejected by a vote of 35 to 15.

Convention Proceedings.

The formal proceedings of the convention had been begun on Wednesday, July 6. The final work of the platform committee had been reported to the convention by its chairman, Senator Daniel, of Virginia, on Friday evening, and (in the midst of great confusion, nobody hearing the platform read) it had been perfunctorily adopted by the convention without any discussion. Later in the same night session, the names of candidates for the Presidency had been presented and duly seconded in many speeches. At 5 o'clock the next morning, an opening ballot was taken, with the result that Judge Parker received 658 votes; Mr. Hearst, 200; Senator Cockrell, 42; Mr. Olney, 38; Mr. Wall, 27, and there were a few scattering votes for several other names. Judge Parker lacked only a few votes of the requisite two-thirds, and these were given to him by an announced change in the vote of several of the



HON. CHAMP CLARK, OF MISSOURI.

smaller delegations before the result of the first ballot could be announced. At that stage, Governor Dockery, of Missouri, moved to make Judge Parker's nomination unanimous, and this motion was passed without opposition. The protracted night session had been the scene of much tumultuous excitement and many striking convention incidents. The Hon. Champ Clark, of Missouri, was now presiding, as permanent chairman. A very frank and rather uncomplimentary account of the convention is published elsewhere in this number of the REVIEW from the able pen of a Republican onlooker who had been a delegate to the convention of his own party at Chicago. A parallel picture, let it be noted, is presented of the Chicago Republican convention by a prominent Democrat who witnessed the proceedings, and who was a delegate to the convention of his own party at St. Louis. He signs his article, and he is the Hon. James H. Eckels, of Chicago.

Judge Parker's Telegram.

This nominating session did not adjourn until 5:50 o'clock in the morning of Saturday. In the afternoon of Saturday, the convention reassembled to select a Vice-Presidential candidate, with the result that the Hon. Henry G. Davis, of West Virginia, was promptly chosen. The most striking incident, however, of this final session of the convention was the announcement that an important telegram had been received from Judge Parker. This telegram, which had been sent to ex-Lieut.-Gov. William F. Sheehan, of the New York delegation (regarded as Judge Parker's closest political adviser), read as follows :

July 9, 1904.

I regard the gold standard as firmly and irrevocably established, and shall act accordingly if the action of the convention to-day shall be ratified by the people.

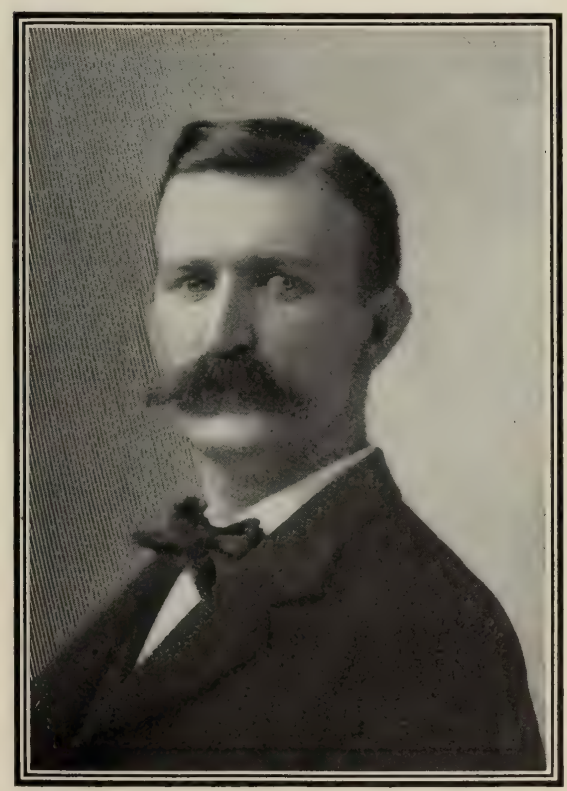
As the platform is silent on the subject, my view should be made known to the convention, and if it is proved to be unsatisfactory to the majority, I request you to decline the nomination for me at once, so that another may be nominated before adjournment.

ALTON B. PARKER.

The reading of this message caused great excitement, and there was an impression at first that it might lead to a total change in the situation and to the nomination of another man.

The Convention's Answer.

It was evident, however, after a little reflection, that the convention had gone too far to retrace its steps, and that it must find a way to reconcile its



HON. WILLIAM F. SHEEHAN, OF NEW YORK.

platform and its candidate, and to present to the country an air of harmony and contentment. It was found impossible to reopen the platform, which had, in point of fact, been settled upon as a compromise in consideration of which the radicals had agreed not to bolt the Parker nomination. Accordingly, it was agreed, after a conference of leaders, to get around the difficulty by adopting, as the expression of the convention, a formal telegram in reply to Judge Parker; and this course, after earnest persuasion on the part of Senator Tillman, of South Carolina, and others, was adopted. The convention's reply to Judge Parker was as follows:

> The platform adopted by this convention is silent on the question of the monetary standard because it is not regarded by us as a possible issue in this campaign, and only campaign issues were mentioned in the platform.
>
> Therefore there is nothing in the views expressed by you in the telegram just received which would preclude a man entertaining them from accepting a nomination on said platform.

Various Opinions.

For many days following the adjournment of the St. Louis convention, the newspapers of the country were filled with remarkably diverse expressions of opinion and assertions of fact touching the gold plank and Judge Parker's telegram. The Republican press in general treated the affair as a rather sharp bit of convention strategy. It was recalled that Judge Parker had supported Bryan in 1896 when the battle of the standards was fairly on, and that no allusion to the money question was contained in the New York State platform of last April, for which Judge Parker was deemed responsible. Mr. Bryan, some days after the convention, came out in a deliberate statement in which he took the ground that if Judge Parker's telegram had been sent before rather than after his nomination the convention would have named some other man. The independent Democratic press of New York and the East extolled Judge Parker's telegram as raising him to unequaled heights of courage and heroism. All of these extreme positions are absurd. The plain fact is that the gold standard is not in any sense an issue in the present campaign. The so-called gold plank of the sub-committee that was finally cut out of the platform as adopted merely stated that certain circumstances had "removed that issue from the field of political contention."

The Obvious Explanation.

When the platform-makers finally refused to make formal acknowledgment of the admitted fact that the money question is not now an issue, there was created in business circles so unfavorable an impression that Judge Parker felt it necessary at once to remove what otherwise might have grown into a serious misunderstanding and needlessly hampered his campaign. His telegram to St. Louis was therefore a very sensible proceeding, involving neither courage nor heroism on the one hand, nor any chicanery or finesse on the other hand. The action of the convention in adopting the language of the telegram to Judge Parker has all the practical effect of restoring to the platform the only essential clause of the plank that was stricken out,—namely, the clause which asserts that the money question is not an issue in this campaign. Nobody for a moment had the slightest reason to think that Judge Parker ever regarded the money question as being an issue in this campaign, and his telegram expressed the views which everybody knew perfectly well that he entertained.

Where the Party Really Stands.

The Democratic party as a whole accepted its defeat on the money question in 1896. Imperialism and the trusts were made the active issues of Bryan's campaign in 1900, and the silver plank was put in merely as a theoretical or academic statement, being carried by a majority of one vote, and then only in deference to Mr. Bryan personally, since he was to be the candidate. The Democrats now, in effect, admit that their opponents were right; and unless they can show other very good grounds for turning the Republicans out of power, their attitude on the money question will simply amount to a confession that the party that is at the helm is entitled to further confidence. Unfortunately for their logical position, the Democrats have not succeeded in presenting a very clear or convincing bill of particulars against the dominant party. Thus, eight years ago they staked their whole party existence upon the free-silver issue, and they now confess that they were thoroughly wrong. Four years ago, they made their fight—first, against the Republican expansion policy, and, second, against Republican collusion with trusts and capitalistic combinations. The intelligent voters must wish to know whether the Democratic party still condemns the Republican policy as completely as it did four years ago; for, obviously, if the Democratic party has weakened in its insistence along these lines, it is only contributing fresh arguments in favor of the retention of the Republicans in control of affairs. It had come into power in 1892 to destroy the high tariff, and had ingloriously passed a protectionist bill that its own President, Mr. Cleveland, refused to sign.

Democrats and the Philippines.

As a matter of fact, a distinguished Democrat, Judge Wright, is administering the Philippine Islands very satisfactorily. The general policy that the Democratic platform now adopts is that we should treat the Filipinos as we have treated the Cubans. The platform as worked out in the sub-committee—there is good reason to believe—was more representative of the actual views of the majority of Democrats than the instrument as finally altered in the hope of securing the Bryan support of Judge Parker as a candidate. Mr. Bryan succeeded in injecting into the final platform some of his well-known expressions regarding imperialism; but the accepted Democratic view now is merely that we must not hold colonial possessions in perpetuity, and that we should not govern any bodies of people whom we do not expect to bring into our citizenship in the full sense. The Democrats would therefore retain coaling stations and naval stations in the Philippines, safeguard the interests of foreign nations in the archipelago, and at the earliest possible moment set the islands up as an independent republic, under the friendly and protecting auspices of the United States.

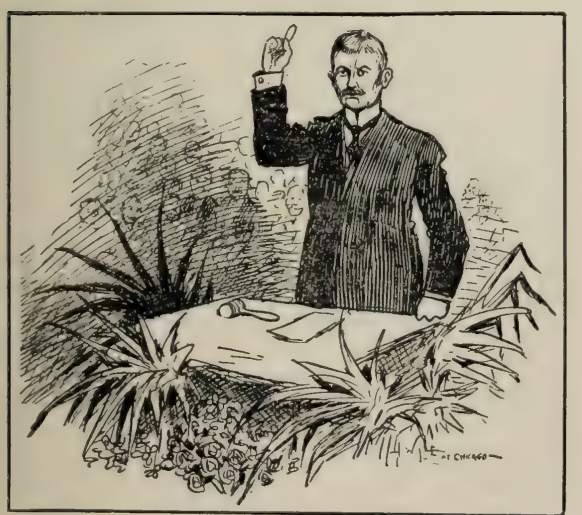
Republican Views Not Very Different.

Now, the highest authority upon Republican policy toward the Philippines is the Hon. Elihu Root, whose formal speech at the Chicago convention we published last month in this magazine. Mr. Root did not hesitate to say that the Republicans would be entirely ready at the proper time to establish Philippine independence. Both he and Judge Taft, however, are of opinion that it will be a good while before the present policy of teaching the Filipinos the art of self-government will have made progress enough for the United States to do there what it has done in Cuba. There is very little use in trying to pretend that there is a strong party difference of view in this country regarding the Philippines and the so-called expansion policy. It would be impossible to fight a campaign on such a basis. All intelligent people know that we are using every possible means to advance the Filipinos in intelligence and in local self-government, and that they will be abundantly welcome to complete governmental independence if the time ever comes when they can properly take rank as a member of the family of nations. Whether or not Congress ought to pass a resolution declaring it the intention of the country at some time to turn the Philippine archipelago into a republic, is simply a matter for Congress itself. There will in future, probably, come to be a real Philippine question; but there is none this year. The Democrats have, in point of fact, receded very much from their position of four years ago on this subject; and in so far they have again confessed judgment and acknowledged that the country did right in electing the McKinley and Roosevelt ticket.



HON. MARTIN W. LITTLETON, OF NEW YORK, PRESIDENT OF THE BOROUGH OF BROOKLYN.

(Who nominated Judge Parker in a brilliant speech at St. Louis.)



HON. ELIHU ROOT AT CHICAGO.

From the *Leader* (Cleveland).



AUNTIE BRYAN: "You know, Alton, this pains me as much as it does you!"
From the *North American* (Philadelphia).

The Democracy and "Trusts."

With respect to the great trust question, the Democratic platform as carefully worked out by the sub-committee was quite conservative. Again as a matter of compromise with the Bryan element, the full committee changed the phraseology of the plank on trusts and gave it a fiercer sound. There is nothing, however, in the platform of either party that is really significant or important in relation to the trust question. Both parties avow their eagerness to defend the people against illegal and oppressive monopolies, and to enforce the laws as they exist. Every one knows that upon this question we are not going to have any drastic national legislation in the immediate future, no matter which party wins at the polls. The Senate will pass nothing radical on the trust question, and no other man in the White House, certainly, would be more energetic than President Roosevelt in enforcing the laws as they now stand on the statute books. Furthermore, it will be impossible to cause the country to forget that through the long months of the preliminary campaign the newspaper organs of at least half the Democratic voters of the country informed us day by day that Judge Parker had been selected specifically as the candidate of the trusts for the desired end of defeating Roosevelt, whom, of all public men, the trusts most hated and feared.

The Ticket and Its Special Friends.

It is perfectly well known, furthermore, that a number of the gentlemen principally responsible for securing the nomination of Judge Parker are closely identified with those large financial and industrial interests loosely called "trusts" in the language of the newspapers. Still more to dissociate the Democratic party this year from the anti-trust movement, the nominee for the Vice-Presidency on the Democratic ticket, ex-Senator Henry G. Davis, of West Virginia, is himself a typical multimillionaire of the kind that the Hearst and Bryan wing of the party has always most violently opposed. The President's friends have known for nearly two years how bitterly the great corporation and trust leaders were opposing the plan to nominate Mr. Roosevelt this year; and they have known equally well, for as long a time, that these same corporation leaders were cordially and actively promoting the movement to make Judge Parker the Democratic nominee. It does not in the least follow that Judge Parker, if elected, would not act with entire independence and with scrupulous observance of his oath of office to execute the laws. But under all the circumstances, it would be rather absurd to ask an intelligent

American public this year to believe that President Roosevelt represents the trusts and that Judge Parker represents the opposition to them.

A Neutralized Issue.

The situation was quite different four years ago, when Mark Hanna, who was the national chairman and general dictator of the Republican party, was well known to be exceedingly close to the large financial and industrial interests of the country, while the Bryan campaign undoubtedly represented the popular resentment against the corporation interests. Fair-minded Democrats must at least admit that the Democratic opposition to the trusts has for the time being been neutralized, and that it would be not only absurd, but quite impossible, to make a Democratic campaign along that line this year.

The Tariff and the Parties.

On the question of the tariff, the plank as worked out by the Democratic sub-committee was a very cautious and moderate one, advocating revision of the existing schedules, but with a careful regard for conditions as they exist. Again Mr. Bryan succeeded in having much more radical language



"MOTHER GOOSE" UP TO DATE.

[Mr. Belmont and the Democracy, as treated in Mr. Hearst's newspapers.]

"Little Miss Muffet sat on a tuffet,
Eating her curds and whey;
There came a great spider
And sat down beside her,
And frightened Miss Muffet away."

From the *American* (New York).

put into the tariff plank; but when the practical recommendations are reached, there is demanded merely a revision of the existing schedules and a policy of reciprocity with Canada and other countries. The fact is that the tariff is no longer a distinctly political question in this country. The South has gone too extensively into manufacturing to allow the tariff to be dealt with purely upon lines of theory; and the same thing is true of the West. The tariff ought to be revised within the next four years, but not in a spirit of hostility or partisanship. The questions involved are of a business character. The Senate will be Republican for some time to come in any case, and even if there were a strong and radical Democratic majority in the House, no general tariff bill could be passed. If what is wanted is a very moderate tariff-revision, it is more likely to come about as a result of complete Republican victory than as a result of a partial Republican defeat.

Agreement on Navy and Army Policies.

In the sub-committee's platform, the Democrats are for the further rapid development of our navy, their view being identical with that of the Republicans. As finally adopted, the Democratic platform omits the subject altogether. Since nothing is said to the contrary, however, it must be assumed that the plank of the sub-committee really expresses the substantial opinion of the Democratic party. The truth is that our present naval policy is not a partisan but a national one, and that Democratic Secretaries of the Navy—notably the late Mr. Whitney and ex-Secretary Herbert—had been just as completely identified with this movement as the Republican secretaries have been. A small but efficient army is also a national policy which both parties believe in, and both believe in a well-developed and well-drilled militia. In all these regards the recent course of legislation and administration has been thoroughly approved by a dominating public opinion, regardless of party.

Both Parties for Clean Methods.

The Democratic platform naturally seeks to make party capital out of the postal scandals, and argues that a change of administration would make for a more thorough weeding out of corruption and incompetency from the public services. But, on the other hand, President Roosevelt, of all men in the country, is the one most completely identified in the public mind with the work of clearing out the rascals from public office, and of toning up the civil service and putting efficient men in office. In view of recent developments and the steadily improving standards of character and



Ex-Senator Henry G. Davis' residence. Senator Stephen B. Elkins' residence.

WHERE TWO WEST VIRGINIA STATESMEN AND MAGNATES DWELL TOGETHER IN AMITY.

efficiency in office, either party henceforth must do its best to weed out corruption and to prevent extravagance and waste.

Both Candidates Personally Fit.

The attempts in the Democratic platform to cast reflection upon President Roosevelt himself cannot affect public opinion very much one way or the other. The demand of the platform that from the White House down there should be a return to "Jeffersonian simplicity of living" will have to take its place among the humors of the campaign. Mr. Jefferson, who was certainly one of our greatest Presidents,—and in many respects the ablest and wisest exponent of American political views and doctrines the country has yet produced,—was further removed from simplicity of living than any other President or public man who has figured importantly in our annals. President Roosevelt, on the other hand, while upholding the proper dignity of his great office, and while always living like a gentleman and not like a boor, is the embodiment of true democratic simplicity. Judge Parker, who is by nature and training a man of considerable dignity, has also the direct, approachable, democratic manners that ought to belong to an American public man of the best type. His personality is very attractive, and if he were elected he would undoubtedly conduct himself in such a manner as to win and retain the admiration of his own fellow-citizens and of the outside world. Only stupid people will assail either candidate.

Judge Parker as a Strong Man.

If Mr. Parker's selection has indeed been favored by certain captains of industry and masters of finance, it is not for a moment to be supposed that they have thought a weak rather than a strong man could be chosen President of the United States. Nobody who knows him thinks of Judge Parker as a weak man; and the utmost criticism that could be brought against him upon grounds of personal qualification can be stated in a word,—namely, that Judge Parker has not been tested in national affairs, either legislative or executive, and is therefore not widely known to the people of the country. Elsewhere we publish an interesting character sketch of Judge Parker from the pen of Mr. James Creelman, who has seen a great deal of the Democratic candidate, understands his personal characteristics, and is undoubtedly qualified to set forth the grounds upon which the Democrats may go before the country claiming to have in their nominee a strong and worthy leader entitled to the votes of all who would like to put the Democratic party into power and remove Mr. Roosevelt from the Presidency.

Mr. Davis, of West Virginia.

The Democrats have in Mr. Davis, of West Virginia, a candidate for the Vice-Presidency who also possesses an agreeable and interesting personality. Mr. Davis is now an octogenarian, but of rugged strength and self-reliant qualities. He is one of the self-made business men that constitute a typically American class. He is a cousin of Senator Gorman, the Democratic leader of Maryland, and is the father-in-law of a prominent Republican Senator, Mr. Elkins, of West Virginia, who was considerably talked of for the second place on the Chicago ticket. Mr. Davis has been long identified, in his business affairs, with his prosperous son-in-law and a group of well-known men, some of them Republicans and some of them Democrats, and it might be rather hard to make shrewd and closely observant men in this country believe that there is any real difference of opinion among the members of this successful group,—whether known as



MR. GEORGE B. CORTELYOU AS A POLITICAL "BUSTER BROWN."—From the *Tribune* (Minneapolis).

Democrats or Republicans,—on any such questions as the tariff or the proper way to deal with railroads, trusts, or, indeed, on anything else that affects the relation of the Government to business affairs. Elsewhere in this number we publish a sketch of Mr. Davis' career, with pictures. He visited Judge Parker on July 20.

Mr. Cortelyou as Chairman.

The Republican National Committee as reconstructed at Chicago was far from anxious to have for its chairman and manager of the campaign Mr. George B. Cortelyou; but President Roosevelt had selected Mr. Cortelyou as the man he wanted, and the committee at length acquiesced and prepared to make the best of the situation. Mr. Cortelyou's rapid and steady rise has been due to nothing whatsoever except his own personal merits. He has been a hard worker, and has become remarkably efficient in dealing with multitudinous executive details. Moreover, he has proved himself entitled to the confidence of the older and more experienced men whose administrations he has served. He had the unqualified approbation of President Cleveland, made himself indispensable to President McKinley, and fully met President Roosevelt's exacting standards of practical efficiency. The choice of Mr. Cortelyou, under these circumstances, to be the manager of the Republican campaign marks a distinct advance in American political methods. It is not in the least true that President Roosevelt selected him because he wished to have a mere personal representative in the office, so that he might, in fact, direct the campaign himself. Mr. Cortelyou enters upon his work with perfect freedom from anybody's dictation. There has never been a manager of a national Republican campaign who was more free than Mr. Cortelyou is to act in all respects upon his own best judgment. He mét the members of the National Committee at Chicago, and informed them that in taking the chairmanship he expected the same consideration as was shown to Mr. Hanna. But the times have changed very much in four years, and even more in eight years, and it will not be possible to run a successful Roosevelt-Cortelyou campaign on the lines of a McKinley-Hanna campaign. It is not necessary, however, to point out the contrast in a spirit of criticism of the older methods.

Party Solidarity.

After all, if the Republican campaign be successful this year, a fair share of the credit will be due to the wisdom and sagacity of President McKinley. And a part of it, certainly, will be due to the manner in which Mr. Hanna had aided to build up a remarkably coherent Republican machine, which, in spite of some prejudices and preferences to the contrary, has been capable of accepting Roosevelt and Rooseveltism in entire good faith,



THE CHORUS OF ROOSEVELT HARMONY AT CHICAGO.
From the *Post* (Cincinnati).



From a stereograph, copyright, 1904, by Underwood & Underwood, New York.

PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT AND SENATOR FAIRBANKS.

(At the President's home, Sagamore Hill, Oyster Bay, New York, July 11, 1904.)

and of maintaining a condition of splendid party solidarity that has never been surpassed in the history of this or any other country. The nomination of Senator Fairbanks, of Indiana, for second place on the ticket, was in some sense a tribute to the handsome way in which the original anti-Roosevelt leaders of the old orthodox Hanna party organization had swung into the Roosevelt column and accepted the younger man as Presidential nominee, and also as the real head of the party. The choice of Mr. Fairbanks was a very strong move from the standpoint of men who like to find in the Republican party a sane, reasonable capacity for associated action and for those comfortable and honorable compromises which blot out merely temporary lines of division and prevent their growing into factional splits. Thus, the Republican party, as the result of the ticket-making and the platform-making of the quiet and well-mannered convention at Chicago, is even more harmonious than it was after the St. Louis convention which nominated McKinley and Hobart eight years ago, adopted the sound-money platform, and went into its winning fight for the gold standard.



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HON. WILLIAM H. MOODY, OF MASSACHUSETTS.

Easy Postponement of the Tariff Question.

There was a good deal of subdued discussion among Republican leaders at Chicago touching the best way to deal with the tariff question. The plank as adopted probably reflects Republican sentiment as accurately as any form of words possibly could. Undoubtedly, the Republicans believe in protection as a cardinal American policy which must for a good while to come be maintained. Any Republican who believes that "the rates of duty should be adjusted," to quote the language of the platform, can be free to say so and keep a perfectly orthodox standing in the party. "To a Republican Congress and a Republican President," says the platform, "this great question can be safely intrusted." The Republican platform also declares for "the adoption of all practicable methods for the further extension of our foreign markets, including commercial reciprocity wherever reciprocal arrangements can be effected consistent with the principles of protection and without injury to American agriculture, American labor, or any American industry." This declaration can, of course, be construed broadly or narrowly, according to one's individual views. The present business outlook is quite favorable, regardless of the exigencies and uncertainties of a Presidential year; and it will be Republican campaign policy to declare against any tariff agitation that would disturb business, and in favor of any future specific tariff changes that would be advantageous. In short, the Republicans will—(1) ask the country for a vote of confidence on the strength of their past record in dealing with questions of financial and commercial policy, and will (2) ask the country not to try to force any specific tariff questions into this year's politics.

Mr. Moody as Attorney-General.

President Roosevelt remained at Washington until some days after the Republican convention at Chicago, then went to Oyster Bay for a vacation and to await the ceremony of "notification," set for the 27th. Mr. Cortelyou's choice as chairman of the National Committee necessitated his immediate retirement from the cabinet. As reported last month, also, the appointment of Attorney-General Knox to the vacancy in the Senate caused by the death of Mr. Quay, of Pennsylvania, made another cabinet vacancy, which was filled by the transfer of the Hon. William H. Moody, who had succeeded Mr. John D. Long as Secretary of the Navy, to the portfolio of the Department of Justice. Mr. Moody showed aptitude and efficiency in the naval department; but, being a lawyer of experience and standing at the Massachusetts bar, it is natural enough that he should prefer the cabinet place that is in the line of his own professional advancement. Mr. Moody is a man of sagacity and of force,



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HON. PAUL MORTON, OF ILLINOIS.

who had already demonstrated his usefulness as a general cabinet officer. He had, moreover, gained a wide knowledge of public affairs by serving four terms in Congress. It is understood, however, that he desires in the near future to leave Washington life and go back to his professional work in Massachusetts; so that it is likely that even if Mr. Roosevelt should be re-elected, Mr. Moody would serve only to the end of the present term, on the 4th of next March.

Mr. Morton at Head of Navy.

The vacant Secretaryship of the Navy has been filled by the appointment of Mr. Paul Morton, of Chicago (formerly of Nebraska), a prominent railroad man of the West, and for some years past second vice-president of the Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fé Railroad. Mr. Morton, who is still a young man,—forty-seven years old,—is perhaps as well known from the Mississippi River to the Pacific coast as any other man in the West. He is a son of the late Hon. J. Sterling Morton, of Nebraska, who was President Cleveland's Secretary of Agriculture and a man of great public spirit. Mr. Paul Morton was a Democrat until 1896, when he left the party on the money issue, and for some years past he has been affiliated with the Republicans. President Roosevelt has known him for several years, and has regarded him as a man of exceptional capacity for the direction of important affairs, and as peculiarly well fitted for a cabinet position, not only on account of his personal qualities, but also by reason of his wide acquaintance with the country, its people, and its interests. Mr. Morton has no especial knowledge of naval affairs, but he has been accustomed to a wide range of administrative responsibility in the management of an immense railroad system, and he knows how to utilize expert talent. He believes thoroughly in the policy of a strong and efficient navy, and the department will certainly not suffer under his guidance. The announcement that he had been appointed and had accepted was made on June 24, and he took office at Washington on July 1.

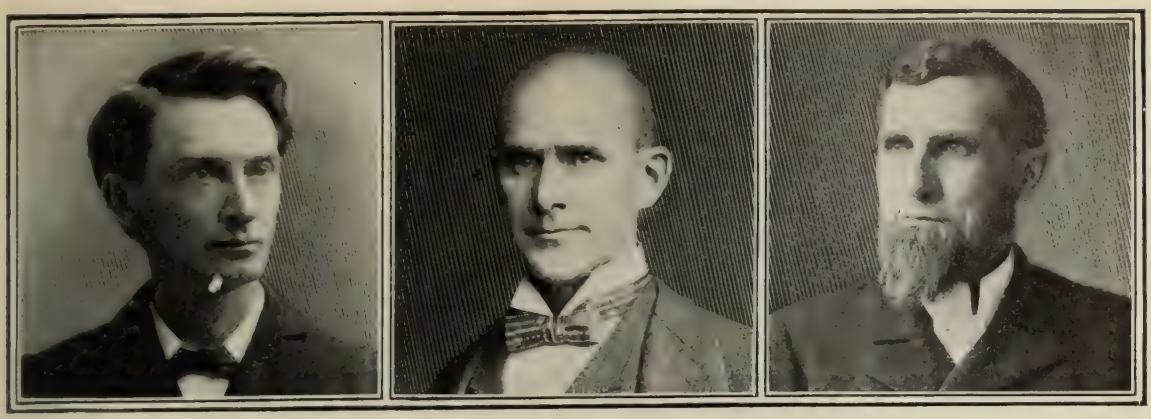
Mr. Metcalf as Secretary of Commerce.

The vacancy caused by Mr. Cortelyou's retirement was filled by the appointment of the Hon. Victor H. Metcalf, of Oakland, Cal., who was serving his third term in Congress at the time of his selection. Mr. Metcalf grew up in the State of New York, and graduated at Yale, afterward taking a law course and practising at Utica. He went to the Pacific coast twenty-six years ago, and was fifty years of age last October. It has been



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HON. VICTOR H. METCALF, OF CALIFORNIA.



Hon. Thomas E. Watson. Mr. Eugene V. Debs. Rev. Dr. Silas C. Swallow.

PRESIDENTIAL CANDIDATES OF THREE SMALLER PARTIES.

commonly stated in the press that Postmaster-General Payne expects to retire from public life after the election, on account of impaired health, and that Mr. Cortelyou will probably return to the cabinet as head of the Post-Office Department.

The Populist Party.

If Mr. Hearst and Mr. Bryan had concluded to bolt the conservative Democratic convention at St. Louis, as the gold men bolted the radical Democratic convention at Chicago in 1896, there would have been a very formidable third-party movement this year. Populism would have come to life again, and would have joined the Bryan-Hearst organization in an anti-trust, pro-labor, government-ownership crusade. With the backing of Mr. Hearst's widely circulated newspapers, such a movement might have counted upon a large popular following. But with Hearst and Bryan preferring to keep their standing in the Democratic party, the Populist party is reduced to a slender remnant. The depleted representatives of the faithful met at Springfield, Ill., on July 4, with delegates from not more than one-half of the States. The platform adopted covers the well-known Populistic articles of faith, and the first place on the ticket is held by the Hon. Thomas E. Watson, of Georgia. Thomas H. Tribbles, of Nebraska, is the nominee for Vice-President. Mr. Watson was the Populist candidate for the Vice-Presidency in 1896. He has served a term in Congress, and is well known throughout the country. His later years have been spent in historical and biographical writing, and he has written notable books on Napoleon, Jefferson, and French history, particularly in the revolutionary period. He had come out for Hearst before the St. Louis convention met.

The Prohibitionists.

The Prohibition party some weeks ago had fresh hopes, based upon strong encouragement received from Gen. Nelson A. Miles that he would become their Presidential candidate and roll up a very large vote. General Miles desired that their convention should come late, in order that he might first await the result of the Democratic convention, where he and his friends thought it quite possible that he might appear as a dark horse and carry off the nomination. General Miles has since congratulated Judge Parker very warmly, and may be regarded as safely landed in the Democratic party; although it is not so very long ago that he was talked of as a receptive candidate for the Republican nomination. The Prohibition national convention was held at Indianapolis, on July 4, the date of the Populist gathering at Springfield. General Miles was about to be nominated, but a telegram from him declared that he was finally out of the race, and so a tried and true Prohibitionist, the Rev. Dr. Silas C. Swallow, of Pennsylvania, was chosen in his stead. Mr. George W. Carroll, of Texas, was named for the second place. The platform is a fairly broad one, covering a number of public topics besides the advocacy of laws to forbid the sale of alcoholic beverages. Dr. Swallow is excellent, but this will not be a good year for third-party movements.

Two Socialist Tickets.

There are two Socialist parties, each with a Presidential ticket in the field, the more important one being the Social Democratic party, which has nominated Mr. Eugene V. Debs, of Indiana, for the Presidency, and the other being the Socialist Labor party, of which Mr. Charles H. Corregan, a New York printer, is the candidate.

Choosing the Battle-Grounds.

The Republicans declare their expectation of winning every Northern State in November, and they put not a single one of these in the doubtful column. They do not, on the other hand, expect to carry a single Southern State, although they will make a determined contest in the border tier,—that is to say, in Delaware, Maryland, West Virginia, Kentucky, and Missouri. The Democrats, on their part, besides carrying all the Southern States, from Virginia to Texas, will expect Senator Gorman and his friends to carry Maryland; will rely upon their Vice-Presidential candidate and his friends to carry West Virginia; will count upon Kentucky by an old-fashioned, normal Democratic vote, and will expect the nomination of the popular young reformer, Mr. Joseph W. Folk, for governor to pull Missouri through with an exceptionally large majority. In their list of doubtful States which they profess to have an excellent chance to carry, they put New York first, as, of course, it is for them quite indispensable. With New York they associate its smaller neighbors, Connecticut and New Jersey. Second in importance to them is Illinois, which they expect to contest stubbornly; and then come Indiana and Wisconsin, which they regard as affording good Democratic fighting ground. They will not neglect Colorado, Utah, and one or two other of the smaller Western States. It is perfectly understood by both parties that in the doubtful States local situations must be treated with great care. Thus, in New York, both parties have been anxiously considering the question of candidates for the governorship and other State offices. Nominations will not be made until the middle of September.

Next Month Will Fix Campaign Lines.

Next month it will be in order to give some further particulars regarding the political situation in the States which will provide the battle-grounds of the campaign. As September approaches, much that is now vague and uncertain will become definite. By that time, the courts may have passed upon the conflicting claims of the two rival Republican organizations in Wisconsin. We shall know better, by that time, how the strained and extraordinary labor situation in Colorado is likely to affect politics. Fortunately, last month's deadlock between the great meat-packing houses and their employees was settled by arbitration; but in textile and other industries there threatened to be disputes between labor and capital that could be regarded as having a bearing upon the contest between the parties. By September, moreover, most of the State tickets will have been nominated, and the national campaign managers will have formulated their plans.

As to Campaign Literature.

It is reported that the Republican campaign management will not, this year, disseminate throughout the country such vast quantities of so-called "literature" as were printed and distributed four years ago and eight years ago. The occasion calls for quality rather than for bulk, and the party should not fear to use its very finest and best products of the pen in preference to commoner and more ephemeral writing. Thus, it could not possibly do better than to see that a well-printed copy of Secretary Hay's great speech of last month, on fifty years of the Republican party, should be put in the hands of doubtful voters of all ages in the contested States, and given to all well-educated young men who as first voters have this year to make their choice of a party. Mr. Hay's speech was delivered at Jackson, Mich., on occasion of a celebration of the semi-centennial of the founding of the party. It is not a recapitulation of mere details, but a eulogistic interpretation of the character and the work of the party that has been principally responsible for the conduct of American affairs since 1860. Naturally, Mr. Hay gives most of his attention to the recent achievements of the party, and his tribute to President Roosevelt as a man and a great administrator is testimony of high value, and is campaign literature of a far more effective kind than anything that could be manufactured to order for the National Committee. Mr. Root's speech at Chicago, and Mr. Hay's address at Jackson, were on a par with the greatest examples of political statement and argument in our history; and they contain the "case," so to speak, for the Roosevelt ticket and the Republican party this year. Fortunately, Mr. Cortelyou will not need any persuasion as respects the practical vote-getting value of these two great speeches, which are fascinating in their clear logic and their lucid English, and which carry with them in every sentence the weight and the power of two men in whom the country has unusual confidence. Mr. Root and Mr. Hay are so constituted that they could not say these things about the McKinley and Roosevelt administrations if they did not fully mean them, and their discernment is so keen that their judgments could not well be led astray.

Our Successful Diplomacy.

The accusation of a belligerent and quarrelsome tendency, made by its opponents against the administration at Washington, has been somewhat curiously

answered by the action of the government of France. This foreign government had tendered to Secretary Hay the Grand Cross of the Legion of Honor for services rendered to the cause of international peace and amity. The compliment to Secretary Hay is, of course, in the fullest sense a compliment to the attitude of President Roosevelt's administration toward foreign governments and world-politics. Within the month covered in our present record, the State Department has given several new illustrations of its successful methods.

Perdicaris Released.

It has closed the Morocco incident by securing the release of Mr. Perdicaris, safe and sound, from the bandits who held him for ransom. Our European squadron was promptly assembled off the coast of Morocco to make a due impression upon the lax and decadent government of the Sultan Mulai-Abd-el-Aziz, but meanwhile the State Department was pulling just the right strings in its representations at Paris. A recent treaty between England and France had recognized the paramountcy of French influence in Morocco. Mr. Hay paid due deference to this treaty, and made the French Government see readily how usefully its African ambitions might be promoted if it should accept this American recognition and at the same time earn it by securing the release of Perdicaris. Mr. Hay had demanded "Perdicaris alive or Rais Uli dead." No guarantees of any kind were given by our government, nor were any demands made on the Moorish Government for indemnity or punishment. The whole reorganization of Moroccan government and finances will be the work of France, and the republic takes the credit for securing the release of the prisoners. The $70,000 was paid to Rais Uli from the new French loan to Morocco of $12,500,000, and the net result to Europe is that France exerts to the full the control permitted her over Morocco by the recent Anglo-French treaty. M. Raindre, formerly French consul at Geneva, will take charge of the custom-houses at Moroccan ports, the receipts from which will secure the French loan. A French police force is also to be organized in Tangier. From beginning to end, the episode was creditable to American diplomacy.

England Explains About Tibet.

Another achievement on the plane of world-politics was the pointed inquiry made by our State Department concerning the intentions of the British in Tibet. However isolated and independent Tibet may be in its domestic relations, the outside world is bound to recognize it as a dependency of China. The chief powers of the world, however, have agreed, under the leadership of the United States, to respect the territorial integrity of the Chinese Empire. On this ground, Mr. Hay was justified in asking England to give assurances regarding its Tibetan expedition. The answer has been in good temper and promptly forthcoming. England disclaims any intention to make imperial gains in that direction, and promises to withdraw the expedition under Colonel Younghusband as soon as certain concessions respecting India's commercial rights and relations are duly guaranteed.

The Chamberlain Tariff Report.

Our relations with England continue to be the most cordial in the history of the two countries, in spite of the fact that the whole pressure of the party now in power is being used to bring about, in due time, a situation that will hamper to the utmost our products in the British market. The American policy of protection is a general policy directed impartially toward the outside world. The Chamberlain-Balfour project is specifically designed to check the growing commercial supremacy of the United States. On the 20th of July there was made public the report of Joseph Chamberlain's great tariff commission, composed of some sixty men of affairs, and the practical recommendation, based upon the findings set forth in a very bulky volume, is for the establishment of a protective-tariff system, to be arranged as follows :

A. A general tariff, consisting of a low scale of duties, for foreign countries admitting British wares on fair terms.

B. A preferential tariff, lower than the general tariff, for colonies giving adequate preference to British manufactures, and framed to secure freer trade within the British Empire.

C. A maximum tariff, consisting of comparatively higher duties, but subject to reduction, by negotiation, to the level of the general tariff.

Government Losing Support.

Meanwhile, earlier in the month, there had been held a great birthday dinner in honor of Mr. Chamberlain, who is now sixty-eight years old, and two hundred or more members of the House of Commons were present. The dinner was intended to signalize the reorganization of the Liberal-Unionist party, in which Mr. Chamberlain has succeeded the Duke of Devonshire as president. This party, moreover, has made formal and official declaration in favor of Mr. Chamberlain's fiscal proposals. Assurances were given at the dinner that Mr. Balfour and the cabinet were more than ever behind Mr. Chamberlain, while on the other hand Mr. Chamberlain himself declared that he and his

followers would loyally support Mr. Balfour and keep the present government in office as long as possible. Early in July, Mr. Balfour had carried through Parliament by a majority of eighty a plan for closure, in order to limit debate and crowd the business of the session to an end. The Tory licensing bill, about which there has been a great deal of feeling, was promptly passed under the new closure rule, but the bill for limiting immigration was, for the present, dropped. Mr. Balfour has declared that there will be no general elections until next year, unless his working majority in Parliament altogether deserts him. Since he came into office, he has been completely abandoned by many of the most eminent of his supporters. Mr. Winston Churchill, for example, has not only withdrawn his support from the Balfour cabinet, but has gone completely over to the Liberal party, and is winning more prestige just now than any other young man in English public life.

Echoes of the Boer War.

One of the points upon which Mr. Churchill is most incessantly attacking the Balfour ministry is the contract under which Chinese coolie labor is going into the South African mines. The colonial secretary, Mr. Lyttelton, has been proved to be very inaccurate in the statements he made, under which the plan of importing the Chinese was sanctioned, and the subject is one that does not die easily in Parliament or in the English press. Mr. Stead has returned from his visit to South Africa with fresh ammunition, and is now attacking the government with great spirit on the narrow and stickling policy that has been shown in reëstablishing the Boers on their devastated farms. Mr. Austen Chamberlain, as chancellor of the exchequer, has been having a thorny road to travel in getting his budget passed. The addition of twopence per pound to the import tax on tea seems to have stirred up the British public more than almost anything else that has happened in a long time.

England and Germany Come Together.

King Edward made a visit to the German Emperor at Kiel, late in June, where the Kaiser was the central figure in the yacht races, which he would like to bring into as much prominence as the annual contest for the *America's* cup. It is understood that the Emperor and the King convinced each other of their disinterested desire for an early ending of the Russo-Japanese war, and that their meeting was in every sense promotive of international good-will. It was followed by the signing, at London, on July 12, of an Anglo-German treaty of arbitration. This takes the general lines of the treaties England has already made with France, Italy, and Spain.

Russia and the Dardanelles.

The King's visit to Kiel and the Anglo-German arbitration treaty may be regarded as fortunate in view of certain incidents which caused great excitement, particularly in England, in the latter half of last month. The Japanese had relied upon England to see that the treaty of Paris of 1856 was kept in force, under the terms of which the Russians would not be able to bring their Black Sea warships down past Constantinople, through the Dardanelles, into the Mediterranean, and thus through the Suez Canal to the scene of hostilities in the far East. But, as a matter of fact, the Russians made bold to send certain ships through the Dardanelles on July 13, and these vessels had the temerity at once to challenge the Oriental commerce of the world as it passed down the Red Sea. Two ships in particular made the trouble, and they were the cruisers *Petersburg* and *Smolensk*. The British newspapers went into spasms, and the British public gasped with astonishment and indignation, when these two little Russian cruisers not only proceeded to overhaul British ships in their search for contraband of war, but coolly seized, among other vessels, a great British liner of the Peninsular & Oriental Company, the *Malacca*, made prisoners of the officers and crew, put a prize crew of Russians on board, and sent her westward to find a Russian port and await the verdict of a Russian admiralty judge. The British press and the British naval men invoked the shades of Palmerston and all the other masterful Britishers of bygone days, and scolded the Balfour cabinet roundly for its mildness in merely declaring that it would look carefully and thoroughly into the facts and make proper representations to the Russian Government. Meanwhile, the British Egyptian authorities had acted. At Port Saïd, the *Malacca* was stopped and detained, with her Russian crew, "pending instructions from England," and the government at London formally protested to Russia. German ships were also overhauled, and in one instance the mails for Japan were detained in the search for official communications.

The Law and the Right.

Two matters of importance relating to international law are involved, one having to do with the construction of a treaty, the other with the general principles affecting neutrals and the carrying of contraband of war. Everybody has always known that the attempt of England and other powers to bottle Russia up in the Black Sea and not allow her ships of all classes to pass freely in

and out could rest only upon sheer force, and that Russia would sooner or later open the Dardanelles. Just now, however, the Russians will not admit that they have disregarded the treaty. The *Petersburg* and the *Smolensk* belong to the so-called "volunteer fleet,"—that is to say, they are merchant ships fitted for conversion into cruisers in time of war. Russia holds that as merchant ships they had a right to go through the Dardanelles, and that when once through, there was no principle of international law which prevented the Russians from mounting their guns and flying the military in place of the commercial flag. Since the treaty of Paris was adverse to Russia, and was purely arbitrary, it must be admitted that the Russians have a right to construe it both narrowly and technically. Furthermore, the British protest comes late, because it is well known that the vessels of the Black Sea volunteer fleet have for quite a good while past been going through the Dardanelles, carrying men and supplies to the new Russian strongholds of the far East.

Rights as to Contraband.

On the other question,—that of the right of Russian warships to overhaul the merchant vessels of neutral powers in their search for contraband of war,—the principles of international law are pretty well established by numerous precedents and decisions of admiralty courts. The Russians hold that the British and other European ships have been engaged in a very large and profitable trade with Japan, carrying supplies that are undoubtedly intended directly or indirectly for military purposes. The *Malacca* had on board a large quantity of explosives which the officers of the *Petersburg* thought were destined for Japan. The British, on the other hand, claim that these explosives had been sent by his majesty's government for the British port of Hongkong.

Russia's Side of the Question.

There was, in point of fact, no ground for serious excitement in England, for the simple reason that Russia, in her present position, would not dream of intentionally violating the rights of neutrals in the Mediterranean or the Red Sea, and for the further reason that the facts, so far as reported, in relation to the passage of the Dardanelles, while to the disadvantage of the Japanese, are not clearly in violation of Russia's established custom, nor yet of the strict and technical meaning of the treaty of Paris. The presumption of this treaty is that if the Turkish Government at Constantinople raises no complaint, there has probably been no unlawful use of the Dardanelles by warships. The advantage of the recent



From a Japanese painting.

FIELD MARSHAL COUNT OYAMA.

(Commander-in-chief of all the Japanese armies in the field.)

rapprochement between England and Germany lies in the fact that it becomes easier to adjust such incidents as these in the Red Sea waters and to bring the common opinion of European nations to bear upon the fair and proper enforcement of the rights of neutrals and the spirit of international law.

The Japanese Advance.

By the middle of July, the Japanese advance had brought Generals Kuroki, Oku, and Nodzu into close communication, making a combined Japanese army of two hundred thousand men, stretching in a semicircle of about one hundred and fifty miles, extending eastward from the railroad. Its northern point was about twenty miles from the railroad, south of Liao-Yang, through Feng-Wang-Cheng, on the east, to within a few miles of Kai-Ping (or Kai-Chow), on the south.

A Great Game of Flanking.

After the battle of Vafangow (or Telissu), July 14 to 16, the land forces of the two nations paused in their operations. It was becoming evident that the great pitched battle between General Kuropatkin and the three Japanese commanders op-

posed to him was not so certain as the war prophets would have had us believe. Operations had developed along such lines that the campaign seemed like a great game of flanking, with neither side willing to risk a serious encounter until all the pawns in the game had been properly distributed.

Junction of the Three Armies.

It will be remembered that the first Japanese army, under Gen. Baron Itei Kuroki, which defeated the Russians, May 1, on the Yalu River and at various points between the Korean border and Feng-Wang-Cheng, had been encamped mainly at the last-named place. The second Japanese



GENERAL BARON MICHITSURA NODZU.
(Commanding the Japanese Third Army.)

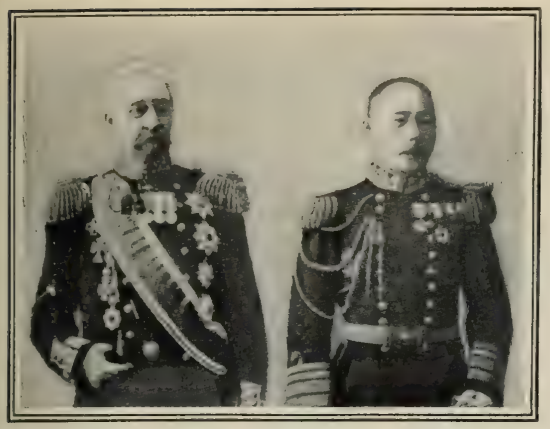
army, under command of Gen. Baron Hokyo Oku, had landed at various points on the Liao-tung Peninsula, north of Port Arthur, moved south, attacked the Russians at Kin-Chow, defeated them in the battle of Nanshan Hill, and, leaving a force to besiege Port Arthur, again turned northward, driving the Russians out of the Liao-tung Peninsula, the principal engagements being the one at Vafangow and the capture of Kai-Ping. The third army, commanded by Gen. Baron Michitsura Nodzu, had landed at Takushan, on the Korean Gulf, defeated the Russians at Siu-Yen, moved northeastward, and filled in the gap in the Japanese line between Kuroki and Oku. On July 20, Field Marshal Oyama, commander-in-chief of all the Japanese armies in the field, arrived at Dalny and took immediate direction of operations against the Russians.

The Russian Lines.

General Kuropatkin had about one hundred and twenty-five thousand Russians, concentrated principally at Liao-Yang, with his outposts extending northward, guarding the railroad to Mukden, the capital of Manchuria, and southward on the railroad to Tashichiao, near which General Stakelberg, resting after his defeat at Vafangow, had been holding the Russian right flank. The government at St. Petersburg professes absolute confidence in General Kuropatkin, and declares that the victories claimed by the Japanese have been, in the main, allowed, by the Russians retiring from reconnoissances. General Kuropatkin makes his headquarters in a railroad car near Liao-Yang, and announces his satisfaction with the way things are going—although we have reports of serious differences of opinion between Admiral Alexieff and himself. The Japanese, by the way, praise General Kuropatkin for his courage and cool-headedness, but (in the words of the *Taiyo*, of Tokio) "Alexieff is a disgrace to Russia." It was he, the Japanese declare, who brought on the war, and now "he is cowardly enough to lay the blame for failure on General Kuropatkin."

Closing in on Kuropatkin.

In the course of the Japanese advance, there had been several important engagements, although no large battle. In several engagements during the first few days of July, the Japanese captured two important passes in the mountain range which separates Feng-Wang-Cheng from the railroad, the most important being the Mo-Ting-Ling Pass. The capture of the important city of Kai-Ping (or Kai-Chow) by the Japanese must not be forgotten. On July 17, General Count Keller—who had succeeded General Sassulitch (defeated on the Yalu)—made an attack in force on the Japanese to recover this pass, but was beaten back with considerable loss in men and guns. An alleged interview with General Kuroki asserts that the Japanese aim for this year is to occupy the entire Liao-tung Peninsula, seize Port Arthur, garrison that place and Yinkow, and force the evacuation of Newchwang by the Russians. General Kuropatkin's men left the last-named city early in May, but reoccupied it soon after. The Japanese expected to force its evacuation by capturing its port of Yinkow, at the mouth of the Liao River.



(The Russian admiral, Bezobrazoff, of the Vladivostok squadron, and the Japanese admiral, Kamimura, who have been looking for each other, the former to avoid, the latter to bring about, a battle.)

At Port Arthur.

It was impossible to state with accuracy the actual result of the Japanese operations against Port Arthur up to July 20. So many conflicting reports had been received, most of them passed by the censors on both sides, perhaps with an intent to mislead, that the condition of the besiegers, as well as that of the defenders, of the fortress was uncertain. General Nogi, reported in command of the Japanese fourth army, who was besieging Port Arthur, had landed siege guns at Dalny, and was placing them upon the hills around Port Arthur, which the Japanese had been taking one by one during the last week in June. Admiral Togo reported that on the night of June 27 a torpedo attack at the entrance of the harbor resulted in the sinking of a Russian guardship and a torpedo-boat destroyer. This the Russians positively denied.

Dash by the Russian Ships.

It is certain that, on the night of June 22, Admiral Wittshoeft, the actual Russian commander at Port Arthur, with six battleships (including the *Retvizan*, the *Czarevitch*, and the *Pallada*, which had been repaired), four cruisers (probably the *Novik*, the *Diana*, the *Askold*, and the *Bayan*), and fourteen destroyers, planned a dash to escape. The Japanese patrols discovered the Russians and informed Admiral Togo by wireless telegraphy. All night the Japanese torpedo boats harassed the Russians, destroying, according to Japanese reports, the battleship *Peresviet*, disabling the battleship *Sevastopol*, and seriously injuring the cruiser *Diana*. When Admiral Togo arrived the next morning, the Russian ships had escaped into the harbor. Admiral Alexieff's report to the Czar positively denied the loss of any vessel in this engagement, but the testimony of many Chinese who subsequently left Port Arthur would seem to confirm beyond a doubt the truth of Admiral Togo's report.

Story of the Vladivostok Ships.

Russia's successes up to the middle of July, little as they could affect the final outcome of the war, had been achieved by the now famous Vladivostok squadron. These four ships, the *Rossia*, the *Rurik*, the *Bogatyr* (recently hauled off the rocks and repaired), and the *Gromoboi*, with seven or eight torpedo boats, had kept up a constant raiding since the gallant Admiral Skrydloff took command, early in June. They are fine cruisers, of high speed, which has enabled them to escape punishment by the heavier but slower-moving Japanese warships with which Admiral Kamimura has been watching them. The actual commander of the squadron in its operations was Vice-Admiral Bezobrazoff, but the directing spirit has been Skrydloff. The raids had all been successful. The third excursion, on June 30, was made down the east coast of Korea. The town of Wonsan was again shelled, and two small vessels sunk. Admiral Kamimura gave chase, but the Russians extinguished their lights and escaped in the darkness and fog. As we go to press, the squadron is reported to have again left Vladivostok and to be in the Pacific Ocean, preying on Japanese commerce. Judged by the test of actual achievement, Admiral Skrydloff is the greatest Russian commander of the war in either branch of the service.

Telegraph and Telephone in War.

In the matter of the use of the telegraph and the telephone in warfare, the Japanese are as much up-to-date as any European army. The British boast of being the first to use telegraphy in war; the Japanese proudly claim that they are the first to use wireless telegraphy. The service rendered by the "wireless" in Japan's naval operations has already been spoken of in these pages, and is further considered in Mr. Maver's article in this number of the REVIEW. The Japanese field telegraph and telephone service is very highly developed, and the telegraph section of their engineer corps not only establishes and maintains communication for their own army, but has done some excellent work in destroying the wires of the Russians. It is reported that during the battle of Vafangow the Japanese batteries, stretching over a front of some fifteen or twenty miles, were all connected by telephone. In connection with what Mr. Maver has to say about the intention of the United States Government to assume control of the

wireless telegraph stations on our coasts, it is interesting to note that early in July a bill was introduced in the British Parliament making wireless telegraphy a government monopoly throughout the United Kingdom.

Internal Unrest In Russia.

Reports of internal unrest continue to come from Russia. Last month Poland was reported to be on the verge of revolution, and Governor-General Chertkoff has asked for authority to proclaim the province in a state of siege. On June 29, about one thousand Socialists and others who had been thrown out of work as a result of the industrial depression caused by the war paraded the streets of Warsaw, carrying red flags inscribed "Down with Czarism." The police, it is reported, made no attempt to stop the procession, and even took off their caps as it went by. Disturbances over the suppression of the Armenian Church have not been quelled; and the Russification policy of Minister von Plehve has excited widespread denunciation even in the French press, M. Clémenceau referring to the minister as "the incarnation of brute force as an arbiter in human affairs." It may be that the Czar is really beginning to see for himself the abuses that General Bobrikoff's assassin killed himself to make known. Early in July, it was announced (although not confirmed) from St. Petersburg that, by imperial decree, "administrative justice" had been abolished, "and persons accused of political crimes will henceforth be tried by the courts under regular legal procedure." The faithful enforcement of this decree would do away with the greatest scandal of Russian misgovernment and the greatest menace to the development of Russia in the direction of modern civilization.

General Bobrikoff's Successor.

The appointment of Prince John Obolensky to succeed the late General Bobrikoff as governor-general of Finland (not General von Wahl, as had been previously announced) is an indication that the policy of repression is to be continued. In his letter to a friend, which came out after his double killing of Bobrikoff and himself, Young Schaumann declared that he had no confederates, but that his deed was prompted solely by a desire to get before the Czar information concerning the Russian administration in Finland which otherwise the monarch would never know. The obsequious Finnish Senators, most of them creatures of Bobrikoff, had passed "a strongly worded resolution" expressing the "deepest condemnation" of Schaumann's crime and disclaiming any sympathy with the so-called pro-Swedish party. The Czar, through Minister von Plehve, had declared that the Finnish people should not suffer for Schaumann's crime, but the appointment of Prince John Obolensky would indicate that, after all, the young idealistic Finn died in vain. The career of the new governor-general has gained him the reputation of being one of the most cruel and ruthless administrators in Russia. His harsh treatment of the offending students and peasants in Kharkoff almost cost him his life, in 1902. Even if the new decree against "administrative justice" be actually carried into effect, the appointment of Prince Obolensky is in singular confirmation of what the Finnish writer quoted in our article on Sweden and Norway on page 208 has to say about the real purpose of the Russification policy in Finland.

French Politics.

France's relations to the Vatican continue to verge upon serious open rupture. Pope Pius' recent note to the Roman Catholic powers, through his secretary of state, Monsignor Merry del Val, denouncing President Loubet's visit to the King of Italy, had provided ammunition for the anti-Clericals in the republic, and had resulted in the recall of the French ambassador to the Vatican. The radical supporters of Premier Combes are now demanding the full separation of Church and State, or the abolition of the famous Concordat, under the terms of which Franco-Papal relations have been maintained for a century. Monsignor del Val had gone further than protesting,—he had demanded the resignations of certain French bishops of known Republican sympathies, commanding them to repair to Rome The French Government, on its side, had forbidden them to leave their sees, declaring that, as it pays the salaries of the clergy, it has a right to demand a share in the administration of discipline. Further, it had demanded the withdrawal of the "letters of recall." So the matter stood in the middle of July, when Premier Combes was completely exonerated from connection with the Chartreuse scandal. The premier and his son, who is secretary-general of the ministry of the interior, had been accused of soliciting a bribe of four hundred thousand dollars to prevent the expulsion from France of the monks who manufacture the famous Chartreuse cordial. The Pope is reported to be relying upon the early fall of the present cabinet, and to be accordingly delaying any advances toward reconciliation, in the hope of being able to deal with a government less bitterly anti-Clerical. He has been much offended by the official French recognition of the fact that the Eternal City has passed into the hands of the Italian King.

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From June 21 to July 20, 1904.)

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

June 21.—The Republican national convention meets in Chicago and is addressed by Elihu Root as temporary chairman (see July number of REVIEW OF REVIEWS, page 43)....President Roosevelt names a commission to investigate the *Slocum* disaster at New York.... Louisiana Democrats instruct for Parker.

June 22.—The Republican national convention at Chicago adopts a platform; Speaker Cannon is made permanent chairman....Texas Democrats instruct for Parker; Vermont Democrats declare that he is the most available candidate....Eli H. Porter is named for governor by the Democrats of Vermont.

June 23.—The Republican national convention at Chicago nominates Theodore Roosevelt, of New York, for President, and Charles W. Fairbanks, of Indiana, for Vice-President; no other candidates are named in the convention....Secretary George B. Cortelyou is chosen chairman of the National Republican Committee and at once resigns his cabinet post.

June 24.—President Roosevelt, having accepted the resignations of Attorney-General Knox and Secretary Cortelyou, to take effect on July 1, appoints William H. Moody, now Secretary of the Navy, Attorney-General; Paul Morton, of Illinois, Secretary of the Navy; and Victor H. Metcalf, of California, Secretary of Commerce and Labor....President Roosevelt orders the United States tariff rates extended to and post-offices established in the Panama Canal zone.

June 27.—Judge Charles E. Magoon is appointed general counsel of the Panama Canal Commission.

June 28.—One of the convicted St. Louis "boodlers" makes a confession to Circuit Attorney Folk, giving details of the bribery combine in the St. Louis House of Delegates.

June 29.—Maine Republicans nominate William T. Cobb for governor....Missouri Democrats instruct for Senator Cockrell....President Roosevelt orders the reinspection of all passenger-carrying steamboats in New York Harbor.

June 30.—The Prohibition national convention at Indianapolis nominates Dr. Silas C. Swallow, of Pennsylvania, for President, and George W. Carroll, of Texas, for Vice-President....Vermont Republicans nominate Charles J. Bell for governor.

July 1.—Messrs. Morton and Metcalf succeed Secretaries Moody and Cortelyou, respectively, while Mr. Moody becomes Attorney-General and Mr. Knox retires from the cabinet.

July 2.—President Roosevelt arrives at Oyster Bay.

July 4.—Judge Beekman Winthrop is inaugurated governor of Porto Rico.

July 5.—The Populist national convention nominates Thomas E. Watson, of Georgia, for President, and Thomas H. Tribbles, of Nebraska, for Vice-President.

July 6.—The Democratic national convention meets at St. Louis; John Sharp Williams, of Mississippi, is made temporary chairman.

July 7.—Champ Clark, of Missouri, is made permanent chairman of the Democratic national convention at St. Louis.

July 8.—The Democratic national convention at St. Louis adopts a platform.

July 9.—The Democratic national convention at St. Louis nominates Alton B. Parker, of New York, for President on the first ballot; Judge Parker sends a message to the convention that if its action is ratified by the people he will deem it his duty to maintain the gold standard, and that, in view of the failure of the convention to make any utterance on the subject, he desires this fully understood; the convention replies to Judge Parker that the gold standard is not regarded as an issue in the pending campaign....Democratic primaries in Texas renominate United States Senator Culberson and Governor Lanham.

July 10.—The Democratic national convention at St.



Ex.-Gov. W. H. Hunt. Gov. Beekman Winthrop.

THE INCOMING AND OUTGOING GOVERNORS OF PORTO RICO.

Louis nominates Henry G. Davis, of West Virginia, for Vice-President, and adjourns.

July 11.—President Roosevelt and Senator Fairbanks have a conference at Oyster Bay.

July 12.—William J. Bryan charges that Judge Parker was nominated for President by crooked and indefensible methods.

July 14.—State Senator McCarren, August Belmont, and Congressman W. Bourke Cockran, all of New York, are guests of Chief Judge Parker at Esopus, N. Y.

July 15.—Senator Platt, of New York, and Chairman Cortelyou, of the Republican National Committee, confer with President Roosevelt.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

June 25.—The Canadian Parliament debates the Dundonald-Fisher incident.

June 27.—The New Zealand Parliament opens.

June 28.—President Amador signs a bill which practically establishes a gold standard in Panama.

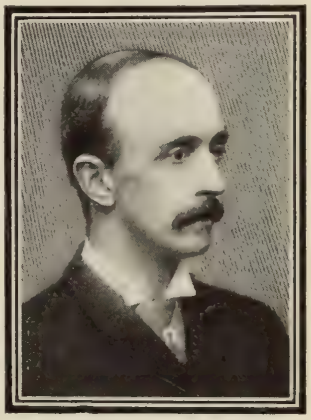
July 1.—Señor Zaldo, secretary of state and justice of Cuba, resigns....The French Chamber of Deputies votes down a proposition to discuss the Chartreuse bribery scandal.

July 6.—The British Government announces that Parliament will not be dissolved this year unless such action be made necessary by lack of support.

July 7.—General André, the French minister of war, is twice defeated in the Chamber of Deputies ....The British Government withdraws the alien immigration bill.

July 11.—The election of Porfirio Diaz as president, and Ramon Corral as vice-president, of the republic of Mexico is announced (see page 198).

July 13.—The French Parliament adjourns.



EARL GRAY.

(The successor of Lord Minto as governor-general of Canada.)

July 14.—The British Government announces its scheme of army reform.

July 15.—A preferential tariff agreement between Canada and the South African states is announced.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

June 22.—Secretary Hay instructs Consul-General Gummere at Tangier to demand of the Moorish Government either Perdicaris alive or Rais-Uli dead.

June 23.—Dr. John F. Elmore is appointed Peruvian minister to the United States.

June 24.—Messrs. Perdicaris and Varley, having been released by the bandit Rais Uli, arrive at Tangier....The Haitien Government apologizes for the stoning of the French minister; France, however, decides to send a warship to demand redress.

June 25.—Señor de Obaldia, the new minister from Panama to the United States, is received by President Roosevelt.

June 27.—Germany decides to send a warship to demand redress from Haiti for the stoning of her minister.

July 4.—It is announced that a British gunboat has been ordered to Newchwang.

July 7.—As a result of inquiries by the United States as to British plans in Tibet, it is learned that the British Government is ready to withdraw its expedition as soon as certain promises are made by the Tibetans.

July 9.—France concludes an arbitration treaty with Sweden and Norway.

July 11.—The British steamer *Cheltenham* is declared a prize of the Russian Vladivostok fleet.



The Russian priest who headed a charge at the battle of the Yalu. He is now ill from his wounds in the Mukden hospital.

July 12.—An Anglo-German arbitration treaty is signed at London.

July 14.—Correspondence disclosing the "open door" negotiations with China is made public at Washington.

July 13.—The *Petersburg*, of the Russian volunteer Black Sea fleet, stops the British liner *Malacca* and takes her as a prize to Suez....Fear of international complications causes a sharp fall of consols in London.

July 15.—The *Smolensk*, of the Russian volunteer Black Sea fleet, stops the North German Lloyd liner *Prinz Heinrich* and seizes her Japanese mail.

July 20.—The British authorities at Port Saïd detain the captured liner *Malacca*, with her Russian prize crew, "pending instructions from England;" the British Government sends a protest to Russia against the seizure, the Dardanelles question being left in abeyance ....France sends an ultimatum to the Vatican demanding the withdrawal of letters recalling bishops under penalty of severance of all relations.

THE RUSSO-JAPANESE WAR.

June 23.—Admiral Togo encounters the Russian fleet off Port Arthur; a battleship is sunk, and a battleship and cruisers disabled....The Russian fleet returns to Port Arthur.

June 25.—General Kuropatkin refuses battle at Kai-Ping, and continues his retreat northward.

June 26.—General Kuropatkin states that the Japanese captured the passes of Fen-shui-ling, Mo-Ting-Ling, and Ta-Ling....The Japanese capture forts southeast of Port Arthur.

June 27.—The Russian Port Arthur fleet makes a sortie, but is discovered by Admiral Togo's patrols, and retires with the reported loss of the *Peresviet* and the *Sevastopol*....The British steamer *Allanton* is captured

by the Vladivostok squadron, and the vessel and her cargo are confiscated.

July 2.—The Vladivostok squadron, under command of Vice-Admiral Bezobrazoff, makes a third raid down the Korean coast, shelling Wonsan and sinking two small Japanese vessels; Admiral Kamimura gives chase, but the Russians escape.

July 5.—The Czar appoints Prince John Obolensky governor-general of Finland, to succeed General Bobrikoff.

July 9.—The Japanese, under General Oku, capture Kai-Ping (or Kai-Chow).

July 17.—A strong Russian force under General Count Keller attacks the Japanese at Mo-Ting-Ling Pass, but is driven back with loss.

July 19.—Chinese refugees from Port Arthur declare that between July 11 and 14 four thousand Japanese were killed by Russian mines in attempting to hold a fort the former had captured.

July 20.—The Vladivostok squadron is reported off the eastern coast of Japan, steaming southward.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

June 21.—The funeral of General Bobrikoff, at St. Petersburg, is attended by the Czar.

June 22.—The first through train for Victoria Falls over the Cape to Cairo Railroad leaves Cape Town.

June 23.—In the fall of a train from a bridge over the Jiloca River, in the province of Ternel, Spain, thirty persons are killed.

June 25.—Three tailors of Milwaukee, Wis., are enjoined from employing other than union workmen.... Exercises commemorating the Canadian tercentenary are held at the mouth of the St. Croix River and at Calais, Maine....An international congress of the Salvation Army opens in London.

June 27.—Thirty-three persons are drowned by an accident in a water main near Kingston, Jamaica.

June 28.—A monument erected in memory of the French troops who fell at Waterloo is unveiled on the battlefield....Nearly six hundred emigrants are drowned in the sinking of the Scandinavian-American steamer *Norge*, which strikes a rock west of the Hebrides....The United States Navy Department signs a contract with the De Forest Company for a wireless telegraph service (see page 191).

June 30.—The National Educational Association meets at St. Louis.

July 4.—The centennial anniversary of the birth of Nathaniel Hawthorne is observed at Concord, Mass. (see page 232).

July 5.—More than a thousand Achinese,—men, women, and children,—are reported to have been slaughtered by Dutch troops.

July 6.—The fiftieth anniversary of the birth of the Republican party is celebrated at Jackson, Mich., Secretary Hay being the orator of the day.

July 10.—In a wreck on the Erie Railroad, at Midvale, N. J., 15 persons are killed and 50 injured.

July 12.—Fifty thousand employees of the great meat-packing companies of the United States go on strike because of wage-reductions affecting unskilled laborers; a meat famine is threatened throughout the country.

July 13.—A cloudburst near Manila, P. I., kills two hundred persons and damages property to the amount of $2,000,000....In a collision on the Chicago & Eastern Illinois Railroad, near Chicago, 20 persons are killed and 25 injured.

July 16.—All negotiations between the packers and their employees for a settlement of the strike are broken off.

July 19.—President Roosevelt receives a delegation of Pennsylvania miners at Oyster Bay.

July 20.—Mrs. Florence Maybrick leaves England, a free woman....The meat strike is settled, arbitration between packers and strikers being arranged.

OBITUARY.

June 23.—Rev. Alexander MacKennal, D.D., 69.

June 24.—Ex-Congressman Carlos D. Sheldon, of Michigan, 64....Lieut.-Col. Wright P. Edgerton, professor of mathematics at West Point, 52.

June 25.—Clement Scott, the English dramatic critic, 63....Henry A. Rogers, president of the New York Board of Education, 60....Ex-Congressman James A. McKenzie, of Kentucky, 64.

June 26.—Monsignor Guidi, apostolic delegate to the Philippines, 52.

June 28.—"Dan" Emmett, the author of "Dixie," 89.

June 29.—Col. Joseph H. Brigham, Assistant Secretary of Agriculture, 65....Ex-United States Senator John L. Mitchell, of Wisconsin, 62....Charles Hill Sprague, a well-known scientist, 77.

July 1.—George Frederick Watts, the English painter and sculptor, 87....Señor Dupuy de Lome, who was Spanish minister at Washington prior to the outbreak of the Spanish-American War, 53.

July 3.—Dr. Theodor Herzl, president of the Zionist Congress, 44.

July 4.—Prof. John Bell Hatcher, a prominent scientific collector, 46.

July 6.—Ex-Chief Justice Joseph H. Lewis, of the Kentucky Court of Appeals, 80.

July 7.—Brig.-Gen. Thomas B. Howard, a survivor of the Seminole War in Florida, the Creek War in Georgia, the Texas revolution, the Mexican War, and the Civil War, 84.

July 10.—General Toral, the Spanish commander who surrendered Santiago to the American forces, July, 1898.

July 11.—Rt. Rev. Frederick Dan Huntington, Episcopal Bishop of Central New York, 85....Rev. Lemuel Moss, D.D., a well known Baptist writer and educator, 75.

July 12.—Mayor Samuel M. Jones, of Toledo, 58.

July 14.—Paul Krüger, former president of the South African Republic, 79.....George B. Pearson, a pioneer railroad-builder of Iowa, 75.....Lawson N. Fuller, a veteran New York horseman, 80.

July 17.—The Very Rev. Stephen Kealy, of New York, General Superior of the Congregation of St. Paul of the Cross, known as the Passionist Order, of the Roman Catholic Church, 55.

July 18.—Dr. Isaac Roberts, of Crowborough, England, the well-known astronomer and geologist, 75.

July 19.—Robert Lockhart, of New York, linen merchant, called the "father of golf" in this country, 57.

CARTOON COMMENTS ON THE NOMINATIONS.



THE NOMINATION SUGAR PLUM.

"Open your mouth and shut your eyes,
And I'll give you something to make you wise."

From the *Times* (Minneapolis).



A DESIGN FOR AN HISTORICAL TABLET.

From the *Brooklyn Eagle* (New York).



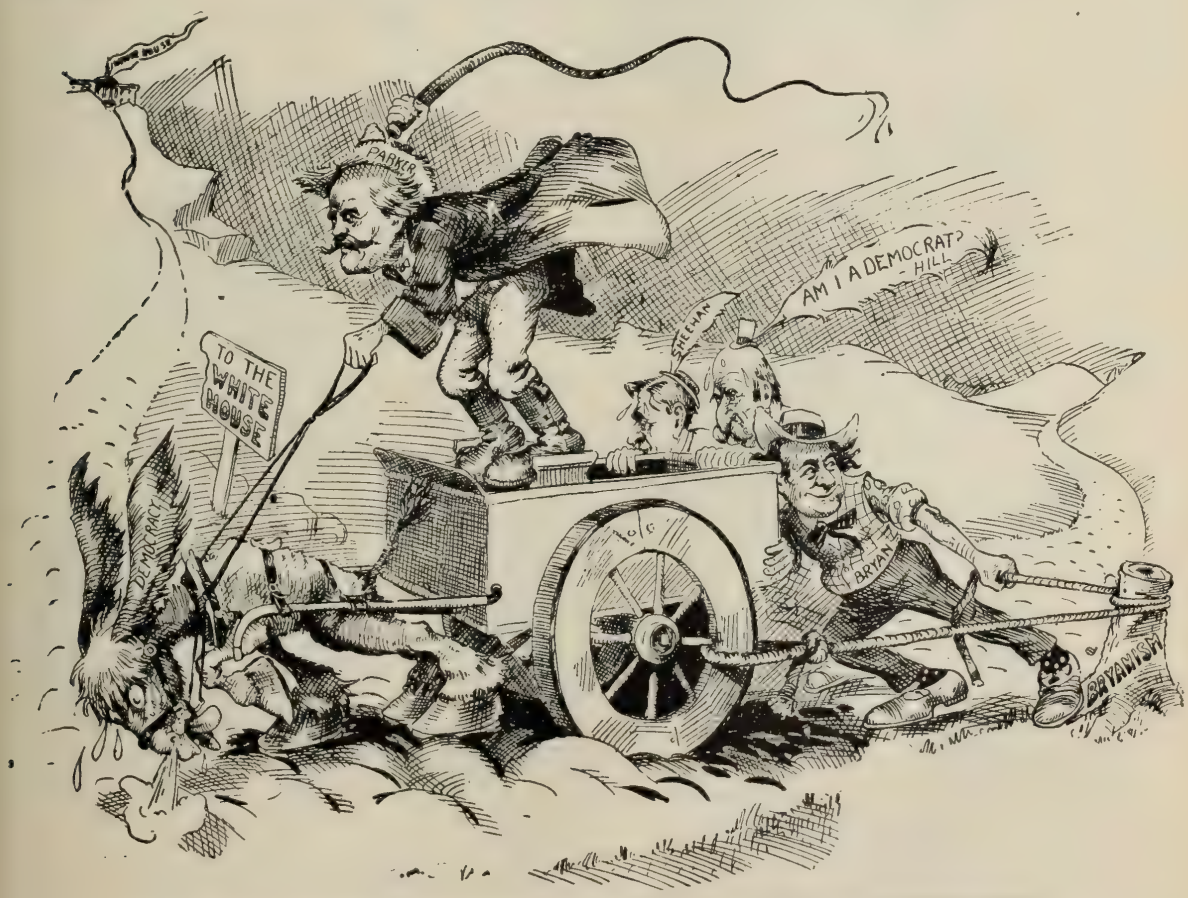
"Which way art thou going, Discordius?"
"To St. Louis! Got a date with a bunch down there."

From the *Pioneer Press* (St. Paul).



CHOOSING A CHAUFFEUR.

UNCLE SAM: "Well, Judge, I guess I'd feel a little safer with you to run this machine."—From the *American* (New York).

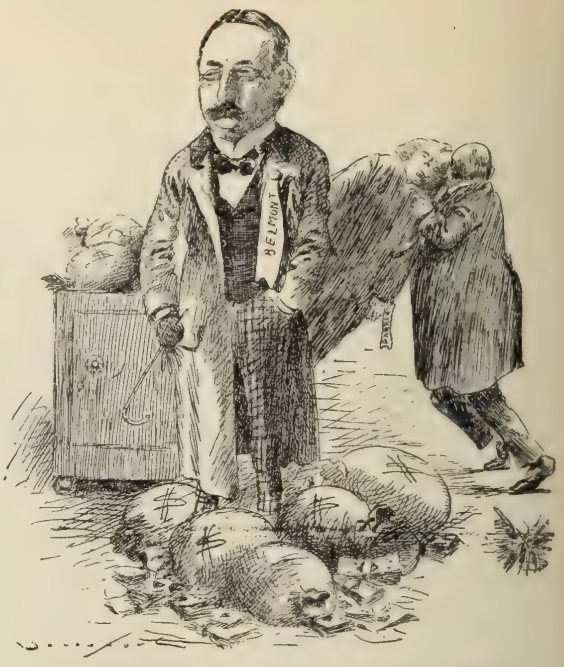


BRYAN (at back of wagon): "Now, all together, push!"—From the *North American* (Philadelphia).



WHEN MR. BRYAN SPEAKS FOR PARKER.

From the *Mail* (New York).



THE GOLD PLANK IN THE DEMOCRATIC PLATFORM.

From the *Mail* (New York).

A notable change in the cartoon field is the appearance of Mr. Homer Davenport on the Republican side. His drawings are published daily in the *Mail*, of New York. Two of them are on this page. His work has its old-time vigor. He has been reiterating the connection of Messrs. Belmont and Hill with Judge Parker's nomination.



THE PLEASED DEMOCRACY.

THE DONKEY: "Say, but this is fine! That's the first time I've been able to make these two wings work together in ten years."—From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



A LARGE ORDER.

"Mr. Bryan will not be allowed to do any talking during the campaign."—*News items.*

From the *Globe* (New York).



UNCLE SAM: "Never swap pilots while crossing a stream."—From the *North American* (Philadelphia).



MR. ROOSEVELT: "This is so sudden."

From the *Tribune* (Chicago).



THE PRESIDENT (to Mr. Paul Morton, the new Secretary of the Navy): "You have done so well with the cars, now let's see what you can do with the ships."

From the *Leader* (Cleveland).



"HORSE SENSE," AS ILLUSTRATED BY FOUR CANDIDATES.

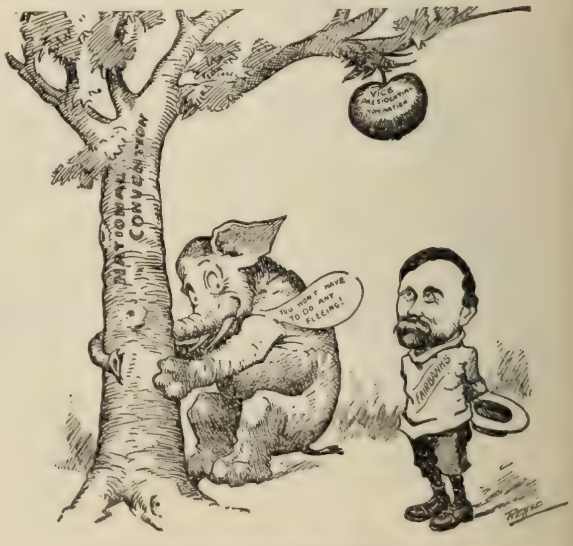
(The newspapers tell of the daily horseback rides of Mr. Roosevelt, Judge Parker, and the venerable Mr. Davis, of West Virginia. But Candidate Fairbanks, of Indiana, takes the summer more calmly.)

From the *Herald* (New York).



SOME HOOSIER STATESMEN WILLING TO TRY ON THE SENATORIAL SHOES OF VICE-PRESIDENTIAL NOMINEE FAIRBANKS.

From the *Times* (Minneapolis).



SENATOR FAIRBANKS UNDER THE APPLE TREE.

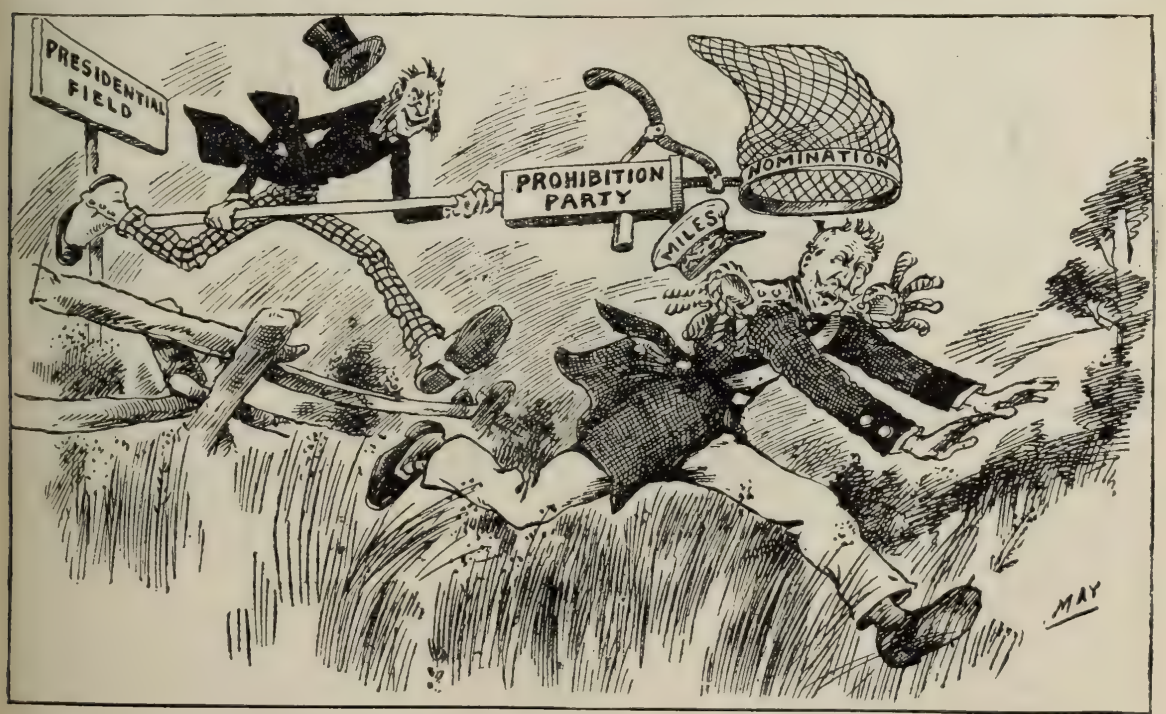
'Tis not for me to shake the tree,
But if the fruit should drop, I would not flee.

From the *Pioneer Press* (St. Paul).



NOTIFYING THE DEMOCRATIC CANDIDATE FOR VICE-PRESIDENT.—From the *Journal* (Detroit).

(Mr. Davis is a multi-millionaire, and it is said that the committee will "hold him up" for a tremendous contribution to the campaign fund.)



"WHEN A GOOD SOLDIER RUNS AWAY."—From the *Journal* (Detroit).

(Apropos of the final decision of Gen. Nelson A. Miles not to accept the Prohibitionist nomination for the Presidency.)



IN THE DAYS OF ANCIENT TROY DID THEY FOOL THE "HOI POLLOI?" BET YOUR LIFE!

From the series of Mr. F. Opper's drawings in the New York *American* entitled, "It Is as Old as the Hills."



THE MAN FOR AN EMERGENCY.

"Where every god did seem to set his seal
To give the world assurance of a man."—*Hamlet.*

From the *Brooklyn Eagle* (New York).



SPIKED.

Judge Parker spiking the Republican campaign gun by his gold issue telegram to the St. Louis convention.

From the *World* (New York).



THE BALLAD OF THE BEEF TRUST.

[After "Mother Goose."]

Hey diddle diddle, the trust and the fiddle,
The cow jumped over the moon;
The elephant laughed to see such graft,
And the dish ran away with the spoon.

From the *American* (New York).

ALTON B. PARKER: A CHARACTER SKETCH.

BY JAMES CREELMAN.

(Staff correspondent of the New York *World*.)

THE supreme mission of the Democratic party in the United States is to keep alive the principle of competition; and, with that political and economic idea accepted as the underlying thought of our peculiar form of government, Alton Brooks Parker emerges into the struggle for control of the nation as the undeniable leader of conservatism.

With the nomination of this strong, brave, sober American—who has risen, by sheer force of character, from the obscure drudgery of a farm boy to preside, at the age of forty-five years, over the highest court in the great State of New York—the Democracy once more takes its place as the advocate and guarantor of government according to the written Constitution and written laws, as against the personal and radical policies which inspire and control the Republican party to-day.

At the root of Judge Parker's candidacy is the contention that a just government exists only for public purposes, and that the use of public powers for private ends—as in the tariff laws—not only violates the spirit of our institutions, but leads to favoritism, corruption, and a perilous disruption of the conditions which are necessary to the equal development of the moral, mental, and material interests of the American people.

Judge Parker stands for experience and precedent, as opposed to inspiration. He believes in party responsibility rather than in personal responsibility for government. In that respect he is unlike Grover Cleveland or Theodore Roosevelt. One must go to the earlier American Presidents to find his like in character and temperament.

For months before his nomination for President, Judge Parker was accused of cowardice because he refused to stain the traditions of his great judicial office by publicly discussing political questions. He bore the strain of open criticism and private pressure in silence. Political leaders and powerful newspapers, once urging his nomination, grew faint in their support, and showered him with messages of warning. With a bitterness almost unprecedented in American politics, Mr. Bryan attacked him as "the muzzled candidate" of corrupt Wall Street adventurers and sinister politicians. The leader of Tammany Hall fomented opposition to his nomination on the ground that he was not his own master, and that his silence was due to the control of David B. Hill. Every device that human ingenuity could suggest was used to sting him into utterance.

The splendid mettle of the man was demonstrated by his dignified silence in the face of slander and undeserved abuse. Not even to gain the greatest office on earth would he violate his lofty conceptions of judicial and civic propriety. That ringing telegram to the St. Louis convention afterward smote the Bryan and Tammany falsehoods into dust, and revealed Judge Parker as a statesman and leader of unshakable convictions, independence, and lion-like courage. But, until his party called him, he forbore to speak.

Not only his opponents demanded a statement of his views. His warmest supporters urged him to make his political opinions known. The New York *World*, foremost among those who advocated his nomination, warned him in a series of powerful editorials that his silence gave a color of justification to Mr. Bryan's tirades, and that he was rapidly losing political strength. In behalf of the editor of the *World*, the writer of this article wrote to Judge Parker. This is a part of his reply, which I venture now to publish for the first time:

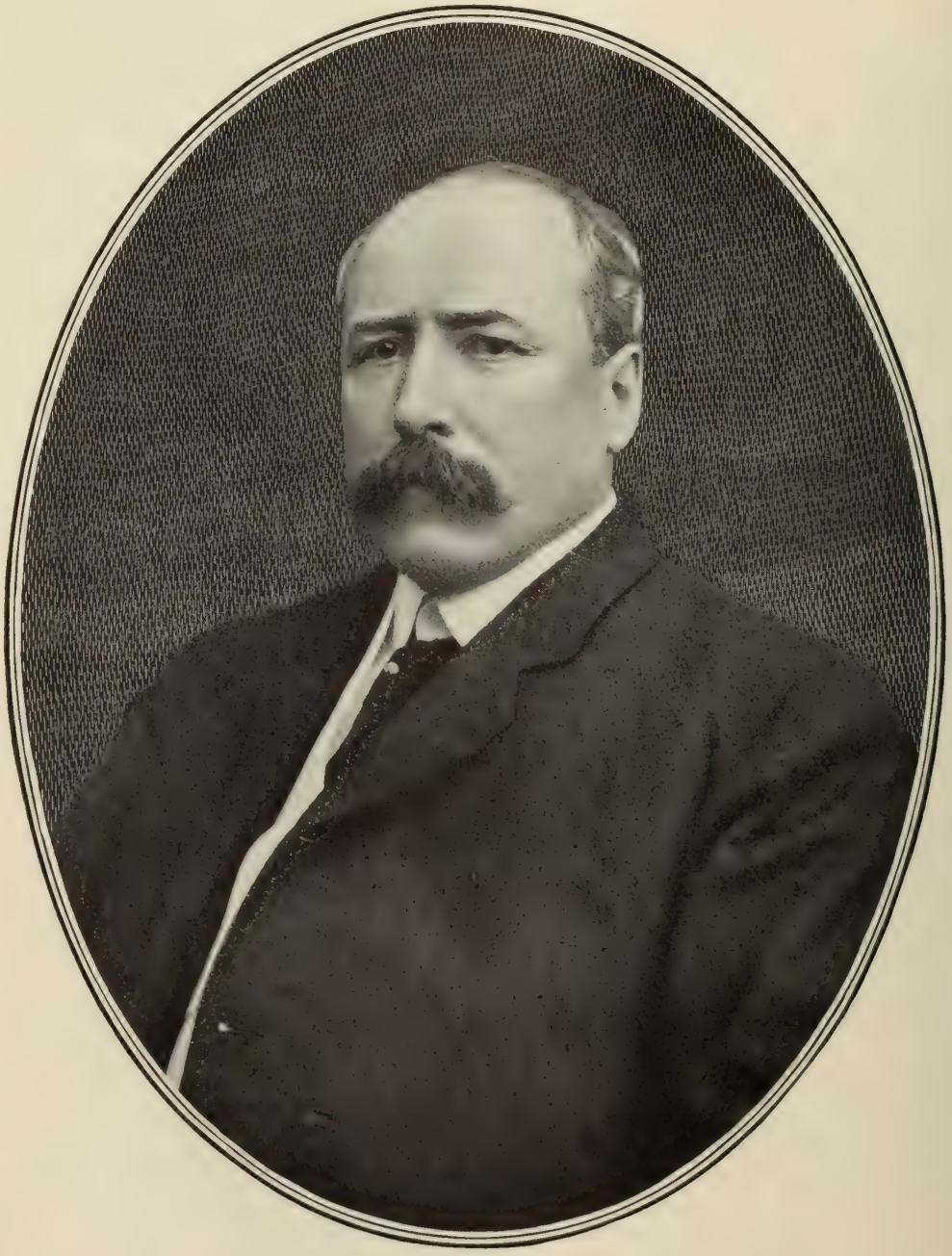
ALBANY, June 17, 1904.

You may be right in thinking that an expression of my views is necessary to secure the nomination. If so, let the nomination go. I took the position that I have maintained,—first, because I deemed it my duty to the court; second, because I do not think the nomination for such an office should be sought. I still believe that I am right, and therefore expect to remain steadfast.

Very truly yours,

ALTON B. PARKER.

There, in his own hand, is Judge Parker's explanation of his silence. It illustrates his character. He might have answered Mr. Bryan by pointing to his labor-union decisions and his sweeping common-law condemnation of combinations in restraint of trade. He might have shown that he was under no political obligations to David B. Hill, for the reason that it was he who managed the campaign which resulted in Mr. Hill's election as governor of New York. But he endured misrepresentation and caricature



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HON. ALTON BROOKS PARKER, OF NEW YORK.

patiently. When the proper time came, he spoke, and the whole nation heard and understood.

Judge Parker's message declining to accept the Democratic nomination for President, except on the understanding that he would maintain the gold standard of money values, was no more remarkable and significant than his refusal to play politics from the bench. In these days of strenuous heroes, the American people welcome the tranquil courage of such a man. The Democratic party can well invite comparison of the personalities of Alton B. Parker and Theodore Roosevelt.

The Chief Judge of the Court of Appeals of New York is a man of impressive stature and handsome appearance. He is six feet tall, weighs one hundred and ninety-six pounds, and has the proportions of an athlete. He was fifty-two years old on May 14. He has a large head and the face of a country-bred gentleman,—strong, fresh-colored, and unwrinkled. There is a singular suggestion of power, courage, and good nature in his personality. The eyes are large, brown, and luminous—sincere and direct. The nose is aquiline, the jaws large and curved,



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MRS. ALTON B. PARKER.

and the chin round and massive. The teeth are big and white, the lower lip heavy and protruding, and the thick mustache coarse and tawny.

The judge has a wide, high forehead. The top-head indicates penetration, energy, benevolence, reverence, and firmness. The hair is reddish-brown. It is a head devoid of eccentricity in its lines—full, even, symmetrical.

There is a simple, unpretending dignity about the man that fits his massive physique and easy, upright carriage. He is sober, sincere, unselfish, decent. Men in every walk of life turn to him instinctively with confidence. There is neither exaggeration nor self-consciousness in his speech or manner. He does not boast. He has a hearty scorn for heroics. Firm in spirit, even-tempered, charitable in his judgments of others, loyal in friendship, loving work for its own sake, seeing in law only the means of justice and order, he unites the virilities and the sobrieties in his strong, modest character. He has, too, a native sense of humor that will never permit him to become pompous.

Judge Parker may be said to be a man free from eccentricities, unless intellectual integrity and a sound moral imagination are to be considered abnormal in an age of weak demagoguery. He listens well, patiently searches



From a stereograph, copyright, 1904, by Underwood & Underwood, New York.

JUDGE PARKER AND HIS GRANDCHILDREN.
(Photograph taken July 16, 1904.)

for facts, makes up his mind slowly, and aims at general and permanent rather than particular or temporary results.

In a memorial speech on the late President McKinley, at Kingston, Judge Parker unconsciously described himself:

> His mind was judicial, and would not be drawn from a patient search for the evidence that would show in which direction truth and justice lay by the clamor of those who insistently demanded that the President should always lead the people instead of working their will. . . . President McKinley devoted his time to the performance of duty as he understood it, not in attempting to make the people think he was doing his duty. He submitted without a murmur to undeserved criticism, and kept his counsel when unjustly assailed, apparently content that his deeds should in the end speak for themselves. And his was wise counsel, was it not?



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JUDGE PARKER'S HOUSE AT ESOPUS, NEW YORK.

These were the highest qualities that Judge Parker saw in a popular war President.

The Democratic candidate for President is not only the head of a great court, but he owns and operates three farms in New York State. He has been a practical and successful farmer always. His charming old-fashioned home at Esopus is on one of these farms, on the brow of a green slope on the Hudson River. It is only sixty miles from Albany, so that his week-ends and summers are spent in this beautiful place, with his family, his trees, crops, blooded cattle, and fine library. He rides for an hour on horseback every day, directs and personally assists in the farm work, and is widely known and trusted by the country folk.



JUDGE PARKER AND HIS FAVORITE HORSE.

Standing among his great bulls or striding over his well-cultivated fields, he is the incarnation of manly Americanism. Nor does he need a slouch hat to suggest virility.

The judge's great-grandfather was a farmer of Worcester, Mass., who left his fields to serve as a private soldier under Washington and returned to them when the national independence was won. The son of this farmer-patriot was also a farmer, a man of superior intelligence, education, and spirit. He moved to New York State in 1803, and bought a farm near the village of Cortland, on which the Democratic candidate for President was born, on May 14, 1852. Judge Parker's father was also born there. He was a man of broad and acquisitive mind, and his love for books was a matter for comment among his neighbors. In spite of his bitter struggle for existence, he read widely and deeply.

There was nothing remarkable about the youth of Judge Parker. He worked about his father's farm, went to the village school, and afterward went to the Cortland Academy. His early steps were guided by a devout and in-



JUDGE PARKER, WITH HIS DAUGHTER, MRS. HALL, AND HIS SECRETARY, ON THE VERANDA OF HIS ESOPUS HOUSE.
(This veranda may become as well known as was the famous McKinley front porch at Canton.)

telligent mother, who is still living. In time he became a schoolmaster, established his authority by thrashing the school bully, and developed into a serious, dignified young man, with an income of three dollars a day.

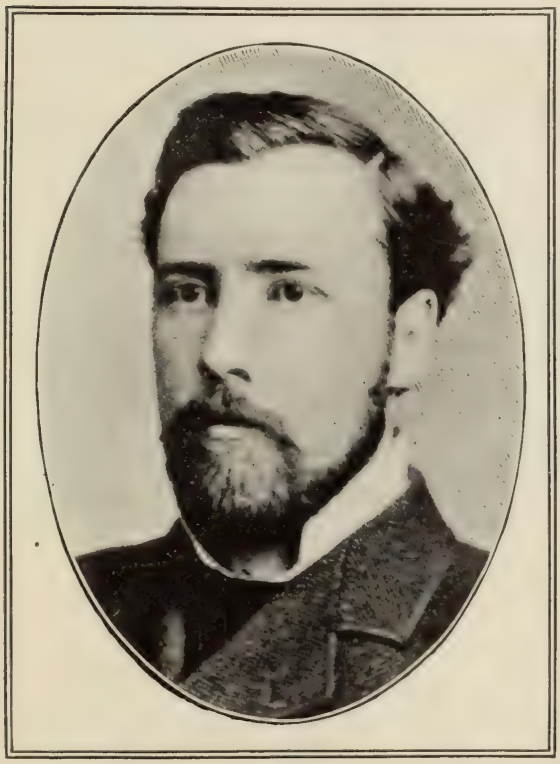
His father's necessities compelled him to give up his hope of entering Cornell University. A part of his small income was needed at home. He went to Kingston-on-the-Hudson, and entered the law office of Schoonmaker & Hardenburgh as a clerk. Then he studied in the Albany Law School, returning to his clerkship after graduating. Presently he took a young lawyer named Kenyon as partner and opened a law office in Kingston. For twelve years he practised law, winning several important cases, but not greatly distinguishing himself, except for his integrity and common sense.

It was an accident of circumstances that took Judge Parker into politics at first. His old employer, Mr. Schoonmaker, had been driven out of politics by the machinations of his personal enemies. The young lawyer entered political life simply to vindicate his former protector, and he never rested until Mr. Schoonmaker had been restored to influence and popularity. The fight was long, hard, and unselfish. Judge Parker was soon recognized as the ablest party man in Ulster County. Samuel J. Tilden, then the national leader of the Democracy, sent for him and asked him to revise the list of working Democrats in his county. Mr. Manning, Mr. Tilden's ablest lieutenant, also consulted the young leader. It is characteristic of Judge Parker that in those days, when he controlled the Democratic organization of his county, he declined to assume the titular leadership, contenting himself with the position of principal party adviser, and leaving the nominal honors to others.

In 1877, when only twenty-five years old, he was elected Surrogate of Ulster County. He discharged his judicial duties so satisfactorily that at the expiration of his term of office he was renominated and the Republicans declined to put a candidate in opposition.

In 1884, Judge Parker was a delegate to the Democratic national convention. When Mr. Cleveland assumed the Presidency he offered to make the judge First Assistant Postmaster-General. The office was declined. The position of "party headsman" was not to Judge Parker's taste.

Now came an important event in the judge's career. He became chairman of the Democratic State Executive Committee, and managed the campaign of 1885 which made David B. Hill governor of New York. A few months later, Mr. Hill appointed him to a seat on the Supreme Court bench, made vacant by the death of Justice Westbrook.



ALTON B. PARKER.
(From a photograph taken in 1879.)

Much has been said about Judge Parker's political obligations to Mr. Hill. Little has been said about Mr. Hill's obligations to Judge Parker. It is all a matter of nineteen years ago, when Judge Parker was thirty-three years old, but the truth is that Mr. Hill did not appoint the man who won his battle in 1885—a victory that opened the way to the United States Senate—until he was besought by powerful delegations of lawyers. If there is any political debt existing between Judge Parker and Mr. Hill on account of that bygone time, Mr. Hill, and not Judge Parker, is the debtor. It is a sign of a chivalrous nature that Judge Parker has never sought to better his political prospects by calling attention to the actual facts. He has been denounced as Mr. Hill's creature, for no other reason than that, nineteen years ago, Mr. Hill named him to fill a brief unexpired judicial term. To those who know Judge Parker and have had experience of his strength and independence, nothing can be more ridiculously false than the idea that Judge Parker is not in every sense his own master.

From the day on which he took his seat on the Supreme Court bench up to the hour when his message to St. Louis took the money-standard question out of American politics, Judge Parker showed his high conception of official propriety and his force of character by refusing to discuss political issues directly or indirectly. The temperate language of his judicial decisions, the absence of literary preachments, political *obiter dicta*, or self-conscious virtue, are in themselves a demonstration of rare qualities in the man. A judge, he was content to declare the law, without invading the work of the executive or legislative departments, the schools, or the churches. For a strong party man, in the flush of youth and fresh from the emotions and environments of a victorious State campaign, these nineteen years of political silence are evidence of conscience, self-control, and dignity. They explain, too, why a man of Judge Parker's commanding abilities should be so little known to the politicians.

After serving out Justice Westbrook's term, Judge Parker was elected to succeed himself. Then came the disastrous campaign of 1896, when Bryanism and free silver almost destroyed the Democratic party in New York. In the following year he was elected Chief Judge of the Court of Appeals, carrying the State by a plurality of 60,889 votes.

That victory, coming on the heels of a great party defeat, attracted attention to Judge Parker as a man of unusual political availability. He continued in his policy of silence and strict abstention from politics, but his name was ever on the lips of his party. First, the Tammany faction proposed him for governor. Then the Hill faction proposed him for governor. He refused to declare himself a candidate. His attitude then was like his attitude when the national convention met at St. Louis. A judicial officer of his high rank could not decently be a candidate for any office. If his party called him, however, he would answer. And he remained steadfast in his course until the nomination at St. Louis drew from him the telegram in which he declined to accept that great honor at the price of silence on the money-standard question.

Judge Parker comes before the country as a Presidential candidate at a time when his characteristic qualities are especially needed in the executive direction of national affairs. A fanat-



JUDGE PARKER'S MOTHER.

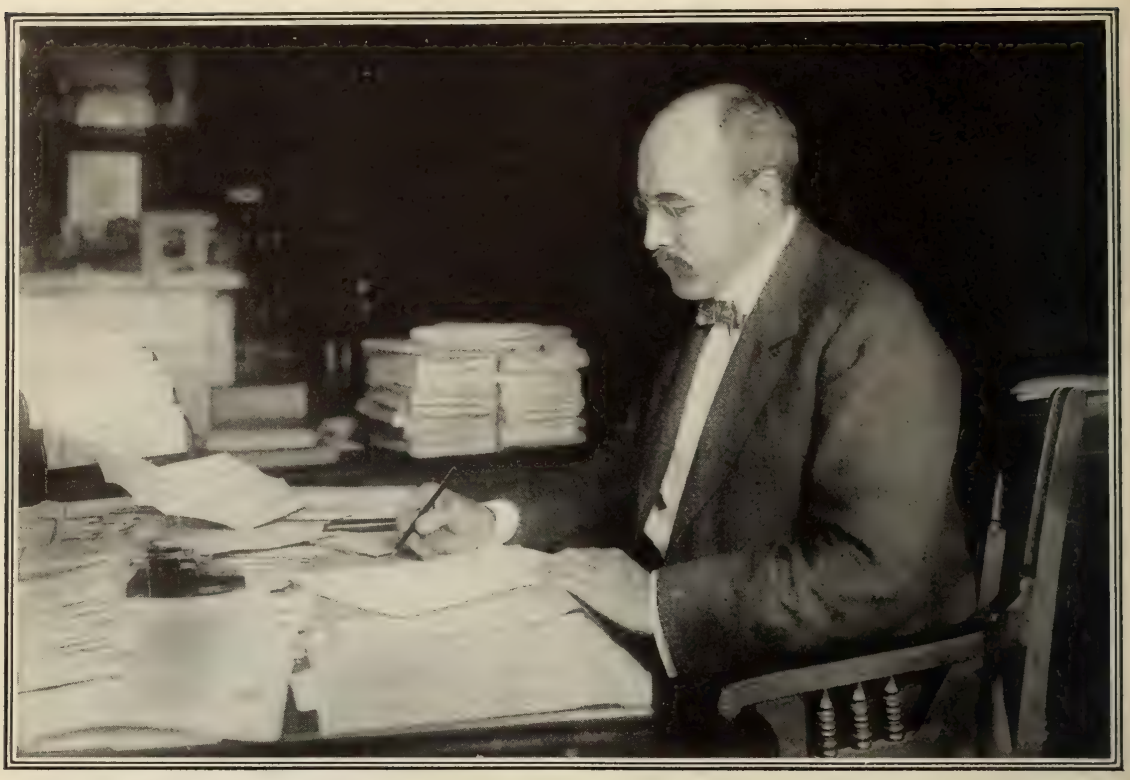
ical high-tariff policy, breeding domestic monopolies, and encouraging national extravagance, has brought about high prices, so that the increase in the cost of living in the United States is out of all proportion to wages. Even President McKinley, in his last public utterance, confessed the need for a change to the plan of commercial reciprocity. He died with a protest against the "stand pat" policy on his lips. Articles made in the United States are sold cheaper in foreign countries than at home. Even from the original protective-tariff standpoint, many great industries have outgrown protection. The task to which the Democratic party sets itself is substantially the elimination of favoritism in taxation. One man's business must not be taxed in order that another man's profits may be increased. The dropping of the income-tax idea by the St. Louis convention clearly proves that the Democratic party contemplates no attack upon the tariff as a means of national revenue. What man in the country is better fitted to lead in this movement against tariff favoritism and its concomitant corruption than Judge Parker? What man is more likely to insist that changes shall be made with a common-sense regard for existing conditions, however artificially and unjustly produced? His character and record are guarantees against rash, headlong policies.

Under the shelter of tariff favoritism, vast industrial and commercial combinations in restraint of trade have paralyzed competition, artificially raised prices, and swindled the public out of hundreds of millions of dollars by means of watered stock. It is true that, on President Roosevelt's initiative, the railroad trust known as the Northern Securities Company was dissolved by the courts. But the coal trust, the beef trust, and other like combinations still flourish. And what the Republican administration did in the prosecution of the Northern Securities Company was done under the compulsion of statute law and insistent public opinion.

Judge Parker's record on the trust question marks him as the man for the hour. In 1896, sitting as a trial justice of the Supreme Court of New York, he decided in the bluestone trust case that it was immaterial whether a combination in restraint of trade was reasonable or unreasonable. The existence of the power to restrain trade was forbidden by the common law. In uttering this conception of sound public policy the judge was not bound by any statute. He was not expressing an academic opinion or making a political speech, but was declaring the law as it stands to-day in the State of New York. He was not at that time a candidate for any office, nor was his name being discussed publicly in any way. There was no political pressure behind him. He was not even acting in concert with other judges, but, sitting alone in a trial court, was free to deliver his own understanding of settled public policy. Afterward, as Chief Judge of the Court of Appeals, a tribunal of last resort, he twice settled the same point in the same way. Quoting Judge Vann's words, he said of a contract in restraint of trade that it is not the possible capacity of the parties for self-restraint, but it is the scope of the contract which furnishes the test of its validity.



BIRTHPLACE OF JUDGE PARKER, NEAR CORTLAND, N. Y.



JUDGE PARKER IN HIS LIBRARY.

No man in any party or at any time has expressed himself more clearly on the trust question than Judge Parker.

Yet his judicial record shows that he knows how to distinguish between a combination in restraint of trade and a legitimate business combination against which a cry has been started. He made that clear in his opinion in the case of the Park & Sons Company against the National Druggists' Association. Here are his words :

It will be seen, therefore, that this is a controversy between opponents in business, neither side trying to help the public. Nor will the public be the gainer by the success of either. The motive behind the action of each party is self-help. It is the usual motive that inspires men to endure great hardships and take enormous risks, that fortune may come.

In the struggle which acquisitiveness prompts, but little consideration is given to those who may be affected adversely. Am I within my legal rights? is as near to the equitable view as competitors in business usually come. When one party finds himself overwhelmed by the strength of the position of the other, he looks about for aid. And quite often he turns to the courts, even when he has no merit of his own, and makes himself for the time being the pretended champion of the public welfare, in the hope that the courts may be deceived into an adjudication that will prove helpful to him.

Now, while the courts will not hesitate to enforce the law intended for the protection of the public because the party invoking such judgment is unworthy or seeks the adjudication for selfish reasons only, they will be careful not to allow the process of the courts to be made use of under a false cry that the interests of the public are menaced, when its real purpose is to strengthen the strategic position of one competitor in business as against another.

These are the frontiers of the trust question outlined by a man accustomed to weigh his words.

Judge Parker's famous opinion upholding the right of a union workman to strike, or to threaten to strike, in order to procure the discharge of a non-union workman, rests upon the theory that any attempt to abate the struggle between capital and labor by governmental interference means the submergence of the rights of the one or the other. His opinion was echoed by the declaration of the Democratic national platform, that "the rights of labor are no less 'vested,' no less 'sacred,' and no less 'inalienable' than the rights of capital." Now that the question of capital and labor is being forced into national politics, the American people are likely to commend this sane and sober view of it.

It is said that Judge Parker's personality is less picturesque, less dashing, less original, and

less brilliant than that of President Roosevelt, and that for that reason he will prove the weaker candidate. Those who rely on that argument forget that Polk defeated Clay, Cleveland defeated Blaine, and McKinley defeated Bryan. It is the second thought of the average American citizen that carries his vote. It is usually conceded that Clay would have been elected had the vote been taken a month after his nomination. That is true also of the candidacies of Blaine and Bryan.

Like President Roosevelt, Judge Parker is a vigorous out-of-door man, but his mind inclines to the cultivation of his three farms and the breeding of pure-blooded cattle rather than to lion hunting. He is no eulogist of war. He will never oppress small nations or threaten Central or South America with an assumed general police power. Nor will he substitute his personal orders for acts of Congress. His record, his training, his temperament, insure this. It is equally certain that he will give no encouragement to those who seek to stir up the race question in the Southern States. And he will stand by his party's definite promise of independence to the Filipinos.

Up to the time of Judge Parker's nomination, President Roosevelt stood as the one heroic figure in American politics. But when a group of timid politicians at St. Louis surrendered to Mr. Bryan's demand that the Democratic platform should be silent on the money-standard question, the time came for Judge Parker to reveal himself as a hero. It was not that the free-silver heresy had any support in the convention. Even Mr. Bryan accepted Judge Parker as an avowed gold-standard man. But there were personal feelings to be considered, a past folly to be ignored.

On the very day the platform was adopted, Joseph Pulitzer, proprietor of the New York *World*, arrived from Europe, ill and exhausted. A telegraphed copy of the platform was read to him. Next morning, the *World* printed a powerful editorial warning Judge Parker that a failure to declare for the gold standard would defeat the party. "Ten words from Judge Parker to the chairman of the New York delegation," said the *World*, "will insure the adoption of a resolution that will make the platform safe and sane." An hour or two after Judge Parker was made aware for the first time that the editorials of the *World* and other independent newspapers had called into question the party's attitude toward the money standard, he sent his telegram declaring that the gold standard was firmly and irrevocably established, and declining the nomination already made unless his views were satisfactory to the convention. Judge Parker's declaration for the gold standard was indorsed by the convention by the overwhelming vote of 774 ayes to 191 noes. In other words, the telegram was approved by 116 more delegates than those who voted for the candidate's nomination.

There is no parallel to that act in American history. It may be that journalism is entitled to some credit for its quick warning ; but, under such circumstances, would Theodore Roosevelt, Grover Cleveland, or William J. Bryan have accepted the hint and acted upon it so swiftly and fearlessly ? Not every hero will take advice, even when it is obviously sound. Judge Parker can listen as well as speak. That is one of his strong traits. He comes before the nation as a leader whom the wise and the brave can safely follow. A great genius ? Probably not. But a sane, courageous, unselfish patriot of the old, pure, Democratic type—that he is beyond all question.

HENRY G. DAVIS, DEMOCRATIC CANDIDATE FOR VICE-PRESIDENT.

BY CHARLES S. ALBERT.

THE career of Henry Gassaway Davis, from brakeman to multimillionaire, and from legislative delegate to Vice-Presidential nominee of the Democratic party, enters the domains of business, statesmanship, politics, and philanthropy. It covers the utmost biblical limit allotted to human activity. It exemplifies the doctrine that energy may be substituted for education and family advantages ; that opportunity is better than inheritance ; and that the degree of success attained is regulated by personal exertion. The recital of his development, acquisition of wealth, and great service to the public, with the climax of prominence that has now come to him, is equaled by the history of few self-made men.

Mr. Davis was born in the little village of Woodstock, Md., a few miles from Baltimore, November 16, 1823. In the event of his elec-



HON. HENRY GASSAWAY DAVIS, OF WEST VIRGINIA.

tion as Vice-President, he will be at that time eight days under eighty-one years old. He comes of Scotch-Welsh stock. His father was Caleb Davis, and his mother, before marriage, was Louisa Brown. His mother's ancestors served in the Revolutionary army. His father was a soldier in the War of 1812, after which he retired as a successful merchant, and lived on a farm in Howard County, Maryland. He founded the village of Woodstock, took contracts for railroad-construction, lost his fortune, and soon after died, leaving a widow with four sons and a daughter. Henry at once became a bread-winner, depriving himself of educational advantages in favor of a younger brother, contenting himself with the meager mental training of a country school, and beginning work on the farm of former Governor Howard. The boy was willing, active, and intelligent. When nineteen years old, he obtained a position as freight brakeman on the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad, which had been extended to Cumberland. He was soon promoted to be a conductor. The energetic manner in which he cleared up a wreck secured him a passenger run.

After five years of railroading, Mr. Davis was made master of transportation and given his first opportunity to display executive ability. He was successful. He made operative the plan of running railroad trains at night. Prior to this innovation, all trains would stop until morning at the stations where darkness overtook

them. Mr. Davis sent an experimental train through from Cumberland to Baltimore, and since that time there has been no suspension of running schedules at nightfall. At that period, Mr. Davis received a salary of less than one hundred dollars per month, but he found it ample to assist his mother in supporting his brothers and sister, laying aside, in addition, sufficient to establish a home for himself. In 1853, he married Miss Kate, daughter of Judge Gideon Bantz, of Frederick, Md. Her death, in 1902, after almost half a century of domestic happiness, proved a severe blow.

Mr. Davis was appointed agent for the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad at Piedmont, W. Va., in 1854. He promptly realized the business opportunities presented in that new country, and assisted his brother, William R. Davis, to become a shipper of coal and lumber. In 1858, he resigned from railroad service and formed the firm of Davis & Brothers. In addition to handling natural products, a general merchandise business was conducted. In that year Mr. Davis organized the Piedmont Savings Bank and was elected its president. At the close of the Civil War, the foundations of a fortune were rapidly and securely established. In 1867, Davis & Brothers purchased several thousand acres of land in Garrett County, Maryland. Timber for ties, bridges, and other purposes was supplied to the railroad company. Mr. Davis laid out on this tract the mountain resort of Deer Park, and constructed an elegant summer residence, where simple hospitality was extended all visitors.

The Deer Park investment having furnished him with sufficient funds, Mr. Davis began obtaining extensive tracts of land in the Cheat River and Upper Potomac regions. Prior to that time, he had carefully examined that territory, desiring to procure information at first hand. All his investigations were made in person. He thoroughly explored the sections in which he sought to acquire property, traveled on foot, and frequently slept at night in the woods. He was conversant with every acre of that undeveloped country, and knew that its forests and hills contained fabulous wealth. The only requisite was a railroad. It was years before Mr. Davis could combine the needed capital to make his plans effective, but when the money was available, he began building the West Virginia Central & Pittsburg Railroad.

Mr. Davis became a student of political economy while serving as a passenger conductor. He was a Whig. Henry Clay often traveled over the road with him, and the great Commoner received his vote when a Presidential candidate. Mr. Davis aided the Union cause during the Civil War. He furnished the Government with supplies, and naturally became a Conservative Unionist at the termination of the struggle. The Democratic party in West Virginia was the outgrowth of that political organization. Mr. Davis actively participated in public affairs, was elected to the Assembly in 1866, and was a member of the Committee on Commerce and Finance. Two years later, he was chosen a State Senator, and was reëlected. As chairman of the joint committee on finance, his efforts were successful in placing the State on a firm monetary basis.

After refusing a nomination as Representative from the Congressional district in which he lived, in 1870, Mr. Davis was the ensuing winter elected United States Senator, with the aid of Republican votes, and took his seat as a Democrat on March 4, 1871. He was prominent in all the bitter debates of that period. As a Senator, Mr. Davis antagonized the civil rights bill, which was passed despite opposition and subsequently pronounced unconstitutional.

Mr. Davis became chairman of the Senate Committee on Agriculture, and during his entire service earnestly advocated the formation of a new executive department devoted to the interests of those engaged in farming. He introduced bills to create the Department of Agriculture and Commerce. These failed of passage, but the far-sightedness of Mr. Davis has since been justified by the creation of two executive departments charged with promoting the interests he then sought to advance. Mr. Davis became a member of the Appropriations Committee, and was its chairman during Democratic control of the Senate. In this position he exhibited the most remarkable aptitude for detail and management.

In order to protect his enormous property interests, Mr. Davis declined reëlection after serving twelve years in the Senate. He then devoted his entire time to developing the coal and lumber regions of West Virginia, completed the construction of additional railroads, opened up new mines, became locally identified with every section of the State, and built himself a residence of stone—Graceland—on a hill north of Elkins, W. Va., where he now spends the summers. His winter home in Washington was closed after the death of his wife. When in the national capital, he lives with his son-in-law, Arthur Lee.

Mr. Davis was a delegate to the Pan-American Congress. He is a member of the United States Inter-Continental Railway Commission.

Graceland is perched on the top of a hill. It commands a view of the valley in which Elkins is located. It is rambling, with high-pitched roofs, minarets, and towers. The immediate grounds comprise more than four hundred acres.



"GRACELAND," NEAR ELKINS, WEST VIRGINIA, THE HOME OF MR. DAVIS.

At the age of eighty, Mr. Davis displays all those traits of character which made him the most popular man in West Virginia and secured him the Vice-Presidential nomination of a great party. He is well known in every part of the United States, and has traveled extensively. Plain in his manner of dress and life, he has won alike the hearts of his associates and employees. Standing six feet in height, lean and loose-jointed, the observer would estimate his age at from fifty-eight to sixty years. If he were to declare himself sixty-two, the listener would make mental reservations regarding his veracity. He has a healthy brown skin, but not the ruddy complexion of Andrew Carnegie. His upper lip is clean-shaven. His hair and close-cropped beard show jet black alternating with white. Both are typically iron-gray.

No man can surpass Mr. Davis in amiability. His clear brown eyes are always laughing. He is invariably pleasant and approachable. He is democratic by profession and practice. His voice is ordinarily keyed to a low, soft, musical pitch, but when occasion requires he can give it the most surprising force and volume. The vehemence of these infrequent utterances belie the surface indications of under-strength. He is in no sense a rugged-looking man. His step is not firm or elastic. It never was either. He walks with an easy, sliding motion. He is never garrulous, but always conversational. He can talk much but say little. He will discuss any subject in the most entertaining manner for two hours and convey no information that he does not care to impart. It can readily be seen where Senator Gorman, the first cousin of Mr. Davis, found his model for silence or pleasant utterances devoid of harmful results. The tender-heartedness of Mr. Davis is proverbial. The affection manifested for his dead wife is pathetic. Tears come into his eyes whenever her name is mentioned in his presence.

The physical endurance of Mr. Davis is surprising, and almost irritating to younger men who do not possess his untiring vitality. He seems never to become tired. He is always fresh and vigorous. His capacity for hard work is unlimited. Neither loss of sleep nor hardship impairs his energy. A striking illustration of this characteristic was given at the St. Louis convention. Mr. Davis sat in a not over-large room, as a member of the committee on resolutions, from 8 o'clock Thursday evening to 11:30 o'clock Friday morning,—fifteen and a half hours,—and emerged with his usual brightness of eye and composedness of manner. Men of but little more than half his age were haggard and weary. Mr. Bryan appeared to be on the verge of exhaustion. Senator Tillman was near the point of collapsing. Others were all more or less affected by the all-night committee meeting, but Mr. Davis appeared to have been freshened and invigorated by the long and arduous session.

Mr. Davis regards horseback riding as the best possible form of exercise. He may be seen

on every pleasant day cantering along the mountain roads, sitting erect, and managing his animal with ease and skill. It is less than a year since he rode on horseback from Elkins to Charleston, a distance of more than two hundred miles, in five days. The road passes through an unbroken and mountainous country, and his friends and neighbors still marvel at this exhibition of unimpaired vigor. Long hours of almost incessant activity constitute the daily routine of Mr. Davis at his summer home. He allots the same period to labor now as when serving as a brakeman.

During his long public service, Mr. Davis never sought to be accounted a great orator. He made no claim to distinction as a public speaker, but at the same time was invariably equal to every occasion and all topics. He could express himself clearly, forcibly, and succinctly on important subjects in the discussion of which he participated. He never talked from a theoretical standpoint, but advanced practical ideas. His utterances contain valuable information, and are always clear statements of fact.

Mr. Davis is estimated to be worth at least thirty million dollars. This fortune was realized from the original purchases of hills and forests in Maryland and West Virginia. His philanthropy has kept pace with his prosperity. While Presbyterianism is his predilection, he has made regular and liberal gifts to all denominations. He is a close personal friend of Cardinal Gibbons, and has given much aid to the church represented in the United States by his eminence. He gave a new high school to the city of Piedmont in 1886. In 1893, he gave a nine-acre park to the town of Elkins. He and his brother, Thomas Davis, erected the Davis Memorial Church, at Elkins, as a tribute to their mother. He gave eleven thousand dollars to the State for a Children's Home at Charleston, W. Va., endowing it with an annuity of one thousand dollars for maintenance. He erected the Davis Memorial Hospital, at Elkins, in memory of his eldest son, Henry G. Davis, Jr., who was drowned off the coast of South Africa in 1896. He recently gave a large sum for the establishment of a Presbyterian school, now under construction, on one of the hills adjacent to Elkins. He built a church for colored people.



MR. DAVIS' GRANDCHILDREN.

He regularly contributes freely to churches, hospitals, and schools, in his own State and in other sections of the country.

Mr. Davis probably holds the record for consecutive attendance at national conventions of his party. He had been a delegate to six such gatherings prior to the one which made him the nominee for Vice-President.

In the Democratic convention of 1884, Mr. Davis was requested to accept the nomination for Vice-President, but declined to permit the use of his name in that connection. He threw his strength and influence to Mr. Hendricks. The Senator was called into consultation by President-elect Cleveland when the formation of a cabinet was under consideration. He was offered the position of Postmaster-General, but declined on account of his business affairs. He was subsequently considered by Mr. Cleveland for a cabinet place upon the retirement of Mr. Manning, as Secretary of the Treasury, and Mr. Lamar, as Secretary of the Interior. In both instances he refused to accept office. He has repeatedly been urged to become a candidate for governor of West Virginia, but without success. Democratic leaders have always insisted that Mr. Davis as a gubernatorial candidate could redeem the State from Republican domination. The fact that many thousand employees engaged in railroad and mining operations are either directly or indirectly in the service of Mr. Davis has strengthened the impression that his acceptance of the nomination would be equivalent to an election.

The immediate family of Mr. Davis consists of two daughters and one son. Hallie D. is the wife of Senator Stephen B. Elkins; Grace T. is the wife of Arthur Lee. The son is John T. Davis. Henry G. Davis, Jr., was washed overboard at sea. Kate B., wife of Commander R. M. G. Brown, died, leaving a daughter, to whom Mr. Davis is devotedly attached.

The political opinions of Mr. Davis closely agree with those entertained by Judge Parker. He believes in the gold standard, a moderate revision of tariff laws, and the legitimate combination of capital as an economic necessity. He disapproves of any specific antipathy manifested toward trusts, but believes such aggregations of wealth as seek to disrupt the civic system should be restrained. He believes the race question should not be made a national issue in the approaching campaign. He favors conservatism along all lines of action.

Mr. Davis supported Mr. Bryan in both of his campaigns for the Presidency as a matter of party regularity. When Richard P. Bland introduced his silver dollar coinage bill in the House, Mr. Davis was serving in the Senate. In the debate on this measure, he argued that it was unconstitutional to demonetize silver. He favored the remonetization of silver for the reason that it was one of the country's chief products, and would relieve financial distress and restore prosperity. Subsequent discoveries of gold in South Africa and the Klondike, he believes, depreciated the value of silver and removed all damage resultant from its demonetization.

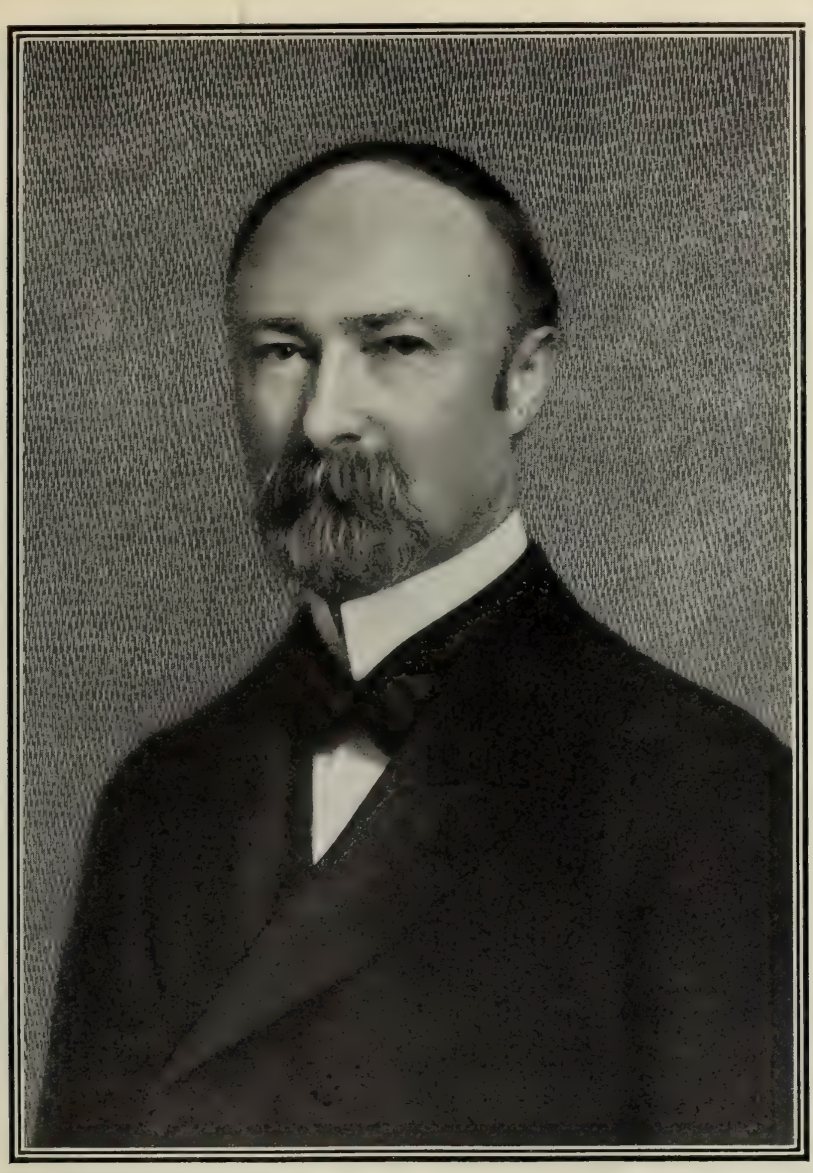
CHARLES WARREN FAIRBANKS, REPUBLICAN CANDIDATE FOR VICE-PRESIDENT.

BY THOMAS R. SHIPP.

THIRTY years ago, a tall young man of dignified and pleasing address hung out his shingle as an attorney-at-law in Indianapolis and began to attract attention by his conscientious work. It was evident that he meant business. The older lawyers liked his apparent sincerity of purpose, his sober, steady disposition, and his even habits, and they helped him along. That young man was Charles Warren Fairbanks, now senior Senator from Indiana, whom the Republicans have nominated as their Vice-Presidential candidate. The more than quarter of a century has rounded and seasoned him, ripened his experience, and given him both wealth and national fame. Nevertheless, the qualities which first brought him to the attention of his superiors are those best known to his friends now, and are the qualities that have recommended him to party and nation for public favor.

HIS PREDOMINANT QUALITIES.

It is not surprising that the sober, steady, earnest, and more serious qualities should predominate in Senator Fairbanks when it is known that he comes of Puritan ancestry, and that even back of that the Fairbankses, or Fayerbankses, were followers of Oliver Cromwell in his struggle for people against crown. Jonathan Fayerbank,



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HON. CHARLES WARREN FAIRBANKS, OF INDIANA.

the first of the name which became well known in the early annals of the Massachusetts colony, was a type of the New England Puritan who came to American shores to find religious liberty. A ship that landed soon after the establishment of the Boston Colony brought him, his wife, four sons, and two daughters, and in 1636 he and his family settled at Dedham, Mass., where the old Fayerbanks home was until recently the property of the Massachusetts Historical Society. This house was acquired July 1, 1904, by "The Fairbanks Family," an incorporation, and will be preserved as a museum.

Senator Fairbanks is eighth in descent from this Puritan pioneer. His father, Loriston Monroe Fairbanks, a native of Vermont, having learned the trade of wagon-maker, emigrated to Union County, Ohio, where he married Mary Adelaide Smith, of a New York family who were early Western emigrants. William Henry Smith, who founded the Associated Press, was a brother of the Senator's mother. Here it was that Charles Warren Fairbanks was born, in a log cabin on his father's farm. Here he spent his boyhood and youth, working on the farm and attending the country schools. It was here, as a lad, he heard the first martial music of the Civil War, and the throb of patriotic impulse in his heart can well

he imagined when, himself too young to enlist, he saw the neighbor boys march away to the front. This was his first lesson in patriotism and in Republican party principles, and it was never forgotten. It was emphasized all through the War by the fact that his father, an intense anti-slavery man, was one of the men who often gave food and shelter to fugitive slaves.

EARLY LESSONS IN ECONOMY.

Seeing the tall, silky Indiana statesman as he is today, one finds it difficult to realize that he was once an ungainly farmer boy, at college cooking his own meals and doing "odd jobs" at carpentering to increase his financial resources. The Fairbanks family, although well-to-do farmers, believed in economy and frugality, and took care to impress on their son lessons in these cardinal virtues. It was under such wholesome influences that, at the age of fifteen, young Fairbanks started to college,—the Ohio Wesleyan University, at Delaware, Ohio, from which he was graduated. His college career was not strikingly brilliant in scholarship, but he was known as a "good student." A former classmate of his gives this picture of him: "A typical country lad, six feet tall, very slim, a little awkward in his movements, slow of speech, serious-minded, and seldom given to college pranks."



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MRS CHARLES WARREN FAIRBANKS.

DETERMINED TO BE A LAWYER.

Ambition and determination were striking traits of his early as well as of his later life. He was determined to be a lawyer. Even before he left college he was buying law books with his earnings after college hours. The year after he graduated, he worked at Pittsburg for the Associated Press, then in its infancy as a news-distributing agency, and owned by his uncle, William Henry Smith. Senator Fairbanks often refers humorously to his brief experience as a newspaper man, saying that his most arduous duty, apparently, was to go daily to the river-front and report the stage of water in the Ohio. In fact, he had important assignments. But the law was his ambition, and, going to Cleveland, he completed his law studies and was admitted to the bar. He then married Miss Cornelia Cole, daughter of Judge Cole, of Marysville, Ohio, who had been associated with him on the college paper at Ohio Wesleyan. Already young Fairbanks had made an impression on the community, and it was proposed to make him a candidate for prosecuting attorney, but he declined the honor. (It is a political coincidence that not only Senator Fairbanks, but Senator Beveridge and Governor Durbin, of Indiana, are now holding their first public office.) Shortly afterward, he removed to Indianapolis.

ON THE WAY TO WEALTH.

The story of Mr. Fairbanks' success in Indianapolis has already been foreshadowed. As he became better known his clientage increased, until it embraced not only Indiana but extended to New York and other large Eastern cities. His fees were large for that day, and soon he was not only "on his feet," but well on the way to comfortable circumstances. His law practice continued to grow, until he became one of the leading lawyers in the State. The name of Fairbanks is found in the reports of many notable cases. The early lessons of economy applied to his later life soon insured for him not only a competency but virtually an independence. But with his success there was no increasing ostentation. He and Mrs. Fairbanks continued to live simply, with no parade of wealth. In nothing else is his even-balanced temperament and solidarity of character better displayed than in his comfortable and unostentatious habit of life.

HIS DÉBUT AS A POLITICAL MANAGER.

Always a Republican, early in his law career Mr. Fairbanks took an effective interest in politics, giving freely of his time and money to the Republican cause. Before his election to the Senate, he had made speeches in every one of the ninety-two counties in Indiana, in minor cities, county seats, and at cross-roads. In this way he made many strong friendships, which, to his credit, have been lasting and of inestimable advantage to him. One of his early personal and political friendships was a notable one with Walter Q. Gresham, whose campaign for the Presidential nomination, in 1888, Mr. Fairbanks managed against Benjamin Harrison. The Gresham cause having proved hopeless, Mr. Fairbanks was one of the most active Indiana Republicans in the Harrison Presidential campaign. His interest in the Gresham cause may be said to mark Senator Fairbanks' début as a political manager in Indiana. The personal friendship between Judge Gresham and Mr. Fairbanks continued until the former's death, although in Judge Gresham's later years they had nothing in common in their political views. Judge Gresham had found himself out of tune with the Republican principles of protection and foreign policy, and was not even impressed with gold as a single monetary standard. Holding these views, he found an open door and a hearty welcome in the Democratic party, where, under the second term of President Cleveland, he was induced to accept the position which put him at the head of the cabinet.

THE START OF HIS NATIONAL PROMINENCE.

Mr. Fairbanks, a firm believer in the Republican policy of protection, was, in 1896, vigorous in his efforts to commit the Republican party in Indiana to a solid monetary basis, and as the head of the Indiana delegation to the St. Louis convention, and as temporary chairman of the gathering, he sounded the keynote of the gold standard: The St. Louis convention marked the beginning of Mr. Fairbanks' prominence in national politics. And it was under circumstances most favorable that the Indiana man entered the political arena at that time. William McKinley and Mr. Fairbanks had been friends for many years. Both were Ohio-born, both were ardent members of the Methodist Episcopal Church, and both were in exact accord in their political views. It is the understanding that it was Major McKinley who invited Mr. Fairbanks to be temporary chairman of the 1896 convention.

BREAKING UP THE HOOSIER DEMOCRACY.

In the campaign that followed, Mr. Fairbanks took a prominent part, speaking in nearly all the Northern States, meanwhile keeping in close touch with the campaign in Indiana. There was a good chance to redeem the Hoosier State



MRS. JOHN W. TIMMONS.
(Senator Fairbanks' only daughter.)



SENATOR FAIRBANKS' WASHINGTON RESIDENCE.

from the hold of Democracy, and an organization already existed looking to Mr. Fairbanks' nomination for United States Senator. Indiana then had a Democratic governor,—the last one she has had,—and two Democratic United States Senators. The hopes of the Republicans were realized. Indiana went Republican by about twenty thousand, and the Legislature was safely Republican. In the caucus which followed, in January of the following winter, Mr. Fairbanks was chosen as the Republican nominee for Senator over a field of strong candidates, including the Hon. W. R. McKeen, of Terre Haute, and Gen. Lew Wallace, the distinguished author and diplomat. Twice before, Mr. Fairbanks' name had been before the Republican caucus for the nomination when the Democrats were still in power. The first time, Gov. A. P. Hovey received the honor; the second time, Mr. Fairbanks was the caucus nominee, and was defeated by David Turpie, who, six years later, was defeated by Albert J. Beveridge.

FORTUNE FAVORS THE NEW SENATOR.

Few men have entered the United States Senate under more propitious conditions than Senator Fairbanks. The Republican party had been restored to power after four years of disastrous Democratic rule. In the White House sat a President who was the Indiana Senator's close friend. As the only Republican Senator from a hotly contested State newly redeemed from Democracy, he was the idol of his party at home; besides, the patronage for Indiana was given to him to distribute. Altogether, he was destined to play a conspicuous part in the administration which was to restore a protective tariff policy and to wage a successful war in the interest of humanity. He was in thorough accord with the President's policy, and his name was often connected with President McKinley's in the weighty conferences just prior to the stirring events of the war with Spain.

HAS HELD HIS PLACE.

For these reasons, and on account of his ability, Senator Fairbanks, early in his term, assumed a prominence in Washington which he has held. He first went to the head of the Senate Committee on Immigration; later, he was advanced to the chairmanship of the Committee on Public Buildings and Grounds,



SENATOR FAIRBANKS' INDIANAPOLIS RESIDENCE.

which he now holds. He has other important committee assignments, and holds a prominent place in the Senate, in which he entered on his second term March 4, 1903, having been re-elected without Republican opposition. He was appointed by President McKinley a member of the Joint High Commission to adjust international questions of moment between the United States and Great Britain. President McKinley once invited him to become a member of his cabinet.

At the same time, he has held his political prominence in Indiana, having been a delegate-at-large to the 1900 convention in Philadelphia, where he was chairman of the committee on resolutions, and a delegate-at-large to the Chicago convention which nominated him for Vice-President.

CITIZEN AND SENATOR.

Senator Fairbanks is a public-spirited man. As citizen and Senator he is held in equal esteem. But he has merged his personality and private affairs so completely into his public career that it is difficult to think of him as a private citizen. He has even given up his profession to devote his whole time to public duties, and from the time he entered public life he has steadfastly refrained from accepting fees as a lawyer. Senator Fairbanks is consulted on affairs of local public interest to his home city, particularly those which have a "Washington end," over which he keeps a watchful eye. He is president of the Benjamin Harrison Monument Association of Indianapolis, which has raised about fifty thousand dollars and proposes to erect a memorial to General Harrison on the site of the Indianapolis federal building, now under construction. He is vice-president of the Thomas Jefferson Memorial Association, organized to erect a monument in Washington to the third President of the United States. He is a member of the executive committee of the trustees of the McKinley Memorial Association, and delivered the address at the unveiling of the McKinley monument at Toledo, Ohio, last year. Both Senator and Mrs. Fairbanks retain a lively interest in their alma mater. The Senator is a trustee of the Ohio Wesleyan University, and his eldest son and only daughter are among its graduates. Senator and Mrs. Fairbanks are members of the Meridian Street Methodist Episcopal Church, of Indianapolis. The Senator is a member of the church board.

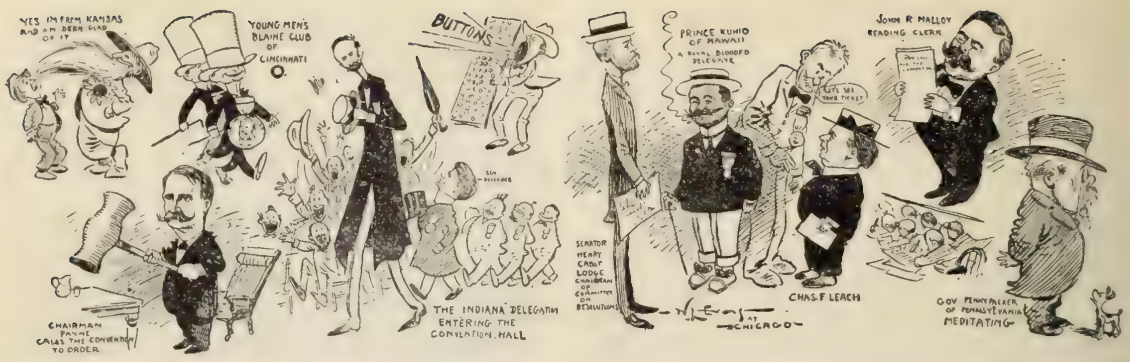
Senator Fairbanks' Indianapolis residence, at 1522 North Meridian Street, is a modest and comfortable two-story frame house, with a large porch extending along the south side, beautifully shaded, and overlooking a large lawn. In Washington, the Senator and his family occupy the Van Wyck house, near Dupont Circle, in the fashionable section of the city. The house is admirably adapted for entertaining, and Senator and Mrs. Fairbanks' life at the capital is characterized by a generous hospitality. Mrs. Fairbanks occupies a social leadership in Washington because of her charming qualities as a hostess and by virtue of her position as president-general of the Daughters of the American Revolution. Senator Fairbanks' home is made more interesting by reason of his large family, some members of which are nearly always to be found beneath the home roof-tree.

THE FAIRBANKS CHILDREN.

The children, in the order of the ages, are: The daughter, Adelaide, wife of Ensign John W. Timmons, of the U. S. S. *Kearsarge;* Warren C., who recently married Miss Helene Ethel Cassidy, of Pittsburg, and who is secretary and treasurer and a director of the Oliver Typewriter Works, in Chicago; Frederick C., a graduate of Princeton University, class of 1903, who is now a student at the Columbian University Law School, in Washington, D. C. The third son, Richard, is in the junior year at Yale College, and the fourth son and youngest child, Robert, is a student at Phillips Academy, Andover, Mass., preparing for Princeton. Senator Fairbanks' mother is living, and spends her winters with the Senator's family in Washington.

A "GOOD MIXER."

In private life, Senator Fairbanks is the same polished, dignified, and kindly gentleman that he appears in public. His dignity is not ponderous or offensive, and his address is one of great charm. The Senator is an attentive listener and a pleasing speaker, having a soft, well-modulated voice. He is known as a "good mixer." The personification of caution, he would prefer to hold his friends and the public in suspense rather than to bear the least suspicion of rashness. He is a man who keeps his own counsel, as evidenced in his attitude toward the Vice-Presidential nomination at the time of the convention, when he did not commit to the keeping of his closest friends his inmost feelings with regard to accepting that honor.



SOME PROMINENT REPUBLICANS SEEN AT THE OPENING OF THE NATIONAL CONVENTION.—From the *Leader* (Cleveland).

THE REPUBLICAN CONVENTION AT CHICAGO.

BY JAMES H. ECKELS, AN ILLINOIS DELEGATE TO THE DEMOCRATIC CONVENTION AT ST. LOUIS.

POLITICAL conventions have no standard of measurement save that of comparison with one another and the effectiveness developed in the subsequent campaign; hence, there can be no definite analysis of the jubilee convention of the Republican party until after the public shall have registered its opinion. If, however, it is compared with its predecessors in the half-century of its history, it stands alone as totally devoid of absorbing interest,—a convention whose chief feature was a dull, monotonous servility to a machine. Not once did it assume the aggressive; not once did any respectable portion of its delegates raise the banner of revolt against administrative rule; not once was there a gleam of independent action. From beginning to end, it was ruled with an iron hand beneath a soft glove; from top to bottom, it responded to the slightest touch of the will that controlled it.



UNCLE JOE CANNON.
From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).

Such ascendency of a national administration over party has never had an equal in a political convention of any political organization. The nearest approach to it was that of the Philadelphia convention, four years ago, but that was lifted out of the ordinary by the revolt of Quay and Platt against the domination of Hanna and the substitution by the convention of Roosevelt for the choice of the administration. Everywhere during the five days in which the Chicago convention and its delegates occupied the foreground of public attention this complete domination by the administration-created machine obtruded itself. There was no thought of originating anything without the approval of Senators who by tacit consent represented the administration; in fact, it was conceded that all plans, all action, must come from Washington, not from the delegates assembled in Chicago. The master was recognized, and loyalty to the party was simply servility to orders from those who arrogated to themselves the party control.



FRANK S. BLACK: "I come not to bury Cæsar, but to praise him."—From the *World* (New York).



ELIHU ROOT ADDRESSING THE CONVENTION.

From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).

Under the surface was a smothered protest, a rankling opposition to machine methods, but it did not dare find expression in formal objection. It contented itself with murmurs of impending trouble, with an indifference toward the candidates and party success. The ticket was regarded with pessimism, the platform with misgivings, the bosses with disgust. Much of this is found at every political convention, but there was more of it at Chicago than at any other of the great party gatherings. Outside of the nominees, the convention played former Secretary of War Elihu Root against the platform, the platform against Secretary Root; the omission of one was supplied by the other; the elucidation of obscurity in the platform is to be found in the keynote address of the temporary chairman of the convention. It was undoubtedly constructed with the platform in view, intended to prepare the way for that instrument; to blaze out the path which the President expected the convention to make for him. The two, platform and keynote speech, must be read together, as some scriptural passages require the aid and help of a concordance. Especially does this apply to the fundamental principles of government, finance, and tariff, and the important issues of imperialism, regulation of corporations, and the Panama Canal.

President Roosevelt's nomination being a certainty, the proceedings were expected to be largely perfunctory, — a sort of ratification meeting. The utter lack of enthusiasm, of intense interest, was irritating to the party leaders, repellent to the visitor; but what else could be expected in a dead atmosphere? The elements of enthusiasm were there as the spark in the flint, but, with no steel to strike it, it naturally remained dormant. Some politicians would have resorted to the creation of a joyous sentiment by the hurling of picturesque organizations into Chicago, by the assembling of professional boomers, but none of these tricks were brought into play, and the somberness was the darker by the sharp contrast with ordinary conventions.



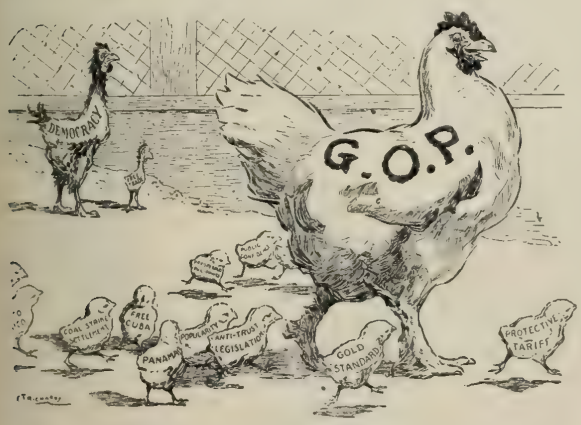
SENATOR FAIRBANKS SORELY TEMPTED.

From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).



SENATOR DOLLIVER.

The Presidential nomination being settled in advance, the second place had the semblance of an open fight; but it was semblance only,—the administration had fixed its choice upon Senator Fairbanks, or at least that was the universal opinion, and the strategical importance of taking a man from one of the battle-grounds of the nation was recognized as good politics, and there was immediate recognition of the Indianian selection. Just enough margin was left out to nourish a genteel, harmless bit of parading of favorite sons, but, as four years before, all were confined to the State where the favorite son resided, and all,—in which was the distinction from the situation in the previous convention,—



"There is not one of you that raises chickens, as I do, but what understands that when the old hen comes off the nest with one chicken she does more scratching and makes more noise than the motherly hen that is more fortunate with twenty-three. Our friends the enemy will have the enthusiasm; we will take the votes in November."—Speaker Cannon, in his address to the Republican National Convention.

From the *Evening Mail* (New York).

were under the guiding-strings of devoted adherents of the machine. The exploitation of the half-score candidates in the public gaze subsided on the eve of the nominating day, and there was a rapid wheeling into line for the unanimous nomination of the senior Senator from Indiana. Such smooth, frictionless response to the orders of a machine was one of the marvels of the gathering. Perhaps the ease with which the Vice-Presidential nomination was made was not so much a tribute to machine control as the absence of rivals in the party affections, rendering it impossible to concentrate opposition or protest to the prepared programme.



MR. ADDICKS, OF DELAWARE.

The complete control of the nation which the party has held for eight years has unconsciously rather than premeditatedly built up the powerful controlling body, with the President at the top, and which, in no offensive sense, one may call a machine. The convention was under its mastery, subservient to its every will. The rule of the machine was apparent—palpably, undisguisedly, apparent. As a result, the convention was perfect in smoothness of procedure, in the absence of friction. The machine was handled by the leading Senators of the party in Congress—Lodge, Depew, Gallinger, Fairbanks, Beveridge, Foraker, McComas, Spooner, Dolliver, Platt, Cullom, and Hopkins—petty differences were subordinated in putting through the programme, and so effectual was the organization, so pliable the delegations, so deferential, that the exercise of control was over frictionless rollers. The usual pre-convention scenes were absent,—the blare of bands, the crossing, the corridor, and the curbstone debates. There were a few contests, all for seats, none in array against the party machinery, none fighting the administration, and of these but one was of any national importance, involving questions of party control. Wisconsin, from her rival conventions, sent factional delegates-at-large. The National Committee decided in favor of the Senatorial contestants, and the perfection of party machinery was demonstrated in the concurrence of the convention's committee and the elimination of a vexatious dispute from the floor of the convention. The body had to choose between two Titanic struggling factions, and it made its choice quickly, and compelled obedience thereto. It was an impressive event, regardless of the merits of the controversy, and exhibited a virility in the party that compensated for the absence of enthusiasm.



GOVERNOR LA FOLLETTE: "Back to Madison [Wisconsin] for me."

From the *World* (New York).



Governor Herrick. Senator Babcock. Elihu Root. Secretary Loeb. Governor Yates. Postmaster-General Payne.

(Sketched from life by Mr. Bushnell, of the Cincinnati *Post*.)

The nominations were interesting to the spectators, and roused the delegates momentarily from their lethargy. The speeches were for the moment only, winning applause by well-turned periods, by the art of oratory rather than by logic or brilliancy of thought, creating demonstrations by extravagancy or praise. Being all on one line, directed to one man, the demonstrations were short-lived. This feature was the attractive thing to the outsider, to the visitor, for, no matter how formal, how unopposed, the American people delight in witnessing the placing in nomination of candidates for the highest executive honor of the republic.

Political, having reference to the campaign itself, it is not the candidates, but the platform, the things for which they stand, that had absorbing interest to the average citizen. The nomination of Mr. Roosevelt was assured, but the issues upon which his campaign was to be fought had not been perfectly outlined prior to the convention. The platform was relegated to his friends, to his formulation, and not only his partisans, but the country, was deeply interested in this phase of the convention. And really, the only discussion one heard about the hotels, in the gatherings of leaders, was the platform, its

scope, its purpose. That it fell short of expectations was freely admitted. There was irritation in every delegation over omissions and commissions, largely omissions. With the delegates distrustful of the platform, the party can hardly expect the independent voter to be attracted by its platitudes, its indefiniteness. Its most brilliant parts are the review of the past; its strongest language is that in which it takes credit for the war with Spain, which President McKinley so stoutly opposed, but who was finally compelled to yield to the clamor of opposition yellow newspapers and the tumultuous oratory of the then junior Senator from Illinois.

The financial issue as presented betrays a weakness astonishing in the face of probable defection, of the certainty of the loss of the Gold Democrats, whose support gave the victory four and eight years ago. It is not enough that the party stands solely on the gold standard. In view of what Republicanism so stoutly claims to its credit as a chief virtue on the monetary standard, its timidity in shrinking from the extension of the monetary issue to an expression in favor of remedying existing evils of the currency takes away much of its claim, as against the Democrats, to the confidence which the public placed in it four and eight years ago. Here, at least, Republicans could well afford to be brave, because the party is a united one. In this respect, one is referred to Mr. Root's keynote address,—the platform's concordance, its exegesis. Mr. Root, very prolix in reviewing the adoption of the gold standard, without giving credit to the Democratic allies, is silent as to the future course, as to further progress in the establishment of a sound currency. He reposes hope for the future in the wisdom of the Secretary of the Treasury, who, circumscribed by law, is unable to apply any other remedy than the dubious one of an expanding bank circulation, which does not contain any of the elements of compressibility when redundancy is the evil, notwithstanding Mr. Root's characterization of it as an elastic one, and adjustable to varying conditions. Imperialism is eliminated from the platform, though it is doubtful if it can be eliminated from the campaign. Platforms may raise issues, but they cannot eliminate any by withholding an utterance thereon. The party's silence on the future of the Philippines is inexcusable, and the marvel was the ease with which the platform went through the committee on resolutions without creating a fight on that issue. Beyond a recapitulation in the preamble of the document that there has been "conferred upon



SOME PROMINENT FEATURES OF THE CHICAGO CONVENTION.

(By Cartoonist Briggs, of the *American*, New York.)

the people of these islands the largest civil liberty which they have ever enjoyed," the attitude of the party is unexpressed. Four years ago, with the American occupation resisted by revolutionary bands, a declaration of intention would have been a weakness. With peace prevailing, the civil commission's government extended to every part of the islands, the natives thereof, the American people, are entitled to know what disposition is to be made of this undefined possession.

From the platform we again turn to Mr. Root, the exegetical authority, and we find the expression of a view more favorable to American ideas than the platform dared to express. He frankly yet reservedly holds out the promise that some day the islands will be given the same freedom as Cuba, when the natives attain to a position of like capacity, but the freedom would be limited in details as conditions and needs differ. There is always the qualification when doubt exists; still, even this is better than the platform declaration.

More serious than the frankest was willing to admit was the discordant note in the tariff issue. The dissent to the rigid, implacable position of the party on high protective tariff has been a chronic condition in the West, and in some form or another it has come up from the great prairie States. Four and eight years ago, it was subordinate to the money issue, but with that well out of the way, so far as the gold standard is concerned, the turbulent protesting Westerners again prepared for a contest with the Eastern manufacturing and favored elements. It was Governor Cummins who uttered the protest a year or more ago and gave birth to the Iowa idea that tariffs should protect the people, not the few. The heretical reservations were marked, and Cummins displaced from the leadership of the State, and Iowa came to the convention with the idea tucked away beyond reach of its originator or adaptator. As the idea goes beyond Cummins heretical phraseology was stricken out, the plank was recast with an obvious intention of reaffirming the old principle, without weakness, and at the same time of mollifying the force of the West. The poor sop given to would-be tariff reformers is to be found in the observation that "rates of duty should be readjusted only when conditions have so changed that the public interest demands their alteration." The admission was something, at least; it was the entering wedge of a party quarrel should the tariff come before the next Congress for modification. There is in the plank sufficient justification for the Western Congressman to stand for the views of his section without fear of being accused of party defection, of heresy to the platform, and, after all, that is the secondary purpose of platforms—to hold legislators in line—the first being to get the largest number of votes at the least amount of party declaration. On the labor question, the regulation of corporations, the platform was out of harmony with the delegates, but the planks were framed without committing the party to any action; neither satisfying the public nor the rival interests, they were jammed through the committee and rushed through the convention.

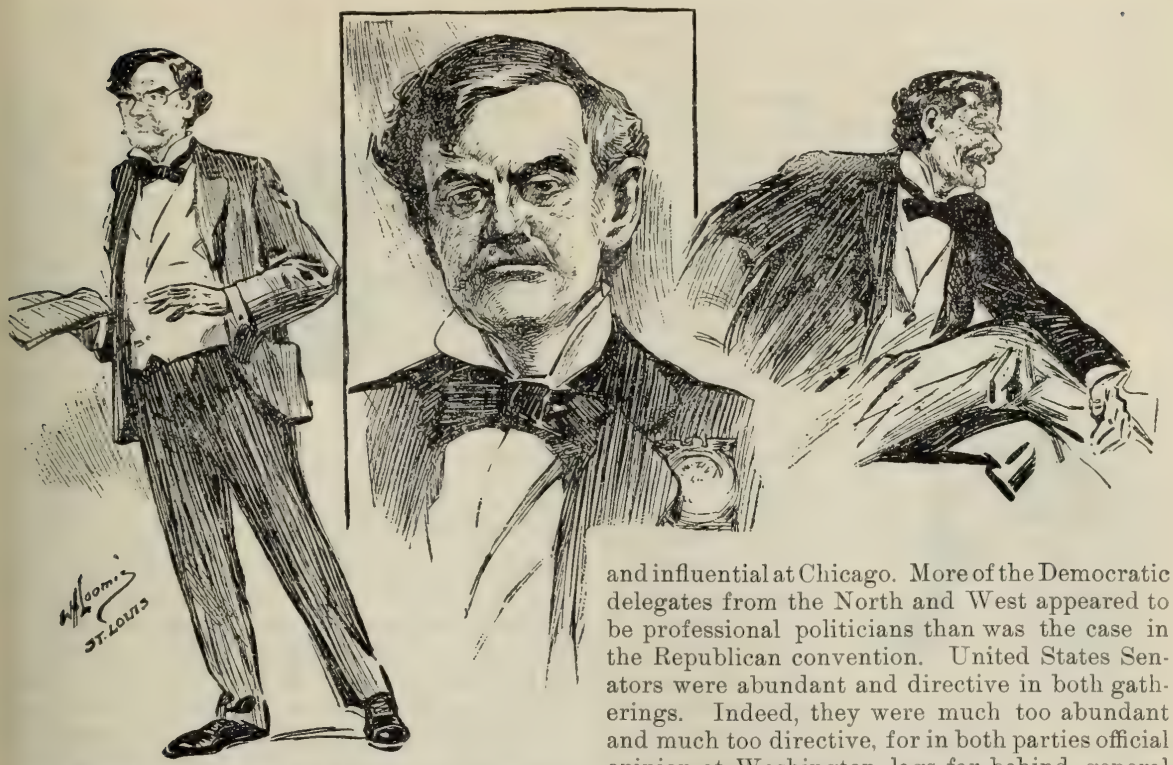
The machine having executed its work with nicety and dispatch, turned from the slowly departing throngs in the Coliseum to its quarters, and delivered its control, in turn, to the personal choice of the President, a hitherto unknown factor in politics, as the manager of a campaign which promises to be the most strenuous which the party has encountered since 1892.

THE NATIONAL DEMOCRATIC CONVENTION AT ST. LOUIS.

BY A DELEGATE TO THE REPUBLICAN CONVENTION AT CHICAGO.

THE national conventions of the two great political parties are the most interesting and the most important gatherings of our political life. Unknown to the Constitution and unsuspected by its framers, these conventions are now the real center of political authority and the real power in selecting the two men from whom the nation's chief executive must be chosen. By them, declarations of policy are made which control the action of the ruling majority in the Congress and guide the President in the performance of his duty.

In one sense, each of these national conventions is like all the others. Each goes through one and the same routine of organization and procedure. In another and more important sense, however, each national convention has an individuality of its own,—it faces its own prob-



HON. JOHN SHARP WILLIAMS, OF MISSISSIPPI, CAUGHT IN CHARACTERISTIC ATTITUDES AT ST. LOUIS.

From the *World* (New York).

lems, reflects its own contest over candidates, and gives expression to the ruling ideas and personalities of its own membership.

One who witnessed the proceedings of the two great conventions of 1904 could not fail to be impressed by the sharp contrast between them. In the first place, they were quite different-looking bodies. In face, in speech, in manner, they were entirely unlike. The Democratic convention contained not a few representatives of a type of Southern gentleman, like Senator Daniel, of Virginia, and Governor Blanchard, of Louisiana, that is utterly unknown in a Republican gathering. On the other hand, Northern and Western business and professional men of high standing, such as Mr. Eckels, of Illinois, and Mr. Gaston, of Massachusetts, were few and far between at St. Louis, while very numerous and influential at Chicago. More of the Democratic delegates from the North and West appeared to be professional politicians than was the case in the Republican convention. United States Senators were abundant and directive in both gatherings. Indeed, they were much too abundant and much too directive, for in both parties official opinion at Washington lags far behind general sentiment throughout the country. The air of Washington is much too favorable to compromise and to subtle political chicanery to allow men who breathe it constantly to lead, rather than follow, advancing public opinion.



CONGRESSMAN BOURKE COCKRAN, OF NEW YORK.

From the *North American* (Philadelphia).



SENATOR JOHN W. DANIEL, OF VIRGINIA.

From the *North American* (Philadelphia).

Both conventions were held in halls that were far too large. No national convention should ever again assemble in a hall that seats more than four thousand or, at most, five thousand persons. It was cruel and unfair to subject such consummate orators as Mr. Root and Senator Daniel to the throat-racking and heart-breaking task of trying to fill with their admirable voices a huge barn lined with a crowd restless because it could hear nothing and see little.

The main contrast between the two conventions was this: the Republican convention was presided over by Mr. Root and by Speaker Cannon, successively; the Democratic convention was presided over by the galleries from start to finish. The galleries were packed to suffocation with an excited, disorderly crowd, in which were an astonishingly large number of rowdies

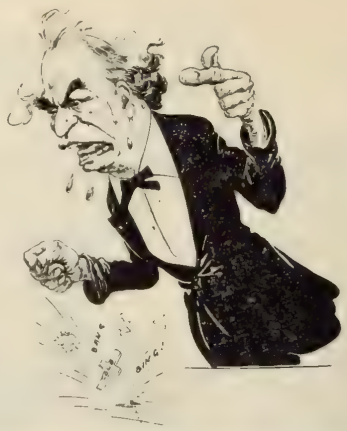
from eighteen to thirty years of age. This crowd took command of the convention when it opened and held it to the end. It contributed a continuous flow of cheers, hisses, cat-calls, and interruptions both sacred and profane. It voted cheerfully whenever a question was determined *viva voce*, and it could be counted upon always to oppose an adjournment or a recess.

This disagreeable and disgraceful situation appeared to be due primarily to two causes,—the bad arrangements made by the sergeant-at-arms and the evident inexperience of Mr. John Sharp Williams, of Mississippi, as a presiding officer. If Mr. Williams had taken command of the convention at the outset and been able to impress his personality upon it, order might have been obtained and held. But he was unable to do this, and the galleries, having once tasted power, rapidly passed beyond all possible control.



HON. DAVID B. HILL ENTERS ST. LOUIS DRAGGING THE CONQUERED TAMMANY TIGER AFTER A HUNT OF MANY LONG YEARS.—From the *North American* (Philadelphia).

Having been favorably impressed with Mr. Williams' minority leadership in the House of Representatives last winter, and having formed a high opinion of his vigor and alertness of mind, it was a sharp disappointment to find him so weak and ineffective a speaker and chairman. His timid raps with the gavel sounded like an inexperienced woman driving tacks, and his lack of personal force in a large arena was positively painful. His opening speech was far too long, and it committed the tactical blunder of attacking the enemy at their strongest point,—namely, Mr. Root's address at Chicago. As a Democratic friend quaintly put it, "Why should so clever a man as Williams gnaw on a file handed to him by Root?" The speech of Mr. Williams was a great disappointment to every one, friends and critics alike. His style was lacking in dignity, and he unfortunately forced comparison between himself and Mr. Root and his speech at Chicago; and neither intellectually nor politically is Mr. Williams in the same class with Mr. Root. But his speech was by no means ineffective from a party standpoint, and it reads much better than it sounded—which is, after all, faint praise, for most of it did not sound at all.



HON. WILLIAM JENNINGS BRYAN TALKED, BUT THE PARKER BOOM DID NOT STOP TO LISTEN.
From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).

It was a great relief to every one when Mr. Williams yielded the chair to Congressman Champ Clark, whose much more robust frame, stronger personality, and more vigorous methods at once wrought a change. Unfortunately, however, Mr. Clark's voice gave out, and after a short interval of order, chaos returned. The only satisfactory and determined occupant of the chair was Senator Bailey, of Texas, who presided for some time at the long Friday night session, on Mr. Clark's invitation.

The one strong, commanding personality of the Democratic convention, in my judgment,



THE WHOLE SHOW.—From the *Press* (New York).



A TYPICAL SOUTHERN DELEGATE FROM THE BLUE-GRASS REGION.

(As seen by Cartoonist Campbell, of the Philadelphia *North American*.)

was, strangely enough, William J. Bryan, of Nebraska. No auditor in that whole convention could have been more unsympathetic with his personality and more antagonistic to his principles than the writer; yet he is bound to say that he came away from St. Louis with a greatly heightened opinion of Mr. Bryan's mind and character, and with a new respect for his sincerity and courage. Every other leader in that convention—Mr. Hill, Mr. Williams, Senator Carmack, and even the usually frank, outspoken Senator Tillman—was struggling to conceal his real opinions, in order, if possible, to gain votes. Mr. Bryan, on the other hand, made a strong, able, and persistent fight for the principles he believed in. He was honest with the convention, and he wished the convention to be honest with the people. But a contrary policy had been decided upon. The fiat had gone forth that, since Mr. Bryan had led his party twice to defeat, he must be "turned down" at any cost. So the Democratic party presented to the country the spectacle of a great political organization following Mr. Bryan enthusiastically when he was wrong and opposing him sullenly when he was right.

For he was right, beyond any question, when, on Thursday, he revealed in a powerful speech the irregular proceedings attendant upon the selection of a number of members of the Illinois delegation and presented a report recommending that those chosen fraudulently be unseated; and he was right when, on Saturday night, he crawled from a sick-bed to ask the convention to be honest and declare for the gold standard openly if it was to take any action upon Judge Parker's telegram to Mr. Sheehan. In the Illinois case, there was not the slightest attempt made to answer Mr. Bryan's arguments or to impugn his statement of facts. The convention ought to have been glad to follow his lead in the premises, but those who were managing it had ordered that, while Mr. Bryan was to be treated respectfully, he was not to be allowed to win any victories; so the resulting ballot showed only 299 ayes to 647 noes on Mr. Bryan's motion to substitute the minority for the majority report of the committee on credentials.



MR. HILL HAS SOMETHING TO SAY TO GOVERNOR DOCKERY, OF MISSOURI.

From the *Journal* (New York).

Again, on Saturday night, when the weak and futile message to Judge Parker was under consideration, Mr. Bryan was honest and profoundly right when he challenged the convention to declare flatly for the gold standard if that was what it meant. He offered to content himself with voting in the negative on such a proposal. But here again the ways of indirection and bunco were preferred to those of directness and fairness, and Mr. Hill and Mr. Williams carried through their plan of telling Judge Parker and the country that, so far as the money question was concerned, the convention did not care whether its candidate was a gold man or a silver man or any other kind of man. In view of the outspoken and unrepudiated utterances on money and banking of the platforms of 1896 and 1900, this action left the Democratic party in about as weak and contemptible a position as can be imagined. The precious "harmony" for which it was striving was bought at the cost of both honor and common sense. It may be doubted whether anything so feeble and so tricky was ever before successfully attempted in a political body of like importance.



HON. J. K. JONES, OF ARKANSAS, AND THOMAS TAGGART, OF INDIANA.

As sketched by Cartoonist Briggs, of the *American* (New York).

The oratory of the Democratic convention was very different in style and in character from that of the Republican. Mr. Root, Mr. Black, and Senator Beveridge were the really fine orators at Chicago. Mr. Bryan, Mr. Littleton, and

Congressman Clark were the only good speakers at St. Louis. The polish, directness, reserve power, and intellectual force of the speeches of Mr. Root and Mr. Black were not approached at St. Louis, although Mr. Littleton came nearest to equaling those two orators. Mr. Littleton spoke quietly, simply, and effectively, and his epigrams and neatly turned phrases were a pleasure to hear. Mr. Bryan's oratory was characteristically vivid and impassioned, but his voice showed signs of hard usage, and of his extreme fatigue as well, as the convention progressed. Congressman Clark's mode of speech, and his illustrations, are like those of Speaker Cannon, but he is physically a much more imposing figure than the Speaker.



JAMES H. ECKELS, OF ILLINOIS.

From the *North American* (Philadelphia).

As the newspapers have reported, the platform, with all its omissions and evasions, and its cheap paragraph about "Jeffersonian simplicity of living," was carefully read by Senator Daniel without being heard by a single human being. It was then adopted, with substantial unanimity, on a *viva voce* vote, under the operation of the previous question.

The New York and Boston newspapers, always provincial, and always extreme in their views and expressions, have either minimized or concealed the real facts in connection with the relation between Judge Parker's nomination and the omission of any money plank from the platform.

Mr. Hill and Mr. Williams agreed to the omission of any declaration on the money question in return for votes that were absolutely necessary to effect Judge Parker's nomination. Judge Parker was nominated on an evasive platform, and could not have been nominated on any other. A declaration for the gold standard, if proposed before the nomination, would either have been beaten or it would have been carried by the narrowest of majorities. In the latter case, about two hundred and forty votes needed to nominate Judge Parker could not have been obtained; in the former, the nomination would not have been worth having. These are the facts which make Judge Parker's own attitude so extraordinary and so open to criticism. His strong and emphatic telegram to Mr. Sheehan put him in no possible risk. Mr. Bryan's equally strong and emphatic message to the Kansas City convention of 1900 *did* involve risk, for it was sent before the nomination was made, to a body which, then as now, Mr. Hill was trying to lead into paths of evasion and deceit. But Judge Parker ran no risk, as to put him off the ticket meant party ruin and disruption. The Southern States would all vote for him anyhow, even on a nickel platform, and no Western State would vote for him under any circumstances. Only New York was involved, and that Judge Parker's declaration helped him there is certain.

But why did Judge Parker conceal his views so long? Because that was an essential part of the plan of campaign mapped out for him nearly a year ago by Mr. Hill and Mr. Belmont, in which he has acquiesced throughout. The Democratic party was to be "harmonized" by evasion and silence, and Judge Parker was to be the "harmonizer." The plan of campaign worked, but it worked only by deceiving the delegates to the Democratic convention and their constituents. Mr. Hill explicitly told the committee on resolutions that he did not know what Judge Parker's views on the money question were, and Mr. Littleton forcefully urged as one of Judge Parker's claims to consideration that he looked upon himself, not as the leader, but as the servant, of his party, and that the party platform, when adopted, would be his platform.

But, it was protested to the angry delegates after Judge Parker's telegram was made known, "we supposed you all knew that Judge Parker was a gold-standard man." The retort was instant and crushing: "Why should we suppose anything of the sort? Judge Parker's only political experience, and his only important political offices, were obtained through and by Mr. Hill. He voted for Mr. Bryan in 1896 and again in 1900. He has ostentatiously declined to give expression to any political opinions. What earthly reason was there for supposing that he was not loyal to the Chicago and Kansas City platforms?" But the disgusted and tired convention could do nothing but send word to Judge Parker that he need not leave the ticket because of any views he might hold on the money question.

WIRELESS TELEGRAPHY TO-DAY.

BY WILLIAM MAVER, JR.

(Member of the American Institute of Electrical Engineers, and author of "Wireless Telegraphy, Theory and Practice.")

IT is now more than ten years since the successful transmission of intelligence to a distance by electric waves without wires was first announced by Marconi. Prior to Marconi's work, several practical attempts had been made to transmit intelligence to a distance by means of electro-magnetic waves without the aid of connecting wires between the sending and the receiving stations, its chief application at that time being to afford a method of communicating with moving trains. A number of such systems were in actual operation on railroad lines in this country. These were termed induction telegraph systems. There was, however, no great demand for telegraph systems of this nature, and they gradually went out of existence. Sir William H. Preece, on the other side of the Atlantic, also experimented on a larger scale with induction telegraphy between lighthouses on islands and stations on the mainland, with some success, but the distances traversed did not much exceed four or five miles.

These induction telegraph systems employed in their operation the well-known principle that when an electric current is varied in one wire it induces a current of electricity in a neighboring parallel wire. In Preece's experiments, a wire several miles in length was strung on poles along the coast of the mainland, and a parallel wire was placed on poles on the island. By having a battery and key in one of the wires and a telephone receiver in the other, it was possible to transmit and receive Morse telegraph signals across the intervening space. In these induction telegraph systems, the frequency of the electric pulsations employed ranged from thirty to forty per second.

In the transmission of signals by modern wireless telegraphy, the electric vibrations or waves radiated into free space are of an immensely higher order, varying from several hundreds of thousands to many millions per second.

WIRELESS TELEGRAPH APPARATUS AND OPERATION.

As all the world now knows, the apparatus required for the operation of this wireless telegraphy is a generator for setting up the electric



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GUGLIELMO MARCONI.

oscillations in a vertical wire, or antenna, as it is called, from which the electric waves are radiated into free space, together with a vertical wire at a receiving station, which intercepts and absorbs some of the electric waves which are transformed into electric oscillations in that wire, where they are detected by a receiver of electric oscillations. The received oscillations are obviously very weak as compared with the oscillations in the transmitting wire, but by employing very sensitive detectors of such oscillations the signals transmitted may be received at a great distance from their source.

In the operation of wireless telegraphy in its simplest form, electric oscillations are established in a vertical wire by an induction coil, in the primary circuit of which a telegraph key is introduced. While the key is held passive, a continuous train of electric oscillations is maintained in the vertical wire, and consequently a corresponding train of electric waves is radiated therefrom, but when the key is opened the oscil-

lations and the waves cease. Hence, by opening and closing the key as an ordinary Morse telegraph key is operated, the train of waves is broken up into what correspond to dots and dashes of the telegraph code, and may be received as such at the receiving station.

To obtain successful wireless telegraphy, much depends on the generator of the oscillations, the height and arrangement of the vertical wires, and the sensitiveness and reliability of the wave-detector. The first generators of electric oscillations employed in wireless telegraphy consisted of the ordinary Ruhmkorff, or induction, coil, which developed about one-fifteenth of a horse-power (see illustration, fig. 1). The secondary wire of the induction coil is connected with the vertical wire, which it charges with electricity until the air at the spark gap breaks down, whereupon electric oscillations surge back and forth in the vertical wire, radiating electric waves in the ether. The detector of the radiated waves employed by Marconi was a modification of what is known as the filings coherer, the operation of which is due to the fact, discovered by Dr. Branly, that metal filings when thrown loosely together and made part of an electric circuit have a normally high electrical resistance, but in the presence or under the influence of electrical oscillations this resistance vanishes and they become conductors of an electric current. It was assumed that the electric oscillations cause the filings to cohere more closely together, thereby making a better contact with one another, hence the term coherer as applied to this form of electric-wave detector. It was further noticed that when the filings had thus cohered they retained their electrical conducting property even after the cessation of the oscillations until they were tapped or otherwise jarred, whereupon they resumed their normal high-resistance condition.

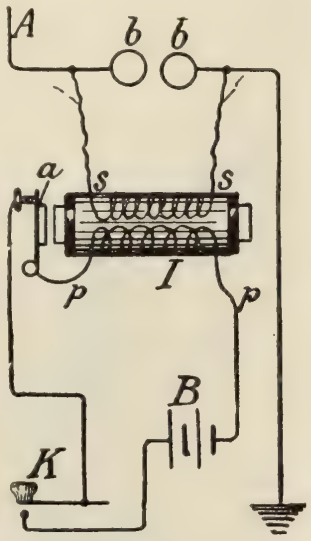


FIG. 1.

(Wireless transmitting apparatus. — *A*, vertical wire; *b*, *b*, spark gap; *s*, secondary wire; *p*, primary wire; *I*, induction coil; *a*, vibrating hammer; *B*, battery; *K*, telegraph key.)

Therefore, to make this device operative, a means of jarring the filings continuously to restore them to normal condition was necessary, and this was easily found in the shape of a vibrating bell, the hammer of which was caused to tap the tube containing the filings (see fig. 2).

DEVELOPMENT OF THE DETECTOR.

The speed of signaling with the "tapping back" coherer is inherently slow, probably from eight to twelve words per minute, and the instrument is also more or less unreliable, requiring frequent and careful adjustment. Hence, it was evident to all concerned in the advancement of wireless telegraphy that the production was desirable of a detector more sensitive and more reliable than the filings coherer, and one which upon the cessation of the oscillations in its circuit would at once automatically resume its normal condition. A number of detectors capable of fulfilling these requirements have been devised in the past five years, among them the Solari mercury auto-coherer, used by the Italian navy; the Marconi and other magnetic detectors; the De Forest electrolytic detector; the Fessenden "heat" detector, and the Lodge-Muirhead oil-film detector. Each of these electric-wave detectors, or, more correctly, electric-oscillation detectors, while differing more or less in principle, effect the same final result,—that is, they either produce or vary a current in a local circuit in which is placed a telegraph relay or a telephone receiver, or they vary the resistance of that circuit and

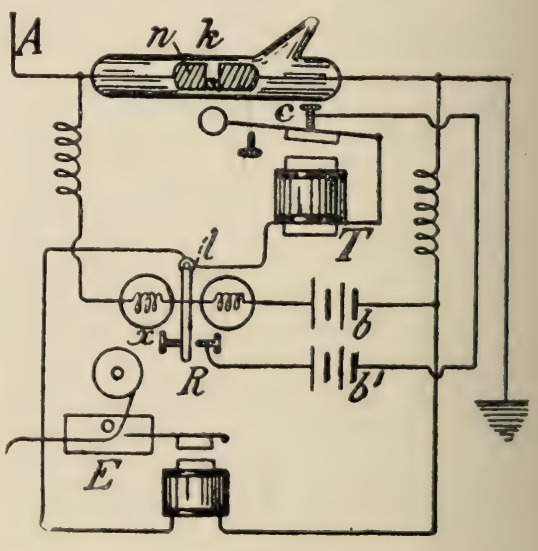


FIG. 2.

(Wireless receiving apparatus.—*A*, vertical wire; *n*, *k*, filings coherer; *T*, tapper; *R*, relay; *b*, *b'*, batteries; *E*, ink recorder.)

thus cause the relay or telephone to respond to the received signals.

At the present time, almost every civilized nation has developed one or more systems of wireless telegraphy. In the United States there are the De Forest and Fessenden systems; in Great Britain, the Marconi and Lodge-Muirhead systems; in Germany, the Slaby-Arco and the Braun systems, which are now consolidated under the name of the Siemens-Halske wireless system; in France, the Ducretel and other systems. Italy, naturally, also claims the Marconi wireless method. In Russia, the Popoff system is used; while in Japan a wireless system has been developed the inventor or inventors of which are not definitely known.*

IN ALMOST UNIVERSAL USE.

It is difficult to ascertain the actual degree of perfection to which several of these systems have been brought, owing to the varying statements that reach the public. But enough is known to make it clear that for distances ranging from twenty-five to two hundred and fifty miles over water wireless telegraphy is now fairly reliable for commercial business and other purposes. Wireless systems are now installed on a large number of ocean-going steamers, with results that are admitted to be fairly satisfactory. Numerous circuits are in operation between the mainland and lighthouses in this country and Europe, where messages to and from passing vessels equipped with wireless systems are regularly exchanged. The important war vessels of every navy are now equipped, or are being equipped, with wireless outfits; the British Government, for example, is expending about one hundred thousand dollars per annum for this purpose. The military authorities of the world are also utilizing this system to the utmost by the equipment of forts with the most practicable systems procurable. Wireless outfits are also made a part of the signaling system for land operations, for which purpose the apparatus is carried in two carts, on one of which is usually placed an oil engine which operates an alternating current generator. The transmitting and the receiving apparatus are carried on the other cart. As the masts used to support the vertical wires at fixed stations weigh from four to six tons, and therefore are not readily portable, small balloons charged with hydrogen are used in ordinary weather to uphold the vertical wires. In stormy weather, the wires are supported by four or six kites.

ITS MOST PRACTICAL USE.

It has long been pointed out that one of the most practical uses of wireless telegraphy commercially is between places divided by the ocean where it is not feasible to lay a cable, either on account of the expense involved or because of the rocky nature of the shore, which would speedily chafe and destroy a cable. A notable example of this use of wireless telegraphy is the recent installation of a De Forest wireless circuit between Boca del Toro, Panama, and Port Limon, Costa Rica, for the convenience of the fruit-growers and merchants of that neighborhood. The distance between these points is seventy miles, and the service has been satisfactory from the start. In a number of instances the ability to communicate between the fruit-grower and the shipper at critical times has resulted in the saving of many thousands of dollars. The masts supporting the vertical wires, and the interior of the station at Port Limon, are shown in the accompanying illustrations. In the interior picture, the Leyden jars, or condensers, and the spiral wire, or inductance coil, of the oscillating circuit are shown at the far end of the table. The wireless receiving apparatus, including the De Forest electrolytic receiver and the head telephone, are shown on the rear end of the table. A commercial telephone set, for ordinary telephone use, is shown at the left side of the table. It will be understood that the head telephones of the wireless outfit are used for the reception of the Morse signals, which are heard as long and short sounds in the receiver. There is no reasonable doubt that there are numerous other places where a similarly valuable use of wireless telegraphy could be made. In addition to examples of this kind, there have also been numerous occasions upon which wireless telegraphy has been employed to great advantage by vessels requiring assistance, and such instances will multiply as the use of this system increases.

WIRELESS TELEGRAPHY IN THE FAR EAST.

The recent successful employment of wireless telegraphy in the far East in affording a means of communication from the beleaguered Port Arthur, and especially in the transmission of war news from the war zone, has renewed attention to its potential utility. It is known that a wireless station was established at Golden Hill, at least as long ago as the spring of 1903,

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*For full details of these systems, and of the apparatus employed in their operation, a description of which would be beyond the scope of a magazine article, the reader may be referred to the author's works, "Wireless Telegraphy, Theory and Practice," and "American Telegraphy and Encyclopedia of the Telegraph."



PORT LIMON, COSTA RICA, SHOWING WIRELESS TELEGRAPH "MAST."

for regular communication between Port Arthur and the Russian warships in the Gulf of Pechi-li. In the waters of the far East there are at least five different systems of wireless telegraphy on the various warships and in the forts. The British have more than twenty vessels in those waters equipped with the Marconi system in which the filings coherer is used. The Italians, also, employ the Marconi system with the Solari coherer. The Germans are using the Slaby-Arco or the Braun system. The French vessels are probably equipped with the Braun system. The Japanese are employing a system which, it is asserted, is a modification of Marconi's; but this is denied by the Japanese. It is known that wireless experiments have been carried on by the Japanese Department of Communications and the Japanese navy since 1896.

SOME DIFFICULTIES.

When it is considered that all of these vessels and stations are endeavoring to use the ether for signaling purposes at one time, it is evident that, unless it be possible to cut out, or in some way to eliminate, the effects of the signals of outsiders, more or less confusion must result. For instance, at the time of the British naval maneuvers in 1903, it was stated by a newspaper correspondent that, owing to the "interference" of one set of signals with the other, both sides ceased to pay any attention to the disjointed messages.; hence, the wireless system was of no use to either side.

This question of interference is obviously a very important one, since if it can be successfully carried out in warfare it renders nugatory any attempt of the belligerents to carry on communication by its means. The same statement may be made with regard to commercial wireless telegraphy.

CAN "INTERFERENCE" BE REMEDIED?

It is, however, measurably true that by an arrangement of the wireless circuits termed tuning a system can be so adjusted that it will respond to but one set of waves, regardless of how many other sets may be passing. An understanding of the manner in which this result is effected may be gathered by considering the



INTERIOR OF THE WIRELESS TELEGRAPH STATION AT PORT LIMON.

manner in which a practically similar result is obtained by mechanical means in a wire telegraph method known as harmonic telegraphy. In this system, three or four forks attuned to different notes, and consequently to different rates of vibration, are so placed in a telegraph circuit that they set up current pulsations in that circuit corresponding to their fundamental rate of vibration. The pulsations set up by each of these forks are controlled by telegraph keys. At the receiving station, four ordinary electromagnets are placed in the circuit. The armatures of these magnets consist of tuning-forks, each of which is attuned to vibrate at a rate corresponding to that of one of the transmitting forks, and it will respond only to the pulsations of current set up by that particular transmitting fork. Hence, it is possible by these means to send four, or even more, separate messages over one telegraph circuit.

In an analogous way, the attempt is made, more or less successfully, in wireless telegraphy, to tune the respective systems so that each will only respond to a given set of electric waves in the ether. It is not possible to employ in wireless telegraphy the mechanical method of tuning just described, but it is found possible to tune the oscillating circuits at the transmitting and receiving ends by electrical means. This is done by taking advantage of the fact that the rate or frequency of electric oscillations in a circuit is governed by the resistance, the capacity, and the inductance of the circuit, which properties of an electric circuit may be likened to friction, elasticity, and inertia in mechanics.

In actual practice, however, while fairly successful results have been obtained by tuning the oscillating circuits, it has not hitherto been found feasible to entirely prevent or cut out interference between different systems if the interfering waves are of sufficient strength, especially if the oscillations are approximately of the same order or frequency. When, on the other hand, the rate of oscillation employed by different stations is quite dissimilar, attempts to cut out interference are much more successful.

But it is a fortunate fact that when the telephone is used as a receiver in wireless telegraphy it is not absolutely necessary to success that the signals of other stations shall be cut out altogether. It suffices if by tuning or distance the interference is minimized. In such a case, the signals intended for a given station may be read by an expert operator, while the extraneous sounds are disregarded, in virtually the same manner, for instance, as when a number of people are conversing at one time in a room a listener may select the conversation of any one speaker



LEE DE FOREST.

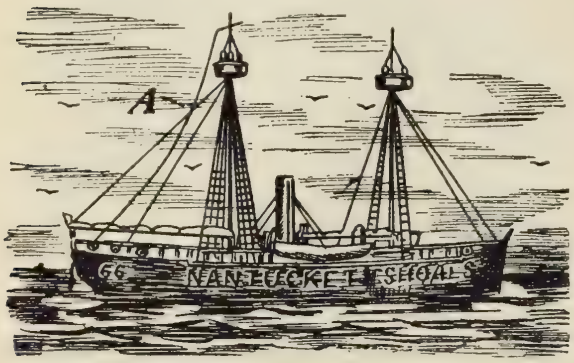
in the room and hear him to the exclusion of all the other speakers, notwithstanding that the sounds of all the voices are falling upon the tympanum of the listener's ear.

EXTENSIVE USE IN ORIENTAL WATERS.

According to advices from the operators of the De Forest wireless system in Chinese and Japanese waters, there is an unending train of wireless signals going on day and night in that vicinity. The signals of the Russians and the Japanese, and especially of the latter, can be heard at all hours, these nations, in common with all others, using in telegraphy a modification of the Morse telegraph alphabet. The telegraph alphabet used by the Russians contains thirty characters; that of the Japanese is said to contain forty characters, while the American Morse contains but twenty-six characters. But, apart from this difference in the alphabets, the belligerents use cipher codes which render their communications unintelligible to outsiders, even if they were otherwise readable.

The De Forest wireless station in North China from which the wireless war news is cabled to Europe is situated on a cliff somewhat east

of Wei-Hai-Wei. The height of the vertical wire used is about one hundred and fifty feet, which is also the height of the station above sea level. The Chinese steamship *Haimun*, which was chartered by the London *Times* for news-gathering by wireless telegraphy, has a vertical wire about ninety-six feet high. The transmitting and receiving apparatus employed at Wei-Hai-Wei and on the *Haimun* are practically identical, and the operating-rooms virtually correspond to those of the Panama and Port Limon stations. Messages were freely sent to and from



NANTUCKET LIGHTSHIP.

(Showing wireless mast and antennæ.)

the boat at distances ranging from ten to one hundred and fifty miles. The signals could be heard at greater distances from the boat to the shore than contrariwise, the rolling of the boat at times interfering with the reception of signals. At the time of Russia's announcement that correspondents employing wireless telegraphy in the war zone would be treated as spies, the *Haimun* was on the Korean coast, and those on board were promptly informed of the interesting situation by wireless telegraphy.

EXCELLENT SERVICE TO THE "HAIMUN."

This vessel has had several interesting experiences. One day last April, when the *Haimun* was within twelve miles of Port Arthur and eighty-five miles from Wei-Hai-Wei, on the look-out for war news, she was held up by a shot across her bows from the Russian warship *Bayan*. Not knowing what might happen, Captain James, the correspondent of the London *Times* on the *Haimun*, sent a wireless dispatch to Wei-Hai-Wei, notifying that station that they were about to be boarded by officers of the Russian battleship *Bayan*. "If you do not hear from us in three hours," said the message, "notify commissioner, captain of British gunboat *Leviathan*, and London *Times*." There was some natural anxiety to know if the message had been received, but presently all anxiety was relieved by the welcome signal "O. K." from the Wei-Hai-Wei operator. In a short time a reply came stating that the commissioner and the commander of the British fleet at Wei-Hai-Wei had been properly notified, and that from the window of the operating-room it could be seen that the fleet was getting up steam,—"and that," added the operator, "is no dream." Two Russian officers boarded the *Haimun*, inspected the wireless apparatus, and took a copy of the last message sent. In the midst of their inspection, the officers were hurriedly recalled to the *Bayan* by apparently excited signals from that ship, which immediately returned to Port Arthur. It was surmised by those on the *Haimun*, as an explanation of their hasty return, that the Russians had detected Japanese wireless signals. On the other hand, it is quite possible that the *Bayan's* wireless operator may also have received the messages sent from the *Haimun* and from Wei-Hai-Wei relative to the boarding of the *Haimun*, and this, for prudential reasons, may have occasioned the hasty recall of the boarding officers. On this point it may be noted that while the ether itself transmits all forms of electric waves impartially, it is quite within the probabilities that some characteristic in the method of transmission, or some peculiarity of code used by one vessel or fleet, might after a little experience be quickly recognized by other fleets, and in this way the presence of friend or enemy could be recognized without a regular message.

AN INTERNATIONAL AGREEMENT.

The fact that the operation of powerful wireless coast stations has been found to seriously interfere with the operation of wireless telegraph systems on shipboard has already led to protests from maritime interests in various countries against the indiscriminate extension of such powerful stations. It is manifest that ordinary steamships or sailing vessels, and lightships and lighthouses, cannot maintain powerful installations, nor can they command the services of experts to manipulate wireless tuning apparatus to minimize or eliminate interference. Furthermore, the attunement of wireless systems on shipboard or on lighthouses to one or more set of electric waves is obviously not desirable, inasmuch as in case of need these vessels and stations should be able to interchange communication with any system within their influence.

An international wireless telegraphy conference was held in Berlin last summer for the consideration of matters of the nature just men-

tioned, and of others analogous thereto, and a number of rules were adopted for the proper regulation of wireless telegraph operations in the best interests of all concerned.

ACTION BY THE UNITED STATES GOVERNMENT.

It has recently been reported that the United States Government has under consideration the



REGINALD A. FESSENDEN.

advisability of obtaining, by Congressional enactment or otherwise, the exclusive control of all wireless telegraph stations on the coasts of this country, on the ground that only in this way can the coast be properly defended in time of war, so far as wireless telegraphy may be useful to that end. In no other way, it is intimated, can interference between conflicting wireless stations be prevented and the proper control and systemization of the wireless service be successfully brought about. At the present time, at least four different wireless systems are employed by various departments of the United States Government,—namely, the Slaby-Arco, by the navy department; the Braun system, by the army, for land operations; the Wildman system, by the Signal Corps of the army, and the Fessenden system, or a modification of that system, by the Weather Bureau. The Wildman system is understood to be a combination, with improvements by Captain Wildman.

It would certainly seem desirable that a standard system should be adopted for all branches of the Government, in order, if for nothing else, that a ready interchange of men and apparatus might be feasible. Under existing conditions, this is evidently not the case. To determine in what manner the foregoing results may best be obtained, and to consider the subject in all its bearings, the President has appointed a board consisting of representatives of the army and navy, whose findings, it is intimated, will shortly be reported. In the meantime, the Government has entered into a contract with one of the existing wireless telegraph companies for the establishment of a series of five wireless telegraph circuits,—namely, between Key West and Panama, a distance of one thousand miles; Key West and Pensacola, four hundred and fifty miles; Porto Rico and Key West, one thousand miles; southern Cuban coast to Panama, seven hundred and twenty miles, and southern Cuba to Porto Rico, six hundred miles. The ultimate object of these proposed stations is, it is stated, to provide an alternative method of communication, in case of emergency, with the government's outlying territories and interests in Central America, and possibly in the far East. The masts for these stations will be from two hundred to three hundred feet in height, and the power of the generators of the electric waves will probably range from twenty-five to forty horse-power. Inasmuch as the height of the wires hitherto employed has not much exceeded one hundred and fifty feet, and the power employed at the generator has been from two to three horse-power, with which distances of from one hundred and fifty to two hundred miles have been reached, it is expected that the additional height of the vertical wires and the greatly increased power will make it possible to transmit messages over the much longer circuits. This, however, remains to be determined.

At present, it may be remarked that the United States Government is alone in not possessing a monopoly of wireless telegraphy on its coasts and within its boundaries. In Great Britain, the government declined to give the Marconi system certain desired privileges unless it would guarantee that the more powerful stations would not interfere with existing wireless stations of the British Admiralty. In France, a wireless station which was erected at Cape La Hogue without governmental authority was, it is reported, "seized" by the police. Germany, Italy, Russia, and other European nations also exercise complete control over wireless telegraph systems, while in far-off Ceylon a fee is exacted for the operation of such circuits on that island.

THE SUCCESSOR OF DIAZ IN THE MEXICAN PRESIDENCY.

BY AUSTIN C. BRADY.

IN January, 1903, a comparatively young man entered the cabinet of Gen. Porfirio Diaz, President of Mexico. At that time his name was practically unknown outside of Mexico, and was not particularly familiar to the people of that republic. To-day, in his own country, he occupies a position of prominence second only to that of Diaz, and interested investors of the United States and Europe, who for several years have been asking the question, "After Diaz, what?" are eagerly seeking information concerning his personal characteristics and governing ability. This man is Ramon Corral, minister of the interior, who will be inaugurated vice-president of the Mexican republic in December of this year. If he lives, he will succeed Diaz as President of Mexico, for he has been selected by that remarkable ruler to receive the mantle of authority when it falls from his shoulders.

Corral was nominated for the vice-presidency by the Nationalist party, in the city of Mexico, on June 7 last, and by reason of the peculiar political conditions existing in Mexico, where the ballot is still far distant, the nomination was equivalent to election. There was no other candidate in the field against him, any more than against Diaz himself, and on July 11, when the reëlection of Diaz as president was announced, in accordance with constitutional forms, Corral, in a corresponding manner, was elevated to the position of vice-president. The opening of the coming year will see him sharing the duties of the executive branch of the government with the maker of modern Mexico.

The nomination of Corral was preceded by the adoption of amendments to the constitution of Mexico providing for the office of vice-president and extending the presidential term from four to six years. The organization that nominated him is made up of men in touch with the Diaz administration in various sections of the republic. The constitutional changes and the convention were preliminary steps in the plan conceived by Diaz for settling the question of presidential succession, a question that has been paramount in Mexico for a number of years. This plan includes his temporary retirement from the presidency during the course of the coming term, in order that Corral, left largely to his own resources, may have the opportunity of demonstrating his executive ability, and in order that the people of Mexico may become accustomed to the idea of a new ruler. If Diaz live, — and the physical and mental vigor which

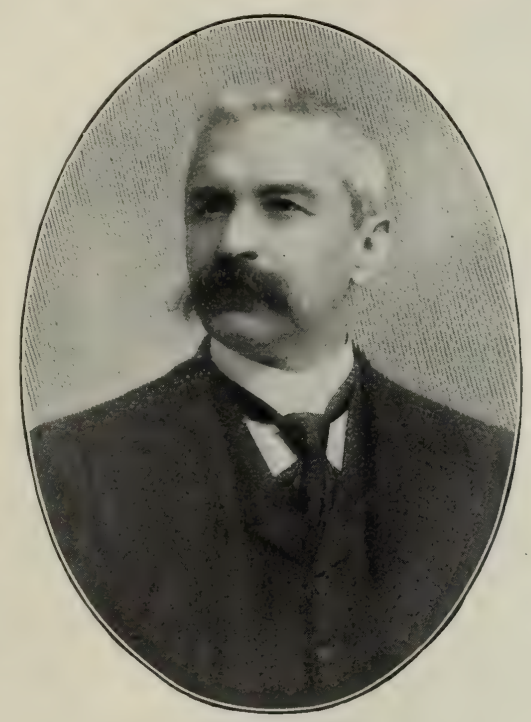


PRESIDENT DIAZ, OF MEXICO.

he now displays gives promise of many additional years,—this detail will be carried out, his long-cherished desire to travel through the United States and European countries being made the excuse for his retirement. During the time that Diaz continues actively at the head of governmental affairs, Corral will study the executive lessons under his tutorship, and at the end of six years should be particularly fitted to take up and carry on his work. If Diaz die, the vice-presidential arrangement will provide for succession in a logical way, and will, it is believed, reduce to a minimum the danger of political upheaval.

To understand fully what the passing of Diaz means to Mexico, it is necessary to understand something of what he has accomplished, and

how absolutely he controls the affairs of his country. Before Diaz, there was chaos; since his advent, there has been order. He gained power through revolution, and instantly became the champion of peace. Endowed with a marvelous knowledge of human nature, he called about him men of ability on whom he could depend, and built up an organization the like of which does not exist in any other country. Revolutionary tendencies and brigandage he put down with an iron hand, and offered a guarantee of peace to the millions of American and European capital seeking investment abroad. He put the ballot aside as premature because of his intimate familiarity with the emotional characteristics of the Mexican race, but at the same time took occasion to carefully guard and encourage republican forms. In the twenty years that he has continuously governed Mexico, Porfirio Diaz has been the beginning and the end of all Mexican politics, and the peace which the country has enjoyed, and the wonderful progress it has made, constitute a striking argument in favor of autocratic government.



RAMON CORRAL.

(Chosen vice-president of Mexico.)

Can Corral continue the Diaz organization? The future of the Mexican republic hinges largely on the answer to this question. The present does not demand a second Diaz, for Mexico is now well established as a modern world-power and its people have come to appreciate the value of peace, but the new ruler, to succeed, must prove himself a man of more than ordinary strength, possessing tact and ability to cope instantly with any political emergency. If Mexico pass from Diaz to Corral without political trouble, the possibility of internal disturbances in future years will be greatly diminished.

The minister of the interior is now fifty years of age, and for nearly twenty years has been identified with the Diaz administration. He is a native of Alamos, a small town in the state of Sonora, and, like Diaz, is of humble origin. His appearance in public life was as editor of two newspapers in his native town, both of which were established with the purpose of fighting the administration of Gen. Ignacio Pesquiera, then governor of Sonora. Later, Corral took part in the revolution that resulted in deposing Pesquiera, and during that contest saw his only military service. He was taken up by the new state administration, and in 1887, after having come to the notice of Diaz, he was named vice-governor of Sonora. Afterward, he served as Deputy to the national Congress, and in 1895 was given charge of the government of Sonora. For four years Corral remained as governor of that state, and during that time Sonora made wonderful progress along modern lines. In 1900, he was called to the city of Mexico by the president and made governor of the Federal District, which corresponds to the District of Columbia and includes the national capital and its suburbs. On January 16, 1903, he entered the cabinet of President Diaz as minister of the interior.

The incident that made a place for Corral in the cabinet of Diaz operated to make him the most logical man for the presidential succession. This was the resignation of Gen. Bernardo Reyes as minister of war and marine. Up to that time, General Reyes had been considered a foremost presidential possibility, sharing the distinction with José Ives Limantour, minister of finance. But enmity of long standing between Reyes and Limantour blossomed into open antagonism under the equal favor shown them by the president as members of his official family, and when, one day, it was discovered that a son of Reyes was interested in a newspaper established with the avowed object of killing Limantour politically, the war minister was accused of complicity. A stormy cabinet meeting followed, and when it ended, Reyes' resignation was in the hands of the president. Diaz undoubtedly realized at that time the danger of intrusting the presidency to either Reyes or Limantour, because of the bitterness between them and the following each could command, and it



JOSÉ IVES LIMANTOUR.
(The Mexican minister of finance.)

is not at all improbable that he associated Corral with the presidency when he rearranged the cabinet positions and offered him the portfolio of the interior.

Corral has a pleasing personality. He is democratic and diplomatic, and gives the impression of reserve strength. His capacity for government, which was demonstrated in Sonora and during his term as governor of the Federal District, has developed in the broader and more important field of the interior department. A native of a border state and its chief executive, he has been much in contact with Americans, has absorbed many American ideas, and is an admirer of American energy. Of particular interest to the United States is the fact that he is a protectionist. While serving as Deputy from Sonora to the national Congress, a scarcity of wheat occurred in the state of Sinaloa and the territory of Lower California, and the finance committee of that body proposed a bill admitting California wheat and flour free of duty. Corral fought it on the ground that it would ruin the agricultural and milling interests of Sonora, and as a result of his efforts the bill was withdrawn. He was responsible for the increases in the Mexican import duties made early in the present year, and under his rule the protective examples of the United States are certain to be followed as rapidly as various industries in Mexico become worthy of government aid.

It is the general feeling in Mexico that President Diaz has chosen well in selecting Corral to be his successor. He is not bound up with either the Reyes or Limantour factions, and while he is a closer friend of Limantour than of Reyes, his friendship for the former is not such as to antagonize the latter. When a committee from the Nationalist party called on President Diaz to officially notify him of Corral's nomination, the president commented particularly on the fact that the minister of the interior was comparatively a young man. It is the hope of Diaz that Corral may rule continuously, as he has done, to the end that the republic may be spared the dangers which might attend political changes.

It is probable that comparatively few people in the United States realize to what extent their country is interested in the future of Mexico. Contiguity of territory is in itself important, and the two republics are now held firmly together by commercial bonds. Mexico receives two-thirds of its imports from the United States, and sells its northern neighbor three-fourths of its exports. There are fully six hundred millions of American money invested in Mexico at the present time, and the flow of gold across the Rio Grande is continuing steadily. In the city of Mexico alone, there are six thousand American residents, and those in other parts of the republic bring the total to at least thirty thousand. Should the coming political change in Mexico be followed by internal disorder, the United States would find itself directly affected. In the event of the disorder endangering the lives of American citizens and resulting in the confiscation of American property, the United States would be compelled to intervene. Intervention under such circumstances might change the map of North America,—it might signal the passing of Mexico's independence and the merging of the southern republic with the United States.

HERZL, LEADER OF MODERN ZIONISM.

BY HERMAN ROSENTHAL.

IN the prime of his manhood, with his great task far from completion, Theodor Herzl, the leader of modern Zionism, passed away on July 3. It is certain that the cares and perplexing problems that his self-assumed mission had brought to him hastened his death. It was his fervent enthusiasm, his lofty yet clear vision, his magnetic personality, his remarkable power of organization, and his uncompromising honesty of purpose that had built and upheld latter-day Zionism.



THE LATE DR. THEODOR HERZL, THE "MODERN MOSES."

Born in Budapest, May 2, 1860, Herzl received his education in the *Realschule* of his native town, and later at the classical gymnasium and the University of Vienna, where he prepared for a legal career. He did not, however, devote himself to the practice of law, but engaged, instead, in literary and journalistic work. In 1896, he published his "Judenstaat," in which he proposed a plan for the solution of the intricate Jewish question. Herzl believed that this question is neither religious nor social in character, notwithstanding that it assumes, at times, one or the other of these forms. It is, according to him, a national question, susceptible of solution only by being treated as a universal political problem, to be regulated by a council of the civilized nations.

The Zionist movement strives to create in Palestine a legal home assured by universal consent for Jews who either cannot or will not assimilate in their present environment. The Jews, said Herzl, have the "right to demand from the enlightened powers a home thus assured, because of their past and of their future mission, which they believe to be of great moment to the world at large."

Under the leadership of Herzl, modern Zionism grew rapidly, particularly in eastern Europe, where the condition of the Jewish masses is well-nigh hopeless. In the six general Zionist congresses held between 1897 and 1903, his ideas were further formulated in the following: (1) The practical encouragement of colonization in Palestine of Jewish farmers, artisans, and manufacturers; (2) the organization and unification of the Jewish masses, with due regard to local conditions, and in the spirit of the laws of the respective countries; (3) the strengthening and development of a Jewish national sentiment and consciousness; (4) preliminary steps toward the securing of the consent of the powers, indispensable to the accomplishment of the purposes of Zionism. Leaving the work of internal organization to the central committee and its branches, Herzl assigned to himself the diplomatic mission, and was received as the representative of the Jewish nation by rulers and statesmen, among them the Sultan of Turkey. In 1903, he secured from the British colonial secretary, Mr. Chamberlain, the promise of a territorial grant in Uganda, Africa, for purposes of colonization. The Jewish colonies were to be given extensive autonomy in the agricultural and industrial development of the region. The project created stubborn opposition on the part of the Russian Zionists, who would not content themselves with any soil but that of Palestine. A committee is now investigating the feasibility of colonization in Uganda.

The strength of the Zionist movement is evidenced by the rapid increase of the so-called "shekel" fund, derived from annual contributions of one shekel (25 cents) each by the active members of the Zionist organization. In 1897, this had a membership of 78,000, which grew to 122,000 in 1900, and to nearly 400,000 in 1903.

BARON SUYEMATSU ON THE AIMS OF JAPAN.

THERE is now in London a very notable Japanese statesman, whose command of the English language enables him to familiarize the press with Japanese ideals. This is Baron Suyematsu, a former minister of the interior for the Mikado. He is just the man to express an opinion on the "yellow peril," "Asia for the Asiatics," and the possible extension of Japanese ambition? In a recent conversation with the writer, he gave out some interesting information as to Japan's aims now and after the war.

The baron, who is a genial humorist, gayly laughed at the notion that the Japanese could ever fall a prey to the temptations which success in war so often brings in its train.

"As for the yellow peril," he said, "tell me what is the meaning of this yellow peril?"

"Oh, it is very simple," I answered. "Japan, if victorious, will Japanese China, and the four hundred millions of Chinese, organized and drilled by Japan, would declare for Asia for the Asiatics, and where would Europe be then?"



BARON SUYEMATSU.

"That assumes that we are Asiatics," said Baron Suyematsu; "and that because Japan can organize the Japanese she can organize Asiatics. But it does not follow. Neither is it to be assumed that because Japan can equip victorious fleets and armies, Asiatic nations can do the same. They are distinct from us, and the Chinese are very distinct. They are of different race. We are warlike, they are the most peaceful of men. We have an intense pride in our nationality; with them, patriotism in our sense is unknown. They have never conquered anybody. They only ask to be let alone."

"But Genghis Khan——"

"Was not a Chinese. It is Russia rather than Japan who is the heir of the great Tartar conqueror. He plundered and conquered the Chinese."

"Well, have it so, if you will, but if Japan wins, will the Japanese head not be turned by your victories? I have known European nations fall a prey to such a temptation."

"Oh," replied the imperturbable baron, "Europeans might. But, you see, we are not Europeans. We are Japanese."

"We want no gold mines; we want no territory," I said. "We have heard that before. But we got both when our war was over."

"Maybe," said he; "but the Japanese are different."

"Well, then, let us hear what you want. Korea, I suppose?"

"Oh, dear me, no, any more than you want Egypt. We defend the independence of Korea, and to secure that we shall put it under the protection of Japan, excluding Russia from any share in Korean affairs."

"And how far does Korea extend? As far as Mukden?"

"Nothing of the kind. Korea is bounded by the Yalu, although it is, perhaps, true that the influence of Korea did extend north of that river."

"I thought so. And your antiquarians will discover that Mukden is essentially a Korean city. We have known such things."

"With you, perhaps; not with us. We are not fighting to extend our frontiers—only to secure our own safety."

"Be it so. What do you propose to do with Manchuria?"

"Oh, Manchuria belongs to China. All that we shall seek is to secure an international guarantee that it shall always belong to China, and that China shall never hand it over to any other power."

"And the Russian railway?"

"Oh, that will be made international and strictly and exclusively commercial, with its access to the sea at Port Arthur"

"I see; you propose to reproduce in the far East the settlement made in the near East after the Crimean War. Korea Japanized as Egypt is Anglicised, without annexation, and an international guarantee of the integrity of the Chinese Empire in Manchuria. The railway is to be the Bosphorus and Port Arthur the Constantinople of the far East, with free access for trade, but hermetically closed for all purposes of war. And do you think the Russians will ever agree to that?"

"Not willingly, of course," said the baron. "But possibly. Who can say?"

AMERICAN TRADE INTERESTS IN THE WAR ZONE.

BY WOLF VON SCHIERBRAND.

(Author of "Russia, Her Strength and Her Weakness;" "America, Asia, and the Pacific;" etc.)

AMERICAN commercial interests in the vast region affected by the present war between Russia and Japan are large and varied. There is every reason why Secretary Hay should insist on a proper respect being paid to our rights there as neutrals. But it is not only our actual trade with Russia (European and Asiatic), Japan, Manchuria, China, and Korea that is in question. Voluminous as that is, it is insignificant in comparison with the prospective commerce which the United States is sure to build up in the present war zone within the next five years.

The foreign trade of the United States for 1903 amounted to $2,417,950,000. Of this our imports were $1,025,719,000, and our exports $1,392,231,000. The share that fell to Russia (European) was $9,234,739 from her and $15,889,605 to her. Japan sold us $44,143,728 worth, and took from us $20,820,823 worth. The figures for China were $26,648,846 and $18,780,580, respectively; for Asiatic Russia, $1,037,154 and $1,421,877; for Hongkong, $1,359,905 and $8,711,092; and for Korea, $1,257,307 and $2,189,447, respectively. This shows imports $83,681,679, and exports $67,813,420; together, $151,495,099. It would, therefore, mean about 8 per cent. of our import and just about 5 per cent. of our export trade. Or, to put it another way, it is about 6½ per cent. of our entire foreign trade.

It may be a surprise that the amount is not larger. We sold, for example, nearly four times the total volume of our trade to the war zone to Great Britain alone. But there are attendant circumstances which greatly modify this first view. While the actual figures are rather modest, our prospects are very bright. This may be stated positively, and for the following reasons:

AMERICAN EXPORTS AND IMPORTS TO THE ORIENT.

Our whole trade with the countries bordering on the Asiatic coast of the Pacific is of very recent date. In 1843, our imports thence amounted to but $4,385,000; in 1863, to $11,030,000; in 1883, to $37,260,000; in 1903, to $83,681,679. Mark the rapid rate of increase, particularly during the last two decades. But this rate of increase was far greater in our exports. In 1843, we sent there goods valued at $1,846,000; in 1863, $4,061,000; in 1883, $11,356,000; and in 1903, $67,813,420. In fact, this enormous increase has come within a single decade, for in 1893 we still exported but $11,464,000 worth. Inside of ten years our exports to this region have sextupled, and this in spite of a number of serious disadvantages, when compared with our chief competitors,—disadvantages such as greater distance from our Atlantic harbors, entire absence of banking facilities, desultory methods in acquiring trade, lack of particular American "interest spheres," etc. It is only since 1898,—since our acquisition of the Philippines,—that we have begun to cater specially to this far-away Pacific market. Within that brief period, however, our commercial achievements there have been astounding. This is, in the main, because we now produce precisely those goods most cheaply and of best quality which this market urgently requires,—machinery, hardware, canned goods, railway material of every kind, flour, petroleum, cotton goods, etc.

It has, therefore, been the excellence and cheapness of these products which have won this market for our export trade. The Panama Canal, however, will give an enormous impetus to our trade in the war zone. That new waterway will shorten distances for our Atlantic ports in a manner credited by relatively few. In fact, as the Suez Canal gave England, Germany, and France a great advantage over us in this trade, so will the Panama Canal transfer that advantage to us. Where we are now, without commercial organization, able to undersell the British and German merchant in Pacific waters, we shall, of course, with an enormous saving of distances (and hence of transportation expenses), be doubly and trebly able to do so hereafter. The completion of the Panama Canal will make it impossible for any of the European commercial nations to compete with us in that whole region in any of our principal commodities of export.

But there are more points to be considered in this connection. The commerce of Japan, China, Korea, Hongkong, and Asiatic Russia has grown within the past half century from less than

$100,000,000 to over $600,000,000. Hence, with the further opening up of China, Japan, and Korea, this trade will increase even more rapidly. There are strong indications that, within the next five years, it will climb up to the billion-dollar line.

Again, while Great Britain has advanced commercially in that region, comparatively speaking she has retrograded. Her commerce with the territory in question in 1853 was, roundly, $50,000,000, and in 1903 it was $100,000,000 ; it had doubled. Ours has grown twenty-five times greater, and now exceeds that of Great Britain (leaving out British India and Australia) by 50 per cent. Of the total volume of trade there, Great Britain in 1881 still held 52 per cent.; in 1903, but 14.8 per cent. We had in 1881 but 5.7 per cent. of it, while in 1903 we had 18.5 per cent.

MANCHURIA'S COMMERCIAL FUTURE.

Manchuria deserves our special attention. Statistically, it is impossible to demonstrate our commercial conquest of this region. There are only indications which enable us to say that Manchuria is bound to become our special market in the far East,—provided, of course, the "open door" is maintained and Russia is not permitted to close ports to us. In the available statistics the commerce of Manchuria is mingled with that of China proper. However, we do know that in 1902 some $11,000,000 worth of goods entered the chief harbor of Manchuria, Newchwang, and that of this $4,000,000 worth came from the United States, chiefly cotton cloths, petroleum, and flour.

Just as important as the foregoing is another consideration. Although the figures quoted above are the latest and most reliable official data, they are, nevertheless, grossly misleading, —of course, unintentionally so. The facts are these :

In the government lists (both here and in Europe and Asia) our exports are rated according to their declared point of *first* destination, and not according to their *ultimate* one. And this simple fact, unavoidable as it is, brings it about that wholly erroneous impressions are created. The most glaring cases in point are Russia and Japan.

HOW AMERICAN GOODS REACH RUSSIA.

Immense consignments of American goods intended for the Russian market are sent by the shipper in New York, Philadelphia, etc., not to a Russian port, but either to Hull or Hamburg, of late years particularly the last-named German emporium. There they are transshipped and subsequently enter Russia either as "German" or "British" goods. The reason of this is that the American merchant is averse to assuming the risks and tribulations incident to sending his goods direct to the Russian consumer. And this for substantial reasons. The Russian Government pays premiums to its customs officers for every flaw or misstatement discovered in the exporter's invoices or other papers. The American papers of this kind are often carelessly drawn, and fines and delays follow. As a rule, one experience of the kind suffices the average American exporter. Thereafter he is glad enough to have the German commission merchants as middlemen. The latter have for many years made the Russian customs system a special study, and thus it is that many million dollars' worth of American goods enter Russia as "German." That is the way, too, in which it comes that Germany is credited in her own and in Russia's official statistics with a full third of Russia's entire foreign trade,—about $200,000,000 out of a total $600,000,000.

How large a percentage of American exports to Russia is thus booked under a wrong heading there is no exact way of telling, but it is certainly very large. There have been years when American exports to Russia were two or three times as large as they have ostensibly figured.

Regarding Asiatic Russia the case is similar. American goods seldom go direct to Vladivostok or other Siberian ports ; usually they are consigned to Nagasaki, and are transshipped. Of course, they figure in the lists as Japanese imports. This Japanese transit trade to Vladivostok, Petropavlovsk, Chefu, and Newchwang, as well as to Port Arthur and Dalny, is also quite large, and it again is very misleading.

But as to Russia, the matter is particularly glaring. For instance, during the years 1901 and 1902 there was shipped to Asiatic Russia, in railroad-building material, heavy and expensive machinery and electric plants, probably some ten or twelve million dollars' worth, from New York and Philadelphia. But the official trade returns did not show this ; these shipments appeared on the ledgers of Japan or China, a good deal, too (being carried overland *via* Baltic ports and sworn to in the consignments as "German" or "British"), on that of European nations. Thus it happened that the total figure of our exports to Russia for 1901–02 in our official statistics is only $9,059,461, while perhaps the actual figure would be four times as large. This phase of the whole matter is one of which very few persons, indeed, seem to be aware.

RUSSIA UNFAIR TO AMERICAN CAPITAL.

Our commercial relations with Russia have been unsatisfactory in other ways as well. The Russian Government has not always dealt kindly with American investors. The subject is an extensive one, and to cite just two cases in illustration will be enough for the purpose. The Westinghouse Airbrake Company was inveigled, by means of glowing promises, to erect large works in St. Petersburg. They were solemnly assured of a monopoly of their air brakes on all the Russian railroads. The works were built, and two thousand American mechanics, engineers, and others were installed. Soon, however, Russia induced an American competitor, by like promises, to erect similar large works in Moscow. Thus, competition having been secured, the Westinghouse people and their competitors had to underbid each other. Next, Russia insisted on and enforced the gradual discharge of all the Americans employed in the two works. The Singer Sewing Machine Company was treated to a similar dose of Russian duplicity. To-day, the enormous factory built by them near Nifhni Novgorod, where fourteen thousand persons are employed, has passed entirely into Russian hands; there is not a single American left to tell the tale. It behooves American investors to be very cautious, indeed, hereafter when dealing with the Russian Government.

Still, with all these drawbacks, it is undeniable that Russia will continue to offer a large field for American enterprise. And that brings me to the point of inquiring, What will be our commercial chances at the close of this present war in the zone affected? Will they be less favorable than at present or more so?

In a general way, it may be said that American trade opportunities there will be vastly better than they now are. Indeed, it is no exaggeration to claim that from the end of this present Russo-Japanese war will date an era of immense American trade expansion in the far East. And the reasons for advancing this claim are not far to seek. Let me enumerate them.

HOW THE WAR WILL AFFECT RUSSIA COMMERCIALLY.

Take the case of Russia first, that being the most important country, commercially speaking. It is true that Russia, in any case, whether winner or loser, will issue from this war much weakened financially. That is beyond doubt. The first Russian battleships had scarcely been torpedoed in the roadstead of Port Arthur when Russia was already haunting Paris, Berlin, and Amsterdam for her first war loan of $180,000,000. Before peace is concluded several additional loans will become necessary for her. This war, with Russia's bases so many thousand miles off, will cost her enormously. The gold interest on her foreign debt will be enlarged by another $20,000,000 or $30,000,000 annually. Her young industry, never healthy or normal, will be wiped out. Even now, just a couple of months after hostilities by land have set in, we hear of a perfect collapse, or rather cessation, of Russian industry in its main centers,—Warsaw, Lódz, Moscow, and Vladimir.

For Russia this is bad, of course, very bad. But for American interests it is the reverse. Capital available for Russian industrial enterprises being wiped out, chances for American trade (of late years much hindered by this very hothouse industry in Russia) will correspondingly improve. As this country can supply Russian needs in machinery and other industrial articles with the greatest degree of satisfaction, it will be we who will profit most largely from Russian industrial depression. And this depression will, in all probability, continue for several decades. For Russia is a land very poor in mobile capital and not at all elastic in financial resources.

After the war, Russia must, nevertheless, go on developing her far-Eastern provinces, even if she should be ousted from Manchuria. There is no other way for her,—she must fall back on American capital and enterprise in those regions, whether she likes it or no. And that is an immense field for our harvest.

Of equal importance for us is China. It may be taken for granted that one of the assured results of this war will be the establishment of the "open door," for good and all, in that vast country. That will mean two things: a signal triumph of American statesmanship,—for we, of all nations, have most consistently and ably stood for the "open door,"—and the establishment of American trade supremacy in northern China. It has already been stated that the Panama Canal will vastly benefit us in our commerce with China. But even before its completion, our commercial position there will be exceptionally strong once the "open door" has assumed the shape of a settled policy. The recent removal of the *li kin* (provincial transportation tax) will be of special advantage to our trade, inasmuch as most of our articles of import in China are bulky and heavy, therefore least able to bear this impost. What we now need more than anything else in China is systematic and joint effort on the part of our export merchants in the task of familiarizing the Chinese purchaser,—who will always "look see" (as he terms it in his pidgin English) before

buying,—with our goods; also the establishment of American banking institutions in a score of Chinese treaty ports. These things done, we may confidently look for a growth of our trade with China to the extent of 100 per cent. or more per annum.

JAPAN AFTER THE WAR.

As to Japan, it is clear that she, too, will emerge from her titanic struggle with Russia in a sadly enfeebled condition, and this irrespective of the question whether ultimately she will triumph or be defeated. Japan, for all her magnificent courage and progressiveness, is intrinsically a poor country of small natural resources. To carry on this lengthy and expensive war will tax, not only her own forces, but her credit in the world's markets to the very utmost. It is true that her first war loan of fifty million dollars was raised by her own people, and that her second one was vastly oversubscribed in London and New York. But the latter fact, at least, was due to the unusually enticing conditions, and to meet the initial war expenses her Parliament had to create an income tax, raise the land tax to a high figure, and increase her tariff rates. She will need to contract at least one or two additional war loans, and these will impose heavy burdens on her gallant but financially rather impotent population. In a word, Japan will issue from her great fight with the northern Bear, despite her thorough knowledge of *jiu jitsu*, greatly exhausted. During the last couple of years, Japan had become a very determined and successful rival of ours in the China trade, supplanting in many quarters our cotton goods with her rougher and cheaper ones. After the war, she will have her hands full, in any event, filling up the gaps made, and she will be in no position to dispute our commercial hegemony in China. We will have the start of her in any case, probably for a number of years, and that means much nowadays.

Finally, as to Korea, the case is very plain. That country will either fall once more under the political and commercial tutelage of Japan (that is, if Japan wins), in which case there will probably be concluded a close customs union with the Island Empire; or else (if Russia should prove victorious) the powers will make Korea a neutral country in that definite and full sense in which Switzerland and Belgium are in Europe, —a buffer state. In the latter contingency, our chances for trade expansion in Korea would even be better than in the other case. Our direct trade with Korea is now very small. For the most part, our goods have found their way there *via* Nagasaki or Kobé. If we have regular steamer lines hereafter, it would pay us to make Fu San a port of call, and supply the Koreans direct.

Thus, whichever way we turn, whether we believe in final Japanese defeat or victory, we see our commercial chances in the far East expanding.

THE NEW-NORSE MOVEMENT IN NORWAY.

BY MABEL LELAND.

THERE is a Norse revival in Norway. This land of the Vikings, fortified by its rock and sea bound coast, and by its men of iron, born to do and to dare, the terror of the seas, once spake a harsh tongue as startling to the stranger's ear as the shaggy Northman to his eye. To the efficacy of this tongue, "Old Norse," as a literary medium, the "Eddas" and the "Heimskringla" stand as ever-enduring monuments. These epics, antedating the "Chanson de Roland," the "Nibelungenlied," and the "Cid Ballades," are full of the poetic fervor which an untrammeled imagination ever imparts.

Before 800 A.D., Old Norse was spoken in all Scandinavia. After that period, it became gradually modified into the Swedish, Danish, and Norse tongues. During the fourteenth century, when Old Norse had become too ponderous and was endeavoring to cast its chrysalis, the Danish domination barred further progress. Danish was made the official tongue, Norse being relegated to the fireside. Men went to Denmark for higher education, resulting in a class of Danish-speaking government officials and professional men. The tradesmen followed, in their attempts to use a language which had become one of the insignia of the privileged classes, leaving to the peasant alone the speech which betrayed him. It was, however, cherished in the hearts and upon the lips of the peasants, who eked out for it a literary existence in the folk-songs and folk-tales of that period.

On May 17, 1814, Norway shook off the denationalizing influence of the Danish domination, a reawakening of national feeling and intellect took place, and the need of a native

tongue was soon felt—"*La langue est la nation.*" Among the pioneers in this revival of Norse was Henrik Wergeland, Young Norway's intellectual leader. He adopted a number of words and phrases from the dialects into his Danish writings, exciting the indignation of a people who were ashamed of everything Norse and believed only that which was foreign to be refined and cultured. To Ivar Aasen, however, belongs the honor of having, so to speak, discovered the Norwegian language. It became evident to him, after careful research, that the many and various dialects spoken had a common source, and were not a corrupted Danish, but followed certain common laws as to vocabularies, inflection, and pronunciation. After laboring several years in collecting data, he published his great unifying works, "Norsk Grammatik" and "Norsk Ordbog," which were not only of scientific value, but of national importance. He thus did for New Norse what Dante did for the written Italian language, at a time when grammarians did not abound.

Garborg defines New Norse as "an attempt at a common mode of writing for the various dialects, whose existence no one questions. They are, furthermore, all that we retain, through our vicissitudes, of our original patrimony. Their historic value as a bond between Young Norway and the older period cannot be overestimated. The folk-speech contains the essence of all that our people has thought and felt, lived and experienced, in its life."

Aasen's writings were followed by those of Vinje, Fjörtoft, Krohn, Jansen, Blix, up to Arne Garborg, who is not only the strongest champion of New Norse at the present time, but one of Norway's foremost *littérateurs*. His polemical writings compelled both the indifferent and the hostile to acquaint themselves with New Norse, and often transformed them into enthusiastic adherents.

The younger school of New-Norse writers deserve a fuller mention, but must be dismissed with but one name—Jens Tvedt—whose genuinely artistic as well as sympathetic portrayals of the peasant life of which he is a part go further than any arguments to justify the existence of a language which so readily lends itself to the delineation of the lofty as well as of the commonplace in the life of the "lower orders."

In 1868, the "Norske Samlag," corresponding to the Gaelic League, was organized. Its definite programme is to publish books in New Norse or in the dialects. Since 1894, it has published a magazine—*Syn og Segn*. Norway has, besides, several other periodicals issued in New Norse.

Numerous societies among the clergy, the student body, and the people testify to the popular interest in this linguistic reform. The New Testament has been translated into this tongue, as well as a large number of hymns identified with the Lutheran worship. New Norse may now be heard from many of the pulpits.

In educational lines, much has been accomplished. The Storthing founded, in 1885, a chair, and began to issue schoolbooks, in New Norse. It was soon made coördinate with Dano-Norwegian in the common schools. A recent victory makes tests written in the mother tongue equally acceptable with Danish in all normal schools.

Even in the official world, where conservatism rules rampant, New Norse has found its way into the legislative body in the form of documents, reports, and speeches. It has decidedly passed the experimental stage, and is now a language which philologists deem one of thorough unity and coherence, in direct line of descent from Old Norse, characterized by the strength and simplicity of the Norwegian people.

This neologic movement is the paramount intellectual issue at stake in Norway to-day. It is the noblest and purest agitation set on foot, and the longest-lived. It is rooted, not only in the traditions of the people, but in the needs of the "other half" to whom "early association, the vocabulary of childhood, organically connected with its ideas, is more suggestive." The peasant intellect can only be aroused through the medium of his mother tongue, and to develop *his* mind is to strengthen the nation. Instead of circumscribing the intellectual horizon of the peasant youth, as was feared, the interesting fact remains that the young people most ardent in supporting their mother tongue are those to keep best pace with the Dano-Norwegian literature. This reform has reacted most beneficially upon the dialects. Where a generation ago the country people endeavored to mince their words, imitating the higher classes, now their self-esteem has been aroused to a commendable pride in their own dialect and its complement, the New Norse. One feels with Bruun, when he writes: "To every Norseman, this should be a burning question,—that his mother tongue, compelled so long to cede its place, now treasures the hope of reinstatement. Our hearts should be kindled for the ultimate victory of a cause in line with the 'Honor thy father and thy mother' of our childhood." We can only account for the indifference, and even antagonism, which prevails in certain quarters toward this movement by the inherent contempt felt on the part of the privileged classes for the peasant and all that doth to him pertain; yet Leo Tolstoy and Millet have shown us what may be learned at his feet.

WHY NORWAY AND SWEDEN ARE AT ODDS.

A BITTER dispute over the boundary between Norway and Sweden has now complicated the relations between these Scandinavian countries. Open rupture between Norway and Sweden seems to be prevented only by the common fear of Russian aggression. The recent Scandinavian agreement declaring neutrality in the present far-Eastern war, and particularly requesting the perpetual guarantee of this neutrality by the rest of Europe, expresses the dominant feeling. The New-Norse movement, described in the preceding article, is but one phase—the literary one—of the Norwegian "separatist" idea, which at times seems even stronger than



KING OSCAR OF SWEDEN AND NORWAY.

fear of the Muscovite. Danger from the latter, however, seems so real to a Finnish writer, Axel Lille, that he devotes quite a number of pages in the *Nordisk Revy* (Stockholm) to an account of all the causes of dissatisfaction between Norway and Sweden. He rather reproaches Norway for her unrest. He says:

During the past century, at the beginning of which the two nations were united, they have enjoyed an uninterrupted peace, which should have rendered them the happiest people on earth. Inwardly free in spirit, and outwardly strengthened because of the union, the two nations have attained a degree of culture comparing favorably with that of greater nations; indeed, in certain respects, surpassing it. Norway's glory is attested by her great poets, and to the stranger she stands as the expression of the sublime beauty of the Northern nature and the richness of the Northern spirit.

NORWAY HAS HAD TO FIGHT FOR HER RIGHTS.

Despite the fact, he continues, that under the protection of a free constitution the Norwegians have been able to develop to a high degree the economic and spiritual powers of the nation, they are not satisfied. "Sweden has wronged Norway, and has caused all the evil," is the cry of the Norwegian radicals, who are becoming more numerous and more powerful every day, and who deny that they owe any thanks to Sweden. "We have had to fight for everything that has made for our equality in the union, such as the title of the king, the coinage of our money, the flag and the colors, and other points."

The Norwegians, says this Finnish writer, certainly had to fight for their flag, and when they had obtained the object of their desire, the so-called "clean" flag, free from the sign of union with Sweden, they renewed the fight to restore the old flag, which at one time had seemed to them the symbol of their own inferiority. Norwegians are not a unit as to how the ungratified requests of Norway should be met. The radicals, however, who now have the ascendency in the Storthing, are clamoring for separate Norwegian ambassadors and consuls. Unless they obtain this, they say, Norway will secede from the union and become a separate kingdom. There is a difference of opinion as to whether Norway has a legal, constitutional right to separate foreign representation. In order to clear up this point, Mr. Lille reviews the history of the union.

HOW NORWAY AND SWEDEN BECAME UNITED.

He recalls the fact that by the peace of Kiel, which ended the Dano-Swedish war of 1814, Norway, which had formerly been a province of Denmark, was ceded to Sweden. The Norwegians protested that Denmark had no right to transfer them without their consent. They declared themselves independent, and elected Christian Frederick as their king. In order to enforce the peace of Kiel, the Swedish general (the French marshal, Bernadotte, afterward King of Sweden) invaded Norway and defeated the

Norwegians. By the peace which followed, Norway entered into political union with Sweden. The principal terms of the agreement were "that Sweden and Norway should be forever united under one king, although retaining separate parliaments." And this clause was approved by the Norwegian Storthing. The advantages to each country are outlined as follows :

Although Norway did not resign her sovereignty in joining the union with Sweden, the latter has always had the advantage in that her foreign minister shall advise the King in foreign affairs. This was distinctly agreed upon at the convention. It is now objected that, in the development of both countries, foreign matters are handled only by the Swedish minister of foreign affairs, and that the King has been relegated to the background.

With the development of both countries, the disadvantage of having all foreign affairs under the management of a Swede began to be realized, but it was not until 1890 that the clause of the original constitution was changed so that it should read : "The office of minister of foreign affairs may be filled by either a Norwegian or a Swede." The Norwegian contention for having their own foreign ministers and consuls has become so clamorous that it has affected the whole people and is now endangering the peace of all Scandinavia.

A WARNING FROM FINLAND'S FATE.

The King appointed a committee of Swedes and Norwegians to take up the consular question apart from that of the ambassadors. Its recommendations were that there should be separate consuls, subject to the government of each country. But the Norwegians were inexorable. They demanded Norwegian consuls under the control of a separate Norwegian minister for foreign affairs. And so the matter stands. The Finnish writer concludes with the following —almost a warning :

A leading Norwegian politician recently made the following startling remark : "When have we, in Norway, ever let legal considerations hinder us from taking a step forward ?" Nothing shows better how young the constitutional freedom is in Norway than this neglect of strict legality, which is one of the strongest guarantees of freedom. Norway, at present, has no leader equal to the gravity of the situation. Smaller party affairs are taking the attention of the Norwegian people, and they act as if the outside world, particularly Russia, were quite blind to the existence of Norway and its ice-free ports. Yet the Norwegians are armed to the teeth against their neighbor, at whose side only can their own liberty be protected. They forget that loss of freedom will also mean loss of self-government. Finland, the warning, stands at the door of Norway. The great Norwegian, Björnson, some time ago uttered words that have echoed throughout the world. In Norway, they seem to have died quite away, while the suspicion against a kindred people, willing to hold out the hand of reconciliation, has steadily increased.

THE REAL MOTIVE FOR THE RUSSIFICATION OF FINLAND.

A significant confirmation of the warning given in the last paragraph of the preceding article is found in a paper by G. S. Davies, in the *Cornhill Magazine*, on the Arctic railway opened last year by the King of Sweden. The line owes its existence to the enormous deposit of iron ore of exceptional richness in the eastern portion of Swedish Lapland. Among the results of this new railway, Mr. Davies predicts the extinction of the reindeer and of the Lapps. But the political purport of the article is to point out the aim of the extension of the Russian frontier, a hundred years ago, across the north of Sweden till it marched with Norwegian Lapland. The purpose was, he says, "that Russia might bring her border as near as possible to the Atlantic Ocean, and wait upon events to give her her outlet across that narrow strip of Norway which alone bars her from a deep-water harbor at Narvik, on the Ofoten Fjord. The harbor of Narvik, in spite of its high latitude, has open water all the winter through." With England absorbed in a great war, and with Norway and Sweden at daggers drawn, Russia could gain her ends by siding with either Scandinavian kingdom. This ultimate aim of an ice-free harbor on the Atlantic is suggested by the writer as the reason of the recent development in Finland associated with the name of the unhappy Bobrikoff.

What had Russia to gain by the sudden extinction of the liberties granted nearly a hundred years before to this admirable people ? What had Russia to gain by suddenly turning more than two millions of subjects loyal to the Czar and among his most useful dependents into a nation of sullen though helpless foemen ? Those who attribute this action to the wanton and stupid barbarism of Russia, to the narrow-minded bigotry of the Orthodox party in Russia, or to the garden-roller policy of her military despotism, do small justice to the sagacity which has always marked her advance in Europe. The step was a coolly calculated, deliberate part of her policy. It is the pushing forward of her truly Russian frontier, the advance of her military system, by the substitution of an advance guard of genuinely Russian troops for the Finnish *corps d'armée*, who, however loyal in the main, would not be expected to fight with a good stomach against their Swedish neighbors when some day such services are needed. The action has brought Russia appreciably nearer to her goal.

The moral the writer draws is that the two Scandinavian nations would do well to readjust their differences.



SOME REPRESENTATIVE GERMAN PERIODICALS.

WHAT THE PEOPLE READ IN GERMANY.

THE Germans are essentially a reading people,—as much as, if not more so than, any other in the world. Their periodical literature, however, extensive and high-class as it is, is very different from that of England or the United States, and even from that of other Continental European countries. In the first place, it is a fact that the farther south and east one goes in Europe, the less influential does he find public opinion and the more servile the press. The French press has less freedom than that of England, and the German less than that of France. German periodicals differ from those of the United States and England in another respect,—they are more minutely differentiated. The Germans have monthlies, weeklies, and dailies, and these are usually devoted to some particular branch of literature, art, education, or industry ; and there is no publication combining fact and fiction, illustration, poetry, history, and humor, in all Germany, such as we find so many examples of in this country and in England. If the English and American press is commercial, and the French artistic, the German may be said to be technical. There is an immense number of periodicals devoted to technical industries and handicrafts. The literary style of German periodicals is not so polished as that of the French, nor are these periodicals so attractive mechanically, as a general thing, but they are more honest and reliable than the French ; and, instead of being concentrated in the capital or in any other one large city, they are published at widely scattered points.

The German serious reviews are very ably conducted, and maintain a high literary tone. Among them, the chief is, perhaps, the *Deutsche Rundschau* (German Review), published in Berlin. This is an old magazine of very high standing, and many of the professors of the universities contribute to it. It contains political, literary, and scientific studies, historical memoirs, and reviews of general progress. Its editor is the veteran Julius Rodenberg. Another old and very dignified periodical is the *Preussische Jahrbücher* (Prussian Register), edited, in Berlin, by Hans Delbrück. The *Jahrbücher* publishes heavy, thoughtful articles on politics and economics. It is a Nationalistic periodical, with agrarian tendencies. The *Deutsche Revue* (Ger-

man Review), of Stuttgart, is a Conservative monthly, much younger than those just mentioned, edited by Richard Fleischer. It contains articles more popular in tone and of a wider general interest. The *Deutsche Monatsschrift* (German Month) is another serious but well-read review of the capital. A new monthly magazine, only a few months old, the *Süddeutsche Monatshefte* (South German Monthly Magazine), published both in Berlin and Munich, under the editorship of Wilhelm Wiegand, makes several new departures. This review declares its intention of dealing independently and fearlessly with the modern problems in science, literature, and art. One of the most pleasing innovations is the fact that more than half of the contents appears in the Roman letter. Among the popular illustrated monthly periodicals are *Velhagen und Klasing's Monatshefte* (Velhagen and Klasing's Monthly Magazine), a richly illustrated monthly containing stories, descriptions, poems, etc.; *Grenzboten*, of Leipsic, a serious weekly publication of Pan-German and anti-Anglo-Saxon views, which twenty or thirty years ago was an important organ of the Liberal party and is now frequently in the confidence of the higher officials of the foreign office; *Westermann's Monatshefte* (Westermann's Monthly Magazine), of Berlin, of very high-class standing, illustrated, and conducted much along the same lines as *Harper's* or *Scribner's; Vom Fels zum Meer* (From Mountain to Sea), of Stuttgart, copiously illustrated, resembling *Velhagen und Klasing's; Nord und Süd* (North and South), published in Breslau, is a literary monthly of influence; *Modenwelt* (World of Fashion), published in Berlin, a fashion periodical for women, and *Aus Fremden Zungen* (From Foreign Tongues), of Stuttgart, containing translations from modern foreign languages.

The German tendency to deep thought is indicated in the large number of religious and theological publications, which are equal in number to those of the United States. Among these are the *Allgemeine Kirchenzeitung* (General Church Herald), of Leipsic, and the *Beweis des Glaubens* (Evidence of the Faithful), of Greifswald, organs of the Lutheran Church; the *Christliche Welt* (Christian World), of Leipsic; *Alte und Neue Welt* (Old and New World), Catholic organs, and the *Reichsbote* (Imperial Messenger), of Berlin, official organ of German Protestantism. The *Germania* (Germany), of Berlin, is a national Catholic weekly, organ of the Clerical party in the Reichstag. Among miscellaneous monthlies of influence are *Kunstgewerbeblatt* (Art-Workers' Journal), of Berlin, devoted to the decorative art of the household; *Ausland* (Abroad), of Stuttgart (geographical); *Socialistische Monatshefte* (Socialist Monthly), of Berlin, organ of the Socialist party; *Petermann's Geographische Mittheilung* (Petermann's Geographical Intelligence), of Berlin, organ of the scientific geographical world; *Zeitschrift für Bildende Kunst* (Herald of Art), of Leipsic, a review of the arts, copiously illustrated; *Moderne Kunst* (Modern Art), of Berlin, publishing good reproductions of the works of modern artists; *Kosmos* (World), of Stuttgart, and *Natur* (Nature), of Halle, both devoted to natural science, popularly set forth.

The Germans have a number of excellent weeklies of wide circulation, considerable influence, and much artistic merit. Foremost among these are *Illustrirte Zeitung* (Illustrated News), of Leipsic, and *Über Land und Meer* (Over Land and Sea), of Stuttgart, which are in the front rank of such publications the world over. The *Illustrirte Zeitung* is finely illustrated, and is really a weekly high-class review of happenings all over the world. Following closely after these two is the *Woche* (Week), also of Berlin, an illustrated and descriptive review of the week, progressive, and containing good stories and general literary material. *Daheim* (At Home), of Leipsic, is a popular illustrated weekly, published by Velhagen and Klasing, and the *Gartenlaube* (Bower), also of Leipsic, is also an illustrated weekly, more liberal than *Daheim*. *Gegenwart* (Present), of Leipsic, publishes political, philosophical, literary, and travel descriptions, as does also *Buch für Alle* (Journal for Everybody), of Stuttgart. The *Illustrirte Welt* (Illustrated World), of Stuttgart, is more popular, publishes sketches, short stories, poems, etc., and is copiously illustrated. There are two fashion weeklies in Berlin, the *Bazar* and the *Illustrirte Frauenzeitung* (Illustrated News for Women). The *Nation*, of Berlin, is Liberal in politics, and is generally believed to speak with official authority.

There is quite a number of comic papers with excellent incisive wit and unsurpassed illustrations. The German comic artist is famed all over the world, and, were it not for the horror of *majestätsbeleidigung* (the French call it *lèse majesté*), which so often sends him to prison, he would probably be the most prosperous periodical contributor in the empire. The comic weeklies, *Kladderadatsch* (Boom! Bang!—an exclamation), *Lustige Blätter* (Comic Leaves), *Simplicissimus* (Simpleton), *Ulk* (Fun), and *Humoristische Deutschland* (Comic Germany), are humorous, with keen political satire and excellent cartoons. Comic non-satirical papers of world-wide fame are the *Fliegende Blätter* (Flying Leaves), of Munich, one of the foremost comic papers of the world; *Meggendorfer Blätter* (Meggendorf's Leaves), and *Humoristische Blätter* (Hu-

morous Leaves), also of Munich ; *Kobold* (Dwarf), of Hamburg, and *Dorfbarbier* (City Barber), of Berlin. *Wahre Jacob* (Truthful Jacob), of Stuttgart, also has cartoons, and is generally of a Socialistic tendency. *Jugend* is an artistic serio-comic weekly of Munich, which leans toward the impressionist school. Among other miscellaneous weeklies of influence are the *Militär Wochen-*



KOREA FROM THE KOREAN POINT OF VIEW.

The Japanese from the one side and the Russians from the other lay bare the land.

From *Beiblatt zum Kladderadatsch.*

blatt (Military Weekly), of Berlin, tri-weekly in spite of its name, the organ of the general staff of the army ; the *Musikalische Wochenblatt* (Musical Weekly), of Leipsic ; *Hausfreund* (House Friend), of Breslau, and the weekly edition of the *Allgemeine Zeitung* (General News), of Munich.

Fully half the German periodicals are daily newspapers. The German newspaper is dignified, serious, and reliable. Typographically, it is inferior to the English and French, and not to be mentioned in comparison with the American. Nearly all German dailies use the German characters, although a few, such as the "ancient and honorable" *Kölnische Zeitung* (Cologne News), have begun to publish several pages in the Roman letter (particularly all commercial and business news). A number, though not by any means all, of the leading dailies are published in Berlin. Among the oldest and best-established are the *Vossische Zeitung* (Voss News), National Liberal, which was founded in 1722 ; the *National Zeitung* (National News), National and Liberal in politics ; the *Volks-Zeitung* (People's News), Social-Democratic, and the *Neue Preussische Zeitung* (New Prussian News), the organ of the Conservatives, and semi-officially inspired. This last is frequently called the *Kreuz Zeitung*, because of a small cross printed on the heading. The *Börsen Zeitung* (Exchange News) and the *Börsen Courier* (Exchange Courier), founded about the middle of the past century, are devoted chiefly to finance and commerce, but with Liberal leanings in politics. The official news of the empire is communicated through the *Reichsanzeiger* (Imperial Gazette). *Vorwärts* is the influential and widely read daily of the Socialists, and is edited by the famous Herr Liebknecht. Other dailies of the capital are *Norddeutsche Allgemeine Zeitung* (North German General News), Conservative ; *Germania* (Germany), expressing the Center, or Catholic, opposition in the Reichstag ; the *Fremdenblatt* (Foreign Journal), which makes a specialty of foreign news ; the *Neueste Nachrichten* (Latest News), the *Tageblatt* (Daily Newspaper), the *Tägliche Zeitung* (Daily News), the *Tägliche Rundschau* (Daily Review), and the *Süddeutsche Reichscorrespondenz* (South German Imperial Correspondence), the personal organ of the imperial chancellor, Count von Bülow. The most influential and widely read daily journals of the capital, however, are the *Morgen Zeitung* (Morning News), which claims a circulation of 150,000, and the *Lokalanzeiger* (Local Gazette), with a circulation of more than 200,000. The latter is the most enterprising Berlin paper. Its publisher, Herr August Scherl, is the Napoleon of the German press, and has done much to revolutionize its ways and methods. His establishment is one of the finest newspaper plants in Europe, and the *Lokalanzeiger*, strictly as a newspaper, is one of the foremost of the world.

Outside the capital, the best-known dailies are the *Hamburger Nachrichten* (Hamburg News), formerly Bismarck's organ, one of the old Conservative and influential sheets, the *Correspondent* and the *Allgemeine Anzeiger* (General Gazette), of Hamburg ; the staid and dignified *Frankfurter Zeitung* (Frankfort News) ; the Munich *Allgemeine Zeitung* (General News), of a high literary character, with a widely read scientific supplement ; the *Reinische-Westfälische Zeitung* (Rhine-Westphalian News), of Cologne, generally regarded as speaking with diplomatic authority ; the *Weser Zeitung* (Weser News), of Bremen ; *Allgemeine Zeitung* (General News), of Leipsic, and the *Breslauer Allgemeine Anzeiger* (Breslau General Gazette).

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

COUNT TOLSTOY'S SERMON ON THE WAR.

A STINGING arraignment of the Russian autocracy and the Czar himself, and a fierce denunciation of all war, in the form of a series of letters, under the heading "Bethink Yourselves," written from Yasnaia Polyana during the month of May by Count Leo Tolstoy, have been translated and published in the London *Times*. Count Tolstoy begins by stating his text, "This is your hour and the power of darkness" (Luke xxii., 53), and then lays down his theme: "Again war. Again sufferings, necessary to nobody, utterly uncalled for; again fraud; again the universal stupefaction and brutalization of men."

One can understand, says Tolstoy, how poor, ignorant Russian and Japanese peasants, "brought by the violence and deceit of centuries to recognize the greatest crime in the world,—the murder of one's brethren,—as a virtuous act, can commit these dreadful deeds without regarding themselves as being guilty in so doing." But how can so-called enlightened men preach war, support it, participate in it, and, worst of all, without suffering the dangers of war themselves, incite others to it, sending their unfortunate, defrauded brothers to fight?

Not to mention the Hague Conference, which called forth universal praise, or all the books, pamphlets, newspaper articles, and speeches demonstrating the possibility of the solution of international misunderstandings by international arbitration, no enlightened men can help knowing that the universal competition in the armaments of states must inevitably lead them to endless wars, or to general bankruptcy, or else to both the one and the other. They cannot but know that besides the senseless, purposeless expenditure of milliards of rubles,—*i.e.*, of human labor,—on the preparations for war, during the wars themselves millions of the most energetic and vigorous men perish in that period of their life which is best for productive labor.

THE CZAR ARRAIGNED.

Something is taking place, he continues, "incomprehensible and impossible in its cruelty, falsehood, and stupidity." Notwithstanding the fact that scientists, philosophers, and religious teachers on both sides have declared war sinful and foolish, all Russians join in their efforts to destroy all Japanese, and all Japanese unite to kill all Russians. Then follows a fierce arraignment of the Czar and the autocracy.



TOLSTOY, IN THE BEAR'S DEN, REPROVES THE CZAR.

From *Amsterdammer* (Amsterdam).

This unfortunate, entangled young man, recognized as the leader of one hundred and thirty millions of people, continually deceived and compelled to contradict himself, confidently thanks and blesses the troops whom he calls his own for murder in defense of lands which with yet less right he also calls his own. All present to each other hideous ikons in which not only no one among the educated believe, but which unlearned peasants are beginning to abandon—all bow down to the ground before these ikons, kiss them, and pronounce pompous and deceitful speeches in which no one really believes.

DECEIVED, DELUDED, MISERABLE PEOPLE.

Not only the military are prepared to murder.

Crowds of so-called enlightened people, such as professors, social reformers, students, nobles, merchants, without being forced thereto by anything or any one, express the most bitter and contemptuous feelings toward

the Japanese, the English, or the Americans, toward whom but yesterday they were either well disposed or indifferent; while, without the least compulsion, they express the most abject, servile feelings toward the Czar (to whom, to say the least, they were completely indifferent), assuring him of their unlimited love and readiness to sacrifice their lives in his interests. Wealthy people contribute insignificant portions of their immorally acquired riches for this cause of murder or the organization of help in connection with the work of murder; while the poor, from whom the government annually collects two milliards, deem it necessary to do likewise, giving their mites also. The government incites and encourages crowds of idlers, who walk about the streets with the Czar's portrait, singing, shouting "Hurrah!" and who, under pretext of patriotism, are licensed in all kinds of excess. All over Russia, from the palace to the remotest village, the pastors of churches, calling themselves Christians, appeal to that God who has enjoined love to one's enemies—to the God of Love himself—to help the work of the devil to further the slaughter of men. Stupefied by prayers, sermons, exhortations, by processions, pictures, and newspapers, the cannon's flash, hundreds of thousands of men, uniformly dressed, carrying divers deadly weapons, leaving their parents, wives, children, with hearts of agony, but with artificial sprightliness, go where they, risking their own lives, will commit the most dreadful act of killing men whom they do not know and who have done them no harm. . . . All this is not only regarded as the manifestation of elevated feeling, but those who refrain from such manifestations, if they endeavor to disabuse men, are deemed traitors and betrayers, and are in danger of being abused.

DOES RUSSIA REALIZE WHAT SHE IS DOING?

How can a modern believing Christian, "or even a skeptic, involuntarily permeated by the Christian ideals of human brotherhood and love which have inspired the works of the philosophers, moralists, and artists of our time—how can such take a gun, or stand by a cannon, and aim at a crowd of his fellow-men, desiring to kill as many of them as possible?"

Tolstoy does not believe that such a person can, without realizing the crime he is committing, and so, he says:

All the unnatural, feverish, hot-headed, insane excitement which has now seized the idle upper ranks of Russian society is merely the symptom of their recognition of the criminality of the work which is being done. All these insolent, mendacious speeches about devotion to and worship of the monarch, about readiness to sacrifice life (or one should say other people's lives, and not one's own); all these promises to defend with one's breast land which does not belong to one; all these senseless benedictions of each other with various banners and monstrous ikons; all these Te Deums; all these preparations of blankets and bandages; all these detachments of nurses; all these contributions to the fleet and to the Red Cross presented to the government, whose direct duty is (while it has the possibility of collecting from the people as much money as it requires), having declared war, to organize the necessary fleet and necessary means for attending the wounded; all these Slavonic, pompous, senseless, and blasphemous prayers, the utterance of which in various towns is communicated in the papers as important news; all these processions, calls for the national hymn, cheers; all this dreadful, desperate, newspaper mendacity, which, being universal, does not fear exposure; all this stupefaction and brutalization which has now taken hold of Russian society, and which is being transmitted by degrees also to the masses,—all this is only a symptom of the guilty consciousness of that dreadful act which is being accomplished.

PLIGHT OF THE MODERN CHRISTIAN.

If you ask a common soldier, an officer, a diplomat, a journalist, why he carries on war, or incites it, he will answer, says Tolstoy, with quibbles about fatherland and emperor and patriotism. The war, he will tell you, is necessary for the welfare and glory of Russia. Now, this is all wrong. Christians of to-day, says Tolstoy, are like a man who, having missed the right turning, the farther he goes the more he becomes convinced that he is going the wrong way. "Yet, the greater his doubts, the quicker and more desperately does he hurry on, consoling himself with the thought that he will arrive somewhere."

In such a position stands the Christian humanity of our time. It is perfectly evident that, if we continue to live as we are now living, guided in our private lives, as well as in the life of separate states, by the sole desire of welfare for ourselves and for our state, and will, as we do now, think to insure this welfare by violence, then, inevitably increasing the means of violence of one against the other, and of state against state, we will, first, keep ruling ourselves more and more, transferring the major portion of our productiveness to armaments, and, second, by killing in mutual wars the best physically developed men, we must become more and more degenerate and morally depraved.

HOW CAN MATTERS BE MENDED?

Not by a universal empire, or even a United States of Europe, says Tolstoy. Nor can compulsory international peace tribunals be organized. Disarmament will not come, because no one desires it or will begin it. The adoption of more dreadful means of destruction will not help, because all nations will use the new inventions. "We are dashing on toward the precipice, cannot stop, and we are approaching the edge."

WHAT IS TO BE DONE?

The remedy is in the heeding of the scriptural injunction, "Bethink yourself!" Every man must ask himself, What does God command me to do?

So must say to himself the soldier, who is taught that he must kill men; and the statesman, who deemed it his duty to prepare for war; and the journalist, who incited to war, and every man who puts to himself the

question, Who is he, what is his destination in life? And the moment the head of the state will cease to direct war, the soldier to fight, the statesman to prepare means for war, the journalist to incite thereto—then, without any new institutions, adaptations, balance of power, tribunals, there will of itself be destroyed that hopeless position in which men have placed themselves, not only in relation to war, but also to all other calamities which they themselves inflict upon themselves.

REAL RELIGION NEEDED.

Men need real religion, says Tolstoy, as a guide for their lives.

The evil from which men of our time are suffering is produced by the fact that the majority live without that which alone affords a rational guidance for human activity—without religion; not that religion which consists in belief in dogmas, in the fulfillment of rites which afford a pleasant diversion, consolation, stimulant; but that religion which establishes the relation of man to the All, to God, and, therefore, gives a general higher direction to all human activity, and without which people stand on the plane of animals, and even lower than they. This evil which is leading men to inevitable destruction has manifested itself with special power in our time, because, having lost all rational guidance in life, and having directed all efforts to discoveries and improvements principally in the sphere of technical knowledge, men of our time have developed in themselves enormous power over the forces of nature; but, not having any guidance for the rational adaptation of this power, they naturally have used it for the satisfaction of their lowest and most animal propensities.

In order that true religion, "already latent in men of our time, shall become evident and obligatory," Tolstoy declares it is necessary that two things be brought about.

On the one hand, men of science should understand that the principle of the brotherhood of all men and the rule of not doing unto others what one does not wish for one's self is not one casual idea out of a multitude of human theories which can be subordinated to any other considerations, but is an incontestable principle, standing higher than the rest, and flowing from the changeless relation of man to that which is eternal to God, and is religion, all religion, and, therefore, always obligatory. On the other hand, it is necessary that those who consciously or unconsciously preach crude superstitions under the guise of Christianity should understand that all these dogmas, sacraments, and rites which they support and preach are not only, as they think, harmless, but are in the highest degree pernicious, concealing from men that central religious truth which is expressed in the fulfillment of God's will, in the service of men.

MUST LOVE ALL MEN.

No matter what happens, no man must incite to or participate in war, says Tolstoy. We must love all men.

To love one's enemies—the Japanese, the Chinese, those yellow peoples toward whom benighted men are now endeavoring to excite our hatred—to love them means not to kill them for the purpose of having the right of poisoning them with opium, as did the English; not to kill them in order to seize their land, as was done by the French, the Russians, and the Germans; not to bury them alive in punishment for injuring roads, not to tie them together by their hair, not to drown them in the river Amur, as did the Russians. To love the yellow people, whom we call our foes, means, not to teach them, under the name of Christianity, absurd superstitions about the fall of man, redemption, resurrection, etc., not to teach them the art of deceiving and killing others, but to teach them justice, unselfishness, compassion, love—and that not by words, but by the example of our own good life.

Tolstoy gives the substance of a number of letters he has received from peasants who have gone to war, expressing their horror at it, and telling how much misery it had already caused their families. Here is part of one:

DEAR LYOF NIKOLAEVITCH: Well, to-day I have received the official announcement of my call to the service; to-morrow I must present myself at the headquarters. That is all. And after that,—to the far East to meet the Japanese bullets. . . . I was not able to resist the summons, but I say beforehand that through me not one Japanese family shall be orphaned. My God! how dreadful is all this—how distressing and painful to abandon all by which one lives and in which one is concerned!

The papers set forth that, comments Tolstoy, during the receptions of the Czar, who is traveling about Russia "for the purpose of hypnotizing the men who are being sent to murder, indescribable enthusiasm is manifested among the people."

As a matter of fact, something quite different is being manifested. From all sides one hears reports that in one place three Reservists have hanged themselves; in another spot, two more; in yet another, about a woman whose husband had been taken away bringing her children to the conscription committee-room and leaving them there; while another hanged herself in the yard of the military commander. All are dissatisfied, gloomy, exasperated.

LET THE RULERS GO TO WAR.

It is time, says Tolstoy, that all this terrible war should cease, and that the deceived people should recover themselves, saying:

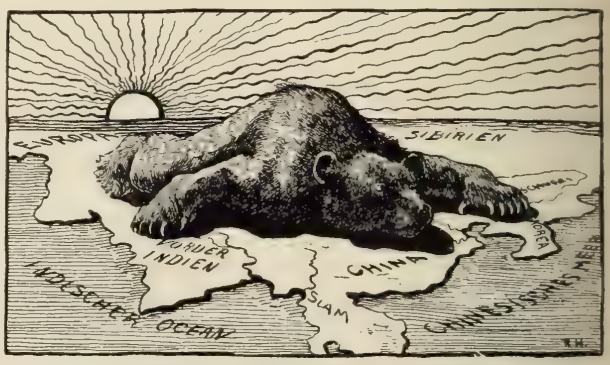
"Well, go you yourselves, you heartless Czars, Mikados, ministers, bishops, priests, generals, editors, speculators, or however you may be called—go you yourselves under these shells and bullets, but we do not wish to go and we will not go. Leave us in peace; to plow, and sow, and build, and also feed you, you sluggards." It would be so natural to say this now, when among us in Russia resounds the weeping and wailing of hundreds of thousands of mothers, wives, and children, from whom are being snatched away their breadearners.

A RUSSIAN CONDEMNATION OF RUSSIAN BOASTFULNESS.

IN reviewing the war operations in Manchuria, the *Vyestnik Evropy* (St. Petersburg) finds it necessary to register a protest against the boastfulness and exaggeration of a portion of the Russian press. It says:

Every one can understand that victory should not be expected in a struggle with an enemy possessing from three to five times the number of men. No one doubts, also, that Russian soldiers know how to fight, and how to die like heroes. . . . But when a conservative Russian journal attempts to persuade its readers that the battle of Ku-liencheng (the Yalu) was really a victory for our arms, in that it demonstrated brilliantly the great qualities of the Russian soldier, such an attempt is really equivalent to the abuse of the press function. Our newspaper patriots describe the events of the present war in such a manner as to make it appear that its real significance lies in the proof which it furnishes of the abilities of the Russian soldier to defend his country and to die for it; and, since such proof is most eloquent and persuasive of the absolute superiority of the enemy, battles of sacrifice, ending in defeat and destruction, are deemed expedient. The deceitful discussions of our pseudo-patriotic press, thrown into raptures by the heroic failures at the seat of war, correspond to the general character of this peculiar journalism. Unfortunately, there are, at times, found in journals of another type similar sugared, conceited phrases concerning events and facts that deserve earnest and unbiased analysis. . . . The campaign is important only in so far as it brings us nearer to final success.

If events be viewed from this standpoint, the



A BOASTER WHO WILL SOON HAVE ENOUGH.
From *Wahre Jacob* (Stuttgart).

Vyestnik continues, Russians could reconcile themselves to a "series of preliminary retreats, carried on in accordance with a preconceived plan, without serious loss of men or the surrender of weapons to the enemy."



GENERAL KUROPATKIN MEETING THE CHINESE GENERAL MA AT MUKDEN.
(It was during this interview that General Kuropatkin is reported as saying that he would not let one Japanese soldier return alive to Japan.)

It is difficult for the layman to understand the purpose of the Ku-lien-cheng battle, occurring after the crossing of the Yalu by the Japanese army, and placing our soldiers under the necessity of engaging an enemy which outnumbered them five to one, without the least possibility of success, with enormous sacrifice of human life, and with a very considerable loss of guns. To be sure, the military experts may claim that this battle was part of a general plan of campaign, and in this case we must believe the experts; yet laymen are at a loss to understand why, in this important engagement, prepared for gradually by the movements and skirmishing of the days preceding, there took part only a portion of the Russian army posted along the Yalu. If for some reason our troops could have been concentrated, the retreat could have been accomplished; but to offer battle merely to show our fearlessness,—for that there was no necessity. . . . Single failures and disappointments are unavoidable in war; and our public is so sober in its judgment that it is altogether unnecessary to disguise such failures by empty bombastic phraseology.

Sassulitch Disobeyed Before.

The *Osvobozhdeniye* (St. Petersburg), in commenting upon the Russian defeat on the Yalu, severely criticises General Sassulitch for offering battle. It reminds the Russian people that in the war with Turkey also (in 1878) this general disobeyed his superiors and offered battle when he had been told to retreat. Fortune favored him, however. He gained a victory; and not only was he exempted from reproof, but he was promoted and rewarded by the government. "Now General Sassulitch has again sought the favor of fortune on the Yalu, but she has withdrawn her sympathy from us. She has turned away, also, from the brave Sassulitch. He was defeated; and it is reported that he will be court-martialed, and that General Count Keller will succeed him."

THE STATE BANK OF RUSSIA TO-DAY.

A LENGTHY review of Professor Migulin's new book on the Russian banking policy appears in the *Narodnoye Khozaistvo* (St. Petersburg), especial attention being paid to the chapter on the State Bank.

RUSSIAN BANKING HISTORY.

When the Russian Government, in 1859, abolished the governmental banks, which, however, had never transacted any banking business, the only one left was the so-called Commercial Bank, which, by the ukase of May 31, 1860, was reorganized into the Russian State Bank, for the "revival of commercial transactions," and for the strengthening of the monetary credit system. Side by side with this bank, the whole system of commercial banks was organized, among them being city banks, mutual banks, savings-banks, and also a number of private banking houses and offices. To these were added the noblemen's banks and the peasants' banks. To summarize the reviewer's description:

The system of commercial credit in Russia was far from satisfactory. The State Bank occupied itself, at first, with the liquidation of the old banking institutions, with balancing the redeemable accounts, supported the Noblemen's Bank, for which the greatest amount of its resources were used up, while the rest went to maintain the rate of exchange on the drawing of notes, etc. The funds of the bank were insignificant, its capital being at first 15,000,000 rubles [a ruble is approximately 51 cents], and later 25,000,000 rubles; it had no right to issue bills for commercial purposes, but it did issue bills for the needs of the state treasury, as, for instance, during the Russo-Turkish War, or for the monetary circulation, as in 1870, after the corresponding gold reserve had been laid aside. On account of the small rate of interest, the deposits were very small. Only under the management of Vyshnegradski was the State Bank permitted to issue bills for its commercial transactions, under security of the gold reserve. The bank had no independence, and the routine paralyzed its activity. In its branches, a note could not be discounted without the signature of the main office at St. Petersburg, where the committee had to decide upon opening credit with every person in question. It is therefore quite natural that the transactions of the bank did not keep pace with the growth of business throughout the empire. Most of the private banks depended on the State Bank, where they rediscounted their notes, taking advantage of the system of credit. Large banks in the European sense were not established.

RUSSIA'S NEED OF AMPLE CREDIT.

No other country in the world, comments the reviewer, was so much in need of the widest possible organization of credit as Russia, which had just begun to develop and was greatly indebted to foreign countries, and which needed capital both for the development of its exports and for that of its own industries in the interior of the country. He continues:

Such development is possible only with the help of regulated credit, which is systematized by the government and used for the benefit of the country. When Witte became minister of finance, his first aim was to increase the economic strength of the country. He immediately introduced a new constitution for the State Bank, extending the power of the directors and of the branches in discounting notes and in other commercial operations. The whole management of the bank was also reorganized in 1893, and the State Bank began to support the commercial and industrial establishments

of the country with a wide credit system. The capital of the bank was increased to 55,000,000 rubles, but the State Bank was still dependent on the minister of finance, who guided its whole policy, while the management of the bank was given to a superintendent, who was aided by a board of directors, appointed by the government. Besides the discount of notes, the bank began also to advance money on securities, issued drafts, bought and sold securities on commission, and competed with the private banks in its operations. But, notwithstanding this, the State Bank did not receive the firm basis of a fixed institution, regulating the money-circulation in the country, like the banks of western Europe; therefore, the reorganized State Bank did not accomplish what was expected of it.

BANKERS NEEDED IN RUSSIA.

There are not many competent persons in the banking business in Russia, the *Khozaistvo* declares, and even these were not consulted by Witte in the reorganization of the bank. Besides this, the business transactions of the reorganized State Bank were not made according to the new constitution. Its regulations were systematically violated, and this brought the bank into a shaky condition. At the beginning, the transactions developed rapidly, the government treasury being its main depositor. The discount of notes with two signatures, for instance, increased from 158,000,000 in 1892 to 552,000,000 in 1896, while in 1897 it dropped down to 484,000,000.

The whole system of reforms laid down in the new constitution of the State Bank was not carried out. Especially the smaller institutions of credit which the bank helped to establish were not greatly developed. Of the one hundred and fifty-seven institutions of credit established in 1902, one hundred and forty-four were founded by the State Bank, which supplied them with the necessary capital. But all this was done without system, and the assistance given by the bank was so insignificant that it did not result in any great benefit. Instead of developing the business of the agencies and their intercessors, the State Bank limited itself to turning over some of its routine transactions to the local sub-treasuries. The result was that in 1897 the minister of finance combined the sub-treasuries with the treasury, and the sub-treasuries entered into banking operations. Owing to these reforms, the number of agencies of the State Bank increased, by January 1, 1903, to seven hundred and twenty-seven. These agencies did a very important banking business, especially in the line of drafts, which amounted in the first year to 373,000,000 rubles. The large sums which formerly lay idle in the treasury were now reserved for local commercial and industrial transactions, and the State Bank had at its disposal new means for effective use. Together with these reforms, attempts were made to reform the money-circulation and to regulate the debts of the treasury on bills. The issue of bills by the State Bank for its commercial transactions was guaranteed by the whole wealth of the government and by a special exchange fund, and the circulation of the bills by the bank and their cancellation had to be verified by the state comptroller, with the aid of representatives of the nobility and of the merchants, the St. Petersburg municipal administration, and the Stock Exchange committee.

MINISTER WITTE'S SERIOUS OMISSION.

While Witte was much pleased with the reforms in the banking system of Russia, he forgot that bank balances may be prepared without showing that the state comptroller has inspected the bank accounts, except in a formal way in giving judgment as to whether the bank portfolio is to be relied upon; that the bank accounts were so put together that they could hardly be verified, and that the public in general never trusts financial accounts which it is not able to verify, when it is aware of the fact that a serious control does not exist at all.

In this respect, with all the completeness of the system of joint-stock companies, if the shareholders could take an active part in the transactions of the governmental clearing-house the public would have more confidence in the execution of the banking regulations, and in the adjusting of its emission operations, while it has not the same confidence if the government officials are at the head of its control. The minister of finance had a presentiment of the fact that the State Bank would soon have to enter upon transactions which are contrary to its constitution, and which have nothing in common with the real aims of a state bank, and therefore he always disapproved of efforts to make the State Bank independent.

REFORMS ACTUALLY ACCOMPLISHED.

The monetary reforms went on in the meanwhile. Gold loans were made in 1896 and 1897, and the gold standard of the ruble was thus secured. The gold reserve reached over a milliard of rubles. The writer comes to the conclusion that all the reforms of the State Bank were only semi-reforms; that the policy of the bank should consist in concentrating and not in wasting the gold reserve, as has been done in taking out of circulation the small gold coins of five and ten rubles and putting in their place bank bills rather than bills of the treasury; and that the support of industrial institutions and of commercial enterprises should be limited. He further finds that with the entrance of Witte into the ministry of finance, and with the appointment of his successor, Pleske, the technical organization of the bank has much improved. Fine bank buildings have been erected, and the condition of the employees has been improved and their number increased. While formerly the bank officials were considered as governmental bureaucrats, the principle has now been established to a certain extent that the bank employees exist for the public, and not that the public exists for the bank.

EFFICIENCY OF THE JAPANESE RED CROSS SERVICE.

EUROPEAN journals contain a number of tributes to the efficiency and humanity with which the Japanese hospital corps looks after the sick and wounded, Russian as well as Japanese. The *Monde Illustre* (Paris) contains an illustrated study of the Japanese hospital and Red Cross service, which, it says, is so excellently managed as to surprise Europeans.

The wounded are relieved on the field of battle. They are transported, their wounds dressed, and they are cared for with that solicitude which one finds only in the best-organized sanitary bodies throughout the world. The wounded really receive perfect care. It may well be said that the Japanese Empire has given to the civilized world guarantees that it knows how to act with humanity. . . . The appearance of the wounded of both sides is not so terrible as might be feared. The Japanese arms seem to cause less terrible wounds than might be expected. But there have been some bad injuries with the bayonet.

Illustration asserts that, while the battles are waged with the utmost fury, and while the charges of brutality may be true of both sides,



A JAPANESE MEDICAL CORPS ATTENDANT CARRYING A WOUNDED RUSSIAN.



JAPANESE RED CROSS AT WORK.
(From a Japanese illustration.)

yet, "after a battle and the subsidence of the fever, all evil passions seem to leave, and against the victims there remains no enmity whatsoever." A Japanese hospital attendant, after having quickly dressed the wounds of a disabled Russian, seeing him unable to walk, has been known, in many cases, to lift him kindly to his own back and carry him to the nearest ambulance, where he would receive the best and kindest treatment. We are glad, says this journal, to be able to say that a Russian hospital attendant has done the same by a wounded Japanese. Count Matsukata is president of the Japanese Red Cross Society.

The Japanese people are showing extraordinary interest in this humane side of war. Enormous sums are being freely subscribed to the various ambulance funds, and "the Empress of the Spring" is busying herself with the preparations which are still being actively carried forward in connection with the base hospitals. Her Japanese Majesty, Harru Ko, long before there was any thought of war, used to visit regularly the Women and Children's Hospital in Tokio, and from time to time the other Houses of Healing. Japanese doctors are noted for their skill in surgery, and many of those who are now at the front studied in the great American medical schools, as well as in Paris and Berlin.

THE ENGLISH IN TIBET: A RUSSIAN VIEW.

RUSSIA has been caught napping in the Tibet question, is the frank confession of the St. Petersburg editor-statesman, Prince Esper Ukhtomsky.

We Russians are late, he declares, in an article in the *North American Review*.

The English are ready to stretch forth the hand of power to the realm of the Dalai Lama. At the present moment, there can be no doubt that the Calcutta authorities will soon have entered into close relations with the majority of Trans-Himalayan rulers, will open for themselves a free trade route to Lassa, and beyond to interior China, and will forthwith change the entire character of Central Asian politics.

For years, continues Prince Ukhtomsky, English missionaries, merchants, and colonial officials have been slowly but steadily pushing British sovereignty northward from Calcutta into Central Asia. As early as 1876, the English planted their Resident in Khatmandu, the capital of Nepál. Darjeeling and Sikkim were absorbed next, and soon a railroad was built connecting the former city with Calcutta. The borderland between India and Tibet gradually became known. A good road was built through the mountain passes. "Every day the walls of conservatism and the artificial barrier of exclusion were undermined and became ready to fall." The Tibetans wanted to be rid of the Chinese, but distrusted the English. Some of the lamas began to visit Calcutta, only a day's journey from Darjeeling, the fare by rail being only seven rupees (about two dollars). The population is preëminently a commercial one, and is anxious to extend its relations.

The Chinese are no longer able to sell their products in Tibet, because the natives themselves go west for them, finding this much more profitable. Every autumn, more than a thousand Tibetans visit Calcutta for this purpose and stay there for weeks at a time. The road from India to Lassa through Nepál is twice as long and twice as difficult as the way over Jelap-la Pass. From Sikkim, caravans take a week to reach Teshu-Lumpo, and arrive thence at the capital in an even shorter time.

RUSSIA HAS BEEN WATCHING ENGLAND.

It is largely owing to Russian opposition to British trade-extension farther west, Prince Ukhtomsky believes, that England has sought dominance in Tibet.

The English, owing to the considerable import duties imposed by Russia, no longer find as good a market as before for Indian teas in western Turkestan. Russian merchandise competes quite successfully with British goods in Kashgar. Investigations carried on by Carey regarding the possibility of sending goods from India to the localities to the east of Yarkand met with a negative result. The deserts there are so inhospitable that no cultivation is practicable. There remains the best and shortest road through the Chumba Valley from Darjeeling. Trade by that route is already of some importance, and promises to grow to considerable proportions. . . . As soon as relations are established, the natives and the English will rapidly understand in what ways they can be profitable and agreeable to each other. Ultimately, of course, the new-comers from the West, from being friends on an equal footing will turn into masters, and with iron will compel acquiescence to their every wish.

English missionaries, we are told, were the vanguards of the English Government.



THE QUESTION OF TIBET.
A French view of English neutrality.
From *Grelot* (Paris).

It is important to notice that England has always come to the help of the missionaries in Tibet. When they have been oppressed, word has found its way to Calcutta through the Nepalese. In Teshu-Lumpo and Lassa, the people are greatly afraid of the natives of Nepál, and are willing to pay dearly to avoid a contest of arms with the terrible Gurkhas. The English have long understood this peculiarity, and artfully take advantage of it. They have sent Hindus to interior Asia to explore, paying them well for their information. Russia has far larger numbers of people adapted for relations with Tibet, and even now many Buriats live there without breaking their relations with their native land (in Russian Siberia). But Russia has been indifferent to all this. For two centuries our native races have had an opportunity of proving themselves excellent and faithful subjects. Among them are found many, to a large extent Russianized, who are fully qualified and well suited to represent us. Is it not time for Russia at last to take advantage of this circumstance? Is it possible that the first educated Russian traveler will

reach Lassa through Darjeeling, under the protection and by the permission of the English Government?

DANGER TO HISTORICAL RELICS?

The chief danger to Tibet from the present English invasion, however, this Russian statesman believes, is to art and antiquities.

The Tibetan monasteries are exceedingly rich, and form real treasure-houses of ancient culture; they contain religious objects of the highest artistic value, and the rarest literary memorials. If the Sepoys reach Teshu-Lumpo and Lassa, with their fanatical passion for loot, which was so signally exhibited in the recent Boxer campaign, it is beyond all doubt that the most precious treasures on the altars and in the libraries of the lamas will be in danger. It is impossible even to tell approximately how great an injury may thus be caused to Orientalism, how the solution of many scientific problems may be put off,—problems which are closely bound up with the gradual revelation of the secrets of Tibet. The vandalism which was a disgrace to our age when Peking was recently ransacked and looted will pale before what the English will probably do by the hands of their dusky mercenaries. The temptation will be too great. Only zealous students of this particular department of knowledge could save everything which is rare and worthy of special attention.

PRUSSIA AND HER POLISH SUBJECTS.

SHORTSIGHTED, foolish, and without a single thing to be said in its defense is Prussia's policy toward the Poles under her banner, is the judgment of Joseph B. Kosciol-Koscielski, a member of the upper house of the Prussian Diet. It is tending to throw the Poles into the arms of Russia, which means that they will surely cause grave trouble for Germany. Mr. Koscielski reviews the history of Polish-Prussian relations in an article in the *National Review*. He scores the Poles for their political ineptitude, and especially for their mistakes in their relations with *Deutschthum* (Germanism). "Even down to the most recent times, Poland's political faults have served the aggrandizement of Prussia." Now Prussia, in her turn, is guilty of political folly which is bound to cost her dear.

PRUSSIAN REPRESSION A FAILURE.

The attempt to destroy Polish national life and to root out Polish sentiment by colonizing the Polish provinces with Germans has not succeeded.

In spite of the advantages of position; in spite of unequal weapons; in spite of the three hundred and fifty millions that are to buy up Polish estates; in spite of the newest law, smelling strongly of the Middle Ages, by which the division of large properties is prohibited; in spite of the countless augmentations of pay to officials, and the giving of long credit to German tradesmen; in spite, finally, of the numerous breaches of constitutional law from which in this struggle they do not shrink, and have even ceased to be ashamed of, *Deutschthum* will not prevail against Poles who are fighting for their most sacred possessions, for their hearths and homes, for their language, and for their religion. *Das Deutschthum* is fighting in the east against a vital force, while it is itself in this part of the world an artificial product. What a people creates may live for centuries, what a government invents need not even survive that government. This is a fact overlooked by the members of the present Prussian Government, whose understanding of the hearts of the people has been confused by paragraph-writers, even if they ever have understood them. *Das Deutschthum* will never conquer the whole ground in the east, for such a conquest could not be effected in these modern times by the passing of laws, but only by taking captive the hearts of the people, and the idea of dosing them with paragraphs to a certain extent pharmaceutically prepared is indeed foolish.

POLES LEARNING THEIR LESSON.

When the present Kaiser came to the throne, he had pro-Polish sympathies, and what was known as the "neuen kurs" (new policy) promised well for German as well as Pole. But Prussia's "commercial patriots" soon changed all this, and the Poles are learning their lesson.

In the same degree in which the German population of East Prussia is suffering from moral depression grow the capacity and resisting power of the oppressed and neglected Poles. Through the hundred years of persecution, thanks especially to the struggle on economical grounds, the Poles have in a large measure assimilated that thoroughness which formerly characterized the first German immigrants on the ungrateful soil of Brandenburg. The poverty which has overtaken them, or, rather, which has purposely been forced upon them, has made them more laborious and more serious, but also more pliable to the discipline of the idea for which they suffer, and this result may be traced in every fresh generation. Formerly, the German impressed the Pole by his industry, frugality, and strict adherence to duty, a respect which is disappearing more and more, owing to the public preference given to the less estimable specimens of the German character, and with it is also disappearing confidence in the integrity of the administration, and in the impartiality of judicial verdicts. On the other hand, there is a marked increase among the Poles in the effort to become strong by means of industry and thrift, and thus to show a bold front to persecutors. As the Pole has repeatedly convinced himself that his neighbor, the German, is obsequious in his behavior toward the powerful, and brutal and inconsiderate in his dealings with the weak, the desire to be strong, in order to be better treated, grows in intensity. His individuality is encouraged by the very means taken to crush it.

WHAT IS IMPLIED IN THE ANGLO-FRENCH AGREEMENT.

THERE are not wanting Frenchmen who see in the latest Anglo-French treaty another attempt of "perfidious Albion" to humble and injure France. In a long and exhaustive study, in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, M. René Millet traces the relations of France and England for the past thousand years. The military contest between France and England, he says, lasted for six centuries, and ended only with the fall of the great Napoleon. England always had a great advantage,—she could retire within her own boundaries and defend herself by her fleet, while France was always obliged to stand guard upon at least two sides at once. The British policy, he says, consisted in inciting enemies to France on the Continent, and in always keeping up a fleet much superior to that of the French. England detached the Low Countries from France, and robbed her of Canada and the Indies. But, says M. Millet, "we helped the United States to win their independence, and so the score is not so uneven." All through the campaign of Napoleon, says this writer, and even up to the present day, the fundamental maxim of the cabinet of London has been the humbling of France. Considering the relations of the two countries in connection with a number of the accomplishments of international politics, including the reclamation of Egypt, the building of the Suez Canal, and the peaceful conquest of northern Africa, we are told that French inventors, statesmen, and educators have worked, in the end, for other peoples, chiefly the English. Great Britain had no sympathy with Franco in her struggle with Prussia, and yet she wonders how France could fail to comfort her in her trials in South Africa. France, he declares, has so frequently acted as the "cat's-paw" for England that the latter has come to regard this as France's proper *rôle*. The English have so often predicted that France was about to perish because of her wickedness that they almost resent the evidences of life and vigor shown by the French empire in northern Africa and her successful colonies in the far East.

This writer finds many provisions in the Anglo-French treaty which, he believes, are not fair to France, one of the chief being that England stands guard over the navigable portion of the River Niger and the French are denied access to this great river, the sources of which they themselves hold. He also complains of the retention of Gibraltar, and declares that the shade of Nelson still hangs over the French Mediterranean prospects. France, he declares, must have Morocco, in order to "round out" and safeguard her other North African possessions. The British Empire, he points out, in conclusion, is scattered and vast. From time to time, a fragment of the empire breaks away. "Yesterday it was America, to-morrow it may be Australia." France, on the other hand, is a homogeneous, compact territory. With the exception of Indo-China and Madagascar, all her possessions are concentrated in Northwest Africa. "England must go ten thousand miles to New Zealand, but most of our possessions are within twenty-four hours of Marseilles." Two peoples whose domains are so different, and whose vocations are so radically opposite, ought naturally to be on very good terms with each other.

THE ANGLO-JAPANESE ALLIANCE AND THE ANGLO-FRENCH AGREEMENT.

WRITING on the Anglo-French agreement, the London correspondent of the *North China Daily News* recently declared that the conclusion of the said agreement would result in the lessening of England's sympathy with Japan, moderating at the same time the ill-feeling which has existed between England and Russia, because, in his opinion, the nature of the new agreement cannot be harmonized with that of the Anglo-Japanese treaty of alliance. Commenting on this opinion, an editorial in the *Kokumin Shimbun* (Tokio) forecasts some of the possible effects which the Anglo-French agreement is likely to have upon the Anglo-Japanese alliance. In recent years, England and France, says the *Kokumin*, have been gradually awaking to the folly of quarreling with each other without any plausible reason, and their governments and peoples have been endeavoring to bring about a better understanding between the two nations. The conclusion of the Anglo-French agreement, it continues, was a natural outcome of the gradual *rapprochement* of the two countries.

As the result of the new agreement, many mooted cases which from time to time disturbed the peaceful

relations of the two powers in various parts of the world have been amicably settled. There is a wide difference between an international agreement and a treaty of alliance. The former aims to settle international trouble in the past, while the latter concerns the future destiny of nations involved in it. Viewed in this wise, the Anglo-French agreement is, in its nature and scope, not dissimilar to the Anglo-Russian agreement, which deals with railroad concessions in China, or to the Russo-Japanese agreement, dwelling upon Korea's relations to the two nations entering into the said agreement. As it is, the Anglo-French agreement has little to do with the grave question of war or peace affecting the contracting parties. On the contrary, the relations of England to Japan, as the English minister at Tokio plainly explained at a recent banquet of the Japan Society, are those of an alliance aimed at the preservation of international peace. This alliance is of the same nature as the Russo-French alliance, or the triangular alliance binding Germany, Austria, and Italy.

NOT INCONSISTENT WITH THE ANGLO-JAPANESE ALLIANCE.

Therefore, the *Kokumin* believes, the new agreement between France and England does not in the least invalidate the principle and purpose of the treaty of alliance between the two island powers. The two are perfectly consistent and in harmony. The diplomatic policy of England in entering into the new agreement with France is in nowise similar to that of Bismarck, who, uniting Germany, Austria, and Italy on the one hand, concluded a secret treaty with Russia on the other. It needs hardly be assured that there is no reason, on the part of Japan, to see any danger to the *entente cordiale* existing between England and Japan on account of the appearance of the new agreement. Moreover, Japan has strong reasons for rejoicing over the inauguration of the Anglo-French agreement. The main purpose of Japan in forming an alliance with England was to maintain the peace of the far East, and also to assist in the promotion of amicable relations between the powers in all parts of the world. The Anglo-French agreement, which has solved by peaceful means some difficult problems that have been long disputed on both sides, has no doubt been a powerful instrumentality for the preservation of peace in Europe.

THE MAINTENANCE OF PEACE IN EUROPE.

Although it was most unfortunate that peace in the far East was destroyed as the result of the breach of diplomatic relations between Russia and Japan, yet it is at least consoling to observe that the new agreement between the two foremost powers of Europe will be of some service in preserving the peace of Europe, with the indirect result of restricting the sphere of the great international conflict now raging in the extreme East. Hence, the Anglo-French agreement is nothing but a powerful auxiliary to the Anglo-Japanese alliance.

As to the popular allegation that the formation of the Anglo-Japanese alliance was a strong impetus to the Anglo-French agreement, the *Kokumin* does not express any opinion. No matter what motive moved the two nations toward the conclusion of the new covenant, the *Kokumin* finds no reason whatsoever for speaking against the inauguration of a new institution which will assist in the cultivation of the arts of peace. "Should England and France continue to foster the feeling of enmity," says the *Kokumin*, in conclusion, "there is reason to fear that the pending war in the far East would cease to be a conflict between Russia and Japan alone, but would assume a far gloomier aspect, involving other European powers in the disastrous affair."

THE MASTER-GENIUS OF THE CONGO.

WHATEVER may be thought of the methods employed by King Leopold of Belgium in his exploitation of the Congo country, the achievements of the past twenty years speak for themselves. Mr. Samuel Phillips Verner, writing in the current number of the *Forum*, describes the immense difficulties under which the resources of the Congo were brought to light and ultimately made to contribute to the treasury of the aged Belgian King. He reminds us that in the early days the lower Congo was called "the white man's grave," because of its well-known unhealthfulness. Great sums of money and many human lives were sacrificed in the construction of the railway. Stanley found that many of the Congo natives were cannibals, and hostile to the whites. Large districts were ravaged by the Arab slave-traders. In the beginnings of the enterprise, King Leopold had only limited financial backing, and Europe thought that he would have to give up the job for lack of means. In the opinion of Mr. Verner, this would have been the case had it not been for the rubber and ivory. Nobody believed that any commercial success could be won from such untoward conditions. Scientists, indeed, said that the country could never be exploited by white men. The Congo scheme was ridiculed in the comic papers of the day. It was hard to get people of character to go out as pioneers.

A GREAT "CAPTAIN OF INDUSTRY."

The background, as painted by Mr. Verner, is surely dark enough, but it makes all the more striking the picture that he draws of the final success of the scheme as a commercial venture. Of Leopold's managerial genius, Mr. Verner says:

The King never wavered. He spent his millions like water. He had a faith which looks sublime in the light of the past and of the present. I am no special apologist for the political career of King Leopold; but his dogged tenacity of purpose in the Congo venture must appear to any impartial beholder little short of marvelous. We Americans boast of our kings of finance and captains of industry; but here is a real king who as a monarch of finance and captain of industry puts Rockefeller and Morgan into the shade. Leopold's act of taking over the public domain of the Congo territory makes him absolute master over nearly a million square miles. No parliament controls him, no constitution restricts him. At the lowest value he places on his possessions, he is worth three hundred million dollars in land alone; and when the value of the land in metals and minerals and for trading and other purposes is considered, it is evident that the King of Belgium is the wealthiest individual on the globe. He believed that, for executive purposes, one head was better than many. So he undertook the work with a few expert advisers, with many skilled laborers, but with himself as sole executive manager. He has himself been the board of directors, general manager, president, and financial agent. There has been nothing like it in history. John Smith, Robert Winthrop, Warren Hastings, Cecil Rhodes,—each founded an empire, but did it in person on the spot. King Leopold has done his work without putting a foot on African soil.

WHAT HAS BEEN ACHIEVED, AND HOW.

Among the positive results accomplished by the government of King Leopold in the Congo country, Mr. Verner enumerates the putting down of the Arab slave trade, the planting of white settlements over the whole state, trading stations, government posts, and missions, the establishment of steamboat lines on the rivers, the building of one railroad and the partial construction of several others, the practical abolition of cannibalism, the starting of coffee and rice plantations, the development of a commerce in the country of ten million dollars a year, and other marks of progress hardly less notable.

On the general plan of administration developed by the central government at Brussels, two general departments of Congo government were organized,—the office at Brussels, with an executive known as the secretary of state, and that at Boma, near the mouth of the Congo, where the colonial governor-general and his subordinate officials have their seat of administration. Next to the King himself, the real head of the government is the secretary of state at Brussels,



LEOPOLD, KING OF THE BELGIANS.

Baron von Eetvelde. After this official, in power, comes the governor-general. The first man to be appointed to this post was General Gordon, who declined the appointment at the last moment to go on the Khartum expedition. In organizing the work of exploration and development, the Belgians divided the country into thirteen administrative districts, with an official entitled "commissaire du district" at the head of each. Under each of these "commissaires" were minor officials. African natives from civilized tribes on the coast were at first depended upon entirely for manual labor and for recruiting private soldiers. But as soon as the natives of any district became tractable under white control, the soldiers were recruited from these partially civilized natives, and were sent away to subjugate and control more distant tribes. The method all along has been to govern one tribe with soldiers recruited from another. The state post may be manned by less than a half-dozen white men, with hundreds of these black soldiers, in the midst of a hostile population.

The charges that have been brought against the Congo government are discussed in this REVIEW for July, 1903.

THE AUSTRALIAN "LABOR" MINISTRY.

THE destinies of the Australian Commonwealth have been intrusted to a cabinet composed, with a single exception, of members of the Labor party in Parliament. The whole world is interested in seeing how a group of labor leaders, without administrative experience, will acquit themselves in the practical conduct of government. Most of the new cabinet officers were comparatively unknown men, even in Australia, when they were called to their present responsible posts. From the brief biographical sketches which appear in the *Review of Reviews for Australasia*, we learn that the average age of the members is only forty-three years, while in England sixty is the average age at which corresponding rank is attained. The nationalities of the members are as follows: One, the prime minister, is a New Zealander, two are Australian-born, two are Irish, two are Scotch, and one is Welsh. There is not one who was born in England.

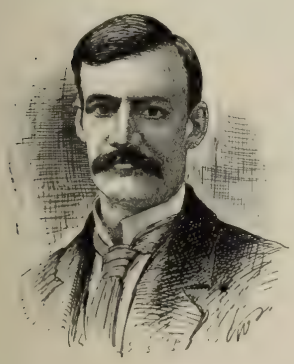
Mr. John Christian Watson, the premier, is but thirty-seven years of age. He was born in Valparaiso, where his parents were on a visit, but was only a few months old when they returned to New Zealand. At an early age he began his apprenticeship as a compositor, joining the Typographical Union. When nineteen, he came to Sydney, and joined the composing staff of the *Star*. Then he became president of the Sydney Trades and Labor Council, and president of the Political Labor League of New South Wales. In 1894, he was returned to a New South Wales Parliament, and took the leading place among the Labor members. In 1901, he was returned to the first federal Parliament. He was selected to lead the Labor party in the federal House, and has won golden opinions in that position. He is a born leader of men, and has rare tact. He overcame the apprehension caused by his youth. He curbed the extremists of his party. Power came to him at once. He seized the advantage of leading a third party between two opponents. It was he, rather than



HON. JOHN C. WATSON.
(Prime minister of the Australian Commonwealth.)

Sir Edmund Barton or Mr. Deakin, who decided what should pass and what not. He has read omnivorously. He has never been to England. He is no orator, but an effective speaker. He always knows his facts before launching out about them. Of medium height, he has a pleasant, rather ruddy, face, and a genial manner.

Mr. E. L. Batchelor, minister for home affairs, was minister of education and agriculture and



HON. E. L. BATCHELOR.
(Minister for home affairs.)



HON. W. M. HUGHES.
(Minister of external affairs.)



HON. ANDREW FISHER.
(Minister for trade and customs.)



SENATOR DAWSON.
(Minister for defense.)



HON. HUGH MAHON.
(Postmaster-general.)



SENATOR MACGREGOR.
(Vice-president of the executive council.)



HON. HENRY B. HIGGINS, K.C.

postmaster-general in South Australia. He began life as a pupil teacher, but became subsequently engine-fitter in locomotive workshops. He, too, rose through Trades and Labor Council and Labor party to the state Parliament, and next to the federal Parliament.

Mr. W. M. Hughes, minister of external affairs, is a native of Wales, and was for five years a board-school teacher there. Coming to Queensland in 1884, he drove sheep, then worked on coastal boats, and finally followed mechanical trades. He studied law, and was called to the bar of New South Wales eight months ago. He has had great success, especially in the arbitration court. He is the most eloquent speaker in the Labor party, a clever and straight-hitting debater.

Mr. Andrew Fisher, minister for trade and customs, was born in Ayrshire, in 1862, came out to Queensland in 1885, and worked as a miner till 1893. He entered the Queensland Parliament, and subsequently the federal Parliament. It was he who brought down the Deakin government.

Senator Dawson, the new minister for defense, was the first Labor premier in Australia, having filled that office for a few days in Queensland. He was born at Rockhampton, Queensland, in 1863. He has been miner, farmer, and journalist. But for his health he would have been leader of his party in the federal Senate.

Mr. Hugh Mahon, postmaster-general, was born in Ireland, in 1858, had some farming experience in Canada, and became a journalist. He was locked up in Kilmainham Jail without a trial in 1881–82. On his release, he came to Australia for his health, and was connected with many journals. He moved to West Australia, where he now represents Coolgardie in the federal House.

Senator Macgregor, vice-president of the executive council, was born in Argyllshire, in 1848, worked as a gardener, wandered as a laborer, and in 1867 came to South Australia. President of the United Labor party in South Australia, he was returned to the Legislative Council of that colony in 1894. In 1901, he was elected a Senator of the Commonwealth.

Mr. Henry B. Higgins, K.C., attorney-general, is the only member of the new cabinet not a member of the Labor caucus. He was born in Ireland, in a Wesleyan parsonage, had his schooling in Dublin, studied at Melbourne University, where he graduated M.A., LL.B., taking three scholarships and first-class honors. In 1876, he was called to the Victorian bar. Ten years later, he was admitted to the Inner Temple, London, and since 1887 has become leader of the equity bar in Victoria. He entered the Victorian Parliament in 1894. He was defeated in 1900, "owing to his outspoken condemnation of the treatment of the Boers during the war." He was elected to the federal Parliament for North Melbourne. He is a member of the council of the Melbourne University, and has always taken a great interest in university matters. He contributes to the *Review* an appreciation of the new ministry. He inquires into the secret of the growing strength of the Labor party. Its election address, taken as a whole, is, he says, "sober, moderate, even drab-color." This is his explanation :

> The truth is, the orthodox parties have plenty of newspapers, but no policy, while the Labor party has a policy, but no (daily) paper. Perhaps I should say that the orthodox parties have no *distinctive* policy, now that by common consent the tariff issue has gone. Such platform as they have is made up of mere chips from the Labor platform ; and they have the chips no larger than they can help. People like something positive, consistent, intelligible—something with the light of the ideal falling on it—something for hope, something even for experiment. They feel that the old parties have managed things badly. They have suffered, they still suffer, much from the miserable borrowing system of the past ; and the Labor party is for sound finance and against loans. So they vote Labor.

Mr. Higgins says, "The ideal of the progressive party for Australia is a strong, stalwart, self-respecting race."

The portraits of the Labor ministers convey an impression of sober intelligence and resolute purpose.

ITALIAN STRICTURES ON POPE PIUS X.

AFTER approving the action of the Holy See in its protests sent to the French Government on account of the "persecution" carried on "against the religious congregations," an anonymous writer in the *Rassegna Nazionale* (Florence) speaks in a different tone of the Papal condemnation of Abbé Loisy and the protest uttered against the visit to Rome of the French president.

With regard to the Loisy affair, what has offended the public conscience is the fact that two books were submitted contemporaneously, one by Harnack, in which established religions were assailed with the utmost violence, the Catholic Church being especially the object of invective. The religions of the day were treated in this work as so many juggling corruptions of genuine Christianity. The work of Loisy, on the other hand, states with singular ability the mission of the Church, and justifies its *raison-d'être*. These two witnesses have stood facing each other at the Papal bar, and the latter has been brusquely caught up by the authoritative judgment of the Church, which has thus passed sentence of condemnation upon its defender. . . . It may be said that since the book of Harnack was written by a Protestant, it did not come within the scope of Papal condemnation. But, while this idea may appeal to the few, it has no influence with the many, who, when they read a book, are more interested in its contents than in its author, whose baptismal creed concerns them but little. They understand the arguments of both books; the one treatise is condemned, and not the other,—this is the fact that the public notices and comprehends.

The writer adds that the Pope might have been justified in specifying and condemning theological errors in Loisy's work. By condemning the whole of it, the Catholic authorities have condemned the pursuit of genuine historic research, and have announced their preference for legend above authentic history.

AS TO THE LOUBET VISIT TO ROME.

In speaking of the Pope's action on the visit of President Loubet to the King of Italy, the writer observes that the Pope's protest could only be looked upon as "an empty demonstration."

It could only create a feeling of embarrassment in the kingdom of Italy, and it is quite inconceivable what would be the compensating advantages of an action which must cause a certain annoyance to the other states, if it did not raise a prejudice against the Vatican itself. But the Vatican may look at these things from its own point of view. Of course, in his own house, the Pope has a perfect right to make his own rules, just as he thinks fit, and no one can interfere with him. In accordance with this principle, we can understand his refusing to receive a visitor of the sovereign who has set up his rights in the heart of the old Papal dominion. The superiority which the Pope enjoys from his exalted position as head of the Church might perhaps have enabled him to put aside all such worldly considerations, and if he did not think good to do so, he is perfectly justified in acting according to his own notions of propriety. But that he should presume to lay down the law that no Catholic sovereign should set foot in Rome under the present *régime*, even when most important interests of his country require his presence at the Quirinal,—even when the gravest international complications might result from such sovereign's failure to keep in personal touch with the Italian court,—this is a claim which the public conscience finds it difficult to reconcile with common sense. The world, forsooth, may fall in ruins, so long as Papal susceptibilities are not offended. This is all very fine, but the hazard of such a game far exceeds any profits resulting from it.

THE LABOR PROBLEM ON THE PANAMA CANAL.

IN the July number of this REVIEW, Col. William C. Gorgas discussed the problem of sanitation at Panama. Closely related to this topic is the question of labor supply for the canal construction works. Those writers who have indulged in speculation on this subject seem to have overestimated the number of laborers that will be required on the canal. It has been stated that as many as 40,000 laborers will be able to find profitable employment on the Isthmus in the work of excavation. This estimate, according to Gen. Peter C. Hains, U.S.A., who discusses the matter in the July number of the *North American Review*, is far too large. General Hains was a member of the Isthmian Canal Commission, and has given much attention to the work already performed by the new Panama Company, with special reference to the character of labor to be required by our government in prosecuting the work. General Hains reminds us at the outset that the digging of the canal is not to be done by an army of laborers equipped with spades and shovels, but by machines operated on modern methods by steam or electric power. He shows that out of a total of 47 miles of canal, about 35 miles will be excavated chiefly with dredges, requiring but few laborers. With regard to the Culebra Cut, where the heaviest work will have to be done, it appears that only a certain amount of machinery can be employed to advantage on this cut, and that fact will limit the number of employees.

The completion of this cut will determine the time of completing the canal. The other works, such as the Bahia Dam, the locks, and the spillway, need not be hurried so much, as their early completion would not affect the opening of the canal to navigation.

HOW MANY MEN WILL BE NEEDED?

In the case of the Chicago Drainage Canal, which is 34 miles long, while the Panama Canal is 47, the maximum number of employees at any one time during construction was about 8,000. General Hains reasons that the ratio of the number of employees to length of canal at Panama will probably not exceed that at Chicago. On the other hand, it is more probable that it will be less, because of the proportionately larger amount of work that can be done with dredges. Up to the time of the transfer of the Panama property to the United States, the company was employing about 700 men, who removed less than 700,000 cubic yards a year; but their appliances were not well adapted to the work. With modern appliances and the same number of men, General Hains thinks that the output ought to be more than doubled. His estimate of excavation with good machinery is 10 cubic yards per day per man. At that rate, the employment of 2,000 men on the Culebra Cut would effect an output of 6,000,000 cubic yards per year, which would complete the cut in about seven years.

To cite another American engineering work, the greatest number of men ever employed at one time on the Sault Ste. Marie lock, the largest lock ever built, was about 760. That was only for a short period, when the masonry work was being pushed with the greatest energy. During the seven years consumed in the construction of this lock, the average number of men employed was not more than 300. During the two years 1892 and 1893, when the greatest number was employed, the average for the working months, from May to December inclusive, was only 500 men. Allowing double that number on the three locks of the Panama Canal, there would be 3,000 men required on lock construction. Altogether, the entire work, according to General Hains, would probably not require more than 8,000 men; but if this should be increased by 25 per cent., the total number would be only 10,000, and this he regards as a liberal estimate.

DIRECT EMPLOYMENT VERSUS THE CONTRACT SYSTEM.

General Hains considers some of the advantages and disadvantages of the contract system. While he admits that there are some advantages in letting the work to a single firm or syndicate rather than to a number of firms, he shows that there are serious disadvantages in such a method, chief of which is the natural tendency to increase the cost of the work. The construction of the canal calls for many classes of work requiring men specially skilled in each; and, if a single firm had the contract, it would sublet the special classes, the result being that the Government would have to pay the profit to the sub-contractor and also to the principal. The preferable system, in General Hains' opinion, would be the letting of the work to a number of smaller contractors. This was the method employed on the Chicago Drainage Canal. But in view of enforcing sanitary regulations on the Isthmus, he argues that the best method for the Government to pursue is to employ its own labor and purchase the machinery by contract. In the present case, since the work on the canal is a new one, it will require new tools and new machinery. Contractors would have no advantage over the Government in securing good machinery, while it is believed that the United States can secure labor on the Isthmus at lower rates than any contractor. General Hains cites several examples of recent engineering works as prosecuted by our government to show that government work may be done more cheaply than work by contract.

THE AMERICAN NEGRO PREFERRED.

In reply to the question, Where will the labor come from? General Hains asserts that white labor from the United States, except in the mechanical trades, is out of the question. The number of laborers of any color or kind now on the Isthmus is small, and the quality poor. Possibly 1,500 or 2,000 Jamaica negroes could be obtained, but the native population is wholly unavailable. The Panama Canal Company tried Chinese coolies and negroes imported direct from Africa, but neither class of laborers gave satisfaction. Disease carried off many from both classes, and rendered others helpless. The solution proposed by General Hains is to procure the laborers from the United States. The Southern negro, accustomed to the warm climate of our Southern States, would, it is believed, furnish an excellent class of labor for the Isthmus. It will, however, be necessary to employ a number of men skilled in mechanical trades, and these must be chiefly, if not altogether, white men. But these white mechanics need not make a long stay on the Isthmus. General Hains recommends that the ordinary laborers be divided into two classes, with a slight difference in pay to encourage industry and attention to duty. They should agree to work for two years, unless sooner discharged. They

should be quartered in buildings provided by the Government, and supplied with wholesome food and a certain amount of cotton working-clothes and medical attendance. At the end of two years' creditable service, they should be entitled to discharge and transportation back to the place at which they were recruited. In order to insure the employment of men physically and mentally sound and fitted for the work, an examination should be required, no less rigid than that for enlisting men for the army. Similar but less stringent rules should apply to mechanics, clerks, draughtsmen, overseers, and so forth. The men should be divided into squads, with a master-laborer or master-mechanic for each, according to the class of men that compose it. It will be seen that such an organization would not be practicable under the contract system, its main idea being to secure absolute control by the officers for all purposes of work, similar to the organization of an army.



HIGH-POWER DERRICK USED IN CHANNEL EXCAVATION.

Engineering Devices Likely to Be Employed.

In the *Technical World*, published by the Armour Institute of Technology, Chicago, Mr. Malcolm McDowell gives a brief description of some of the machinery and methods that will be employed in cutting the Panama Canal. This writer refers to some of the difficulties encountered in the cutting of the Chicago Drainage Canal, the main channel of which is about 28 miles long, of which 9 miles are in solid rock. Over 12,000,000 cubic yards of solid rock, and nearly 30,000,000 cubic yards of the so-called "glacial drift," were excavated and heaped up on both sides of the channel. No excavation, says this writer, of such length, has revealed a more heterogeneous aggregation of solid matter.

There were hard rock and soft rock; hard clay which had to be blasted, and obdurate dirt full of huge, ice-rounded boulders; sloppy muck, and a natural cement called "conglomerate," which sent several contractors into bankruptcy and half a dozen engineers to the verge of insanity. Every mile presented new problems in the excavation and handling of material. And they were solved, not by engineers, but by the contractors, whose originality in planning and superb audacity in execution made the Chicago Drainage Canal the center of attraction of the engineering world for many years.

Engineers who are acquainted with the Isthmian situation predict that several of the devices found so effective in constructing the Drainage Canal will be employed on the Panama work, especially the Lidgerwood cableways, and the dumping apparatus devised by Mr. Locker, a Drainage Canal contractor, and the movable incline of the type constructed by Mr. Heidenreich, another Drainage Canal contractor. The cableway is a suspension bridge formed of a steel cable 2½ inches in diameter stretched between two towers, one on each side of the cut. In the construction of the Drainage Canal, the towers were reared on great trucks, whose heavy wheels ran on tracks laid parallel to the channel. These towers were 700 feet apart; one was 93 feet high; the other, 73 feet high, the whole apparatus moving forward with the advance of the work. On a platform under the taller tower were the engines, boiler, dynamo, and other machinery. On a steel cable bridge traveled the cable carriage that carried the pulley wheels and the sheaves of the tackle which raised the loaded "skip"—an immense steel box—from the bottom of the channel. The engineer in the power-house on the platform controlled the movements of this "skip," and he received signals given by a boy with an electric push-button, which enabled him to adjust the direction and speed of the "skip" so nicely that he could lift it, run it to the "spoil bank," dump it, and return it with amazing accuracy and celerity. Every

"skip" carried 90 cubic feet of material, and traveled along the cableway at the rate of 1,000 feet a minute.

"Channeling" is done in connection with air or steam drills which drive holes a few feet apart across the work, from one side to the other. Dynamite cartridges are placed in the holes, and are exploded by electricity. The effect is to blow forward a cross-section of the work.

Here is a picture of the future operations at Panama as it presents itself to the American engineer's imagination :

When the Panama work is well under way, the great cut will be cobwebbed overhead with the taut cableways ; its sides will be alive with cars racing up and down the latticed incline ; and the grunts and groans of a hundred great steam shovels will be the double bass of the industrial chorus, in which the merry chuckle of rock drills, the hissing of escaping air and steam, the humming of pulleys and sheaves, the snorting and puffing of the little engines pushing pneumatic dump cars, and the ringing of the channeling machines' broad chisels will keep time to the beat of the salvos of explosions when the dynamite "lets go."

It should be borne in mind that up to the present time the constructive work on the Isthmus has followed the methods used in the excavations of the Suez Canal, a generation ago. Now that the work is under American auspices, there will be an unequaled opportunity to compare closely the methods of American and European engineers. Not only will American methods be employed, but the execution of the work will be largely in the hands of Western men, as is foreshadowed by the appointment of John F. Wallace, of the Illinois Central Railroad, as chief engineer of the canal.

SOME CHILEAN OPINION ON THE PANAMA CANAL.

WILL the construction of the Panama Canal benefit or injure Chile? This is the only question which ought to concern the country, declares the *Heraldo* (Valparaiso), in reply to inquiries as to the Chilean attitude toward the loss of Colombia, the independence of Panama, and the relations of the United States Government to South America in general. Some have claimed that the opening of the canal cannot benefit Chile. In reply, the *Heraldo* says :

Via Panama, Valparaiso will be much closer than by the Straits of Magellan to New York, Liverpool, Hamburg, and Marseilles, which of itself is a material advantage. And there is the example of Central Africa. Did the opening of the Suez Canal retard the progress of that important region of the world? The Panama Canal will considerably increase the commercial movement of the South Pacific, and Chile possesses one-half of the American coast on that ocean. Back of the northern coast of Chile there is, moreover, a country called Bolivia. This country will be one of the greatest markets of the United States as soon as the canal is built. A railway which would join a Chilean port in the north, —Iquique, for example,—with the heart of Bolivia, would it not be a source of wealth for those regions of the country? And back of Chile there are yet the provinces in the Argentine Republic which formerly received their supplies from Chile. Would not one or more trans-Andean railways once more create that same state of things, taking into consideration the distance between those provinces and the Atlantic? Does there not exist in front of Chile an island, a continent called Australia, to which these same trans-Andean lines of communication would make Europe closer by two or three days? And the longitudinal railway to Tarapaca, which, awaiting the trans-American railway, will make Buenos Ayres closer to the Pacific, that new center of the world. Would not this be a great element of wealth and progress to Chile?

CHILE MUST GET READY.

In order that the canal may be of the greatest possible benefit to Chile, this Valparaiso journal insists that better government for the entire country is necessary, besides the following economic and industrial improvements :

A railway from Iquique, or some other northern port, to Bolivia ; two trans-Andean railways at least ; a longitudinal railway to Tarapaca ; good ports, provided with the necessary equipment to satisfy the demands of commerce ; transversal railways which, with prompt and cheap service, may place our agricultural products on the coast, in order to enable us to compete with similar products of the United States in Peru and Bolivia, at least ; a national merchant marine offering cheap freights ; a *darsena* (breakwater) and other works that may give Valparaiso the name of being the first port of the South Pacific.

The *Mercurio* (Valparaiso), perhaps the most influential newspaper in Chile, in an editorial written before Chilean recognition of Panama, considers the entire subject of South American-European relations, and wonders whether Germany has really thought seriously of acceding to the alleged request of Colombia to establish a protectorate over that country. The writer is inclined to doubt it. He wishes there could be some counterbalance to the increasing influence of North America in South American affairs.

It is hard to think that the intervention of the United States remains as it is, without counterbalance, and that the futures of the young and weak republics of this continent are subject to the commercial interests of the great North American republic. But the events at Panama make us fear that we are approaching that situation.

BRIDGING THE ENGLISH CHANNEL.

THE old problem of how to secure the passage of freight between France and England without breaking bulk is discussed in the first June number of the *Revue des Deux Mondes* by M. Lenthéric. Should it be done, he asks, by means of a ferry, or a bridge, or a tunnel? Practically,—partly for strategic reasons, partly owing to the difficult problem of ventilation,—the tunnel scheme, he says, may be disregarded. The idea of a gigantic ferryboat which would take trains laden with goods and passengers is fascinating, but would present innumerable difficulties in bad weather. It would, doubtless, be impossible to maintain a regular service throughout the year.

DANGERS TO NAVIGATION.

Some think that the most rational solution would be a bridge. The geological investigations made originally with a view to a tunnel have shown that the bed of the channel would form a firm support for the piers of a gigantic bridge. In 1870, a bridge was projected of 340 piers, but mariners of all nations were so horrified at the idea of these 340 dangers to navigation that the scheme was dropped. In the interval, the Forth Bridge and the two Brooklyn bridges have been built, and a fresh study of the problem has reduced the number of piers to 121. These would be placed at a distance of about 400 to 500 yards from one another, and it is argued that they would really facilitate navigation, the various arches being allotted to the passage of ships according to their destination. The objection that the bridge would become a terrible danger to navigation in the thick fogs which frequently envelop the channel, M. Lenthéric meets by the suggestion that it would be easy to establish on the bridge itself fog horns, combined with lighthouses, which would be sufficient to prevent any vessel being dashed against the piers. Indeed, in the financial estimates of the bridge the sum of $2,000,000 is allotted for this purpose, and $100,000 for the lighthouse staff. The total cost is estimated at $170,000,000, which would include the cost of connections with the existing railways on both sides of the channel.

THE "SEA RAILWAY" SCHEME.

The writer, however, evidently favors the idea of a gigantic set of rails running literally just above the surface of the water, like the sea railway opened some time ago at Brighton, to take pleasure-seekers to Rottingdean. The same system, which works exceedingly well, is to be seen in full working order between St. Malo and St. Servan. This would be very much more economical than, for instance, the suggested bridge. But it is feared that the action of the water on the iron supports would in a short time bring about great difficulties and possible frightful risk of accidents. But the whole question of iron under water may be solved at any moment, and when that day comes the horrors of a channel passage will be over forever.

THE MAN WHO STAMPED OUT YELLOW FEVER.

A TRIBUTE to the late Dr. Walter Reed, the American officer whose experiments in Cuba, four years ago, resulted in the complete extermination of yellow fever in Havana, appears in the July number of the *Popular Science Monthly*. Major Walter D. McCaw, the writer of this sketch of his late colleague, describes the arrangements by which Major Reed's commission obtained infected mosquitoes; and by a series of experiments which resulted in the death of one of their number, Dr. Lazear, determined once for all the fact that yellow fever is communicated by insects, and not by soiled clothing or other articles, as had been formerly believed. A mosquito-proof building was divided into two compartments; infected mosquitoes were liberated on one side only. A non-immune entered and remained long enough to be bitten several times. He was attacked by yellow fever; while two men in the other compartment did not acquire the disease, although sleeping there thirteen nights. The conclusions of these investigators are as follows:

1. The specific agent in the causation of yellow fever exists in the blood of a patient for the first three days of his attack, after which time he ceases to be a menace to the health of others.

2. A mosquito of a single species, *Stegomyia fasciata*, ingesting the blood of a patient during this infective period, is powerless to convey the disease to another person by its bite until about twelve days have elapsed, but can do so thereafter for an indefinite period, probably during the remainder of its life.

3. The disease cannot in nature be spread in any other way than by the bite of the previously infected *Stegomyia*. Articles used and soiled by patients do not carry infection.

HOW THE PLAGUE WAS BANISHED FROM HAVANA.

These conclusions were at once put to the test by the sanitary authorities of Havana, where, for nearly a century and a half, yellow fever had never failed to appear annually. Under the direction of the chief sanitary officer in Havana, Major William C. Gorgas, of the Medical Department, U.S.A., steps were taken to eradicate the disease. Cases of yellow fever were required to be reported as promptly as possible, the patient was rigidly isolated, all the rooms of the building and neighboring houses were fumigated to destroy the mosquitoes present. Window and door screens were put up, and after the death or recovery of the patient, his room was fumigated and every mosquito destroyed. Everything possible was done to diminish the spread of mosquitoes by draining standing water, where they had their breeding-places, screening tanks and vessels, and using petroleum on water that could not be drained. These measures were put in effect during February, 1901. By the following September the last case of yellow fever originated in Havana, and since that time the city has been entirely exempt. In concluding his article, Major McCaw reminds us of the great value of Dr. Reed's services to our own country, which has been invaded ninety times by yellow fever, and, until within a few years, has been in almost continual peril of such an invasion. The cities of New Orleans, Memphis, Charleston, Galveston, Portsmouth, Baltimore, Philadelphia, New York, and many smaller towns have been swept by the disease. The epidemic of 1853 cost New Orleans eight thousand lives. In the one epidemic of 1878, it is estimated that the financial loss to the United States amounted to more than $15,000,000. The researches of Dr. Reed have taught us how to avert the recurrence of this deadliest of American plagues.

HAWTHORNE, A CENTURY AFTER HIS BIRTH.

AN emperor of elves,—an Oberon whose reign began at the twilight hour and who abdicated at the first cockcrow. Such was Nathaniel Hawthorne, in the characterization of Benjamin de Casseres, who contributes to the *Critic* a study of the author in a symposium called forth by the celebration of the one-hundredth anniversary of his birth.

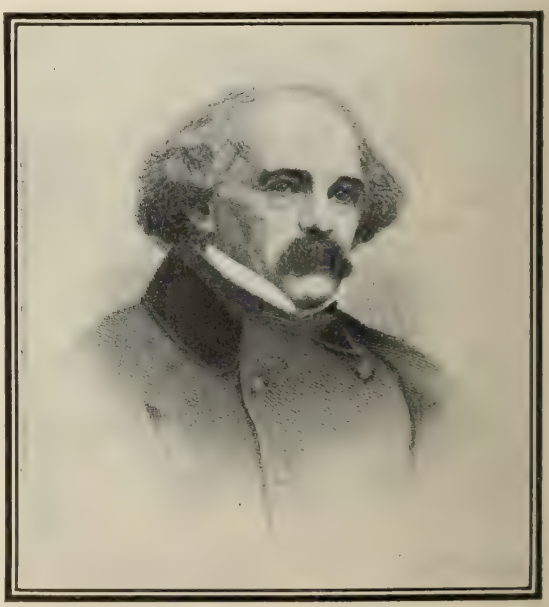
He was a giant, but a giant leashed in cobwebs. He was a thinker whose thoughts were always at half-mast for the sorrows that sucked at his heart. He was exquisitely aware of a Conscience. He knew that the supernormal could alone explain the normal, that the exceptional housed all the laws that governed ordinary occurrences plus an explanation, which if it did not explain gave us something better—another mystery. "The Scarlet Letter" is the romance of pain; "The House of the Seven Gables" is the romance of crime; "The Marble Faun" the romance of penitential despair.

There is a phantom touch in all his pages, continues Mr. de Casseres.

He lacked the sense of reality—the sure test of spirituality. Long, shadowy files sweep up from out the unconscious and form black processions across the earth. That is life. It is the phantom lock-step. These shadows come and go, making frenetic comic gestures. They whisper hoarsely each to the other—and this they call history.

In characterizing Hawthorne's genius, this writer declares that he was utterly unlike his fellows.

Genius treads far from that bellowing sphinx called civilization. The nineteenth century was a coarse melodrama written by the devil for the delectation of the *blasé* gods. By ignoring it utterly, Nathaniel Hawthorne and Walter Pater became its greatest critics.



NATHANIEL HAWTHORNE.

Civilization at best is a peddler dressed up to look like a monarch.

But Hawthorne's shadowy creations are immortal.

Hester Prynne, Arthur Dimmesdale, Clifford Pynchon, Miriam, Donatello, shall outlive in shadowy immortality the flesh-and-blood beings that mimic their ways here below, and the turrets and spires of our civilization shall long be gangrened in the muds of oblivion when the shadow-makers that have gone shall still with potent rod smite the souls of generations unborn, and from them, as from us, shall burst the fountains of exalted wonder.

An English Criticism of "The Marble Faun."

While Hawthorne's New England stories were marvelous successes, he really failed in Rome, says Francis Gribble, who writes in the same magazine on "Hawthorne from an English Point of View." Speaking of "The Marble Faun," which was published in England under the title of "The Transformation," Mr. Gribble says:

The descriptions are always delightful, and the symbolism is often charming, even when it is not very easy to understand. . . . Critics have found "Transformation" unsatisfactory for several reasons; but one reason may suffice, since it includes all the others. Rome was too vast, and various, and rich in points of interest to yield any response to methods which had succeeded admirably in New England, where all life was prosaic and the storied past was only a thing of yesterday. . . . In the New England stories, these devices of romance, mystery, and melodrama could be effective. There was nothing in real life to compete with them. They illuminated the dark places, and contrasted with the dreary common round. But in Rome, the realities were themselves romantic, and neither the mysterious parentage of Hawthorne's Jewess nor the dark secret of his denizen of the catacombs could, in comparison with them, seem either interesting or important. They suggest stage thunder while a real thunder-storm is raging, a display of fireworks in the sunlight, a dime novel bound up with a poem. The suspicion of that fact also seems to have stolen over Hawthorne while he was writing. For his mysteries differ from the usual mysteries of fiction in one remarkable particular. They are left unsolved, for all the world as if their inventor had grown ashamed of them.

We may take it, therefore, that Hawthorne failed in Rome. But his success in New England was so splendid that he could afford the failure. One hundred years after his birth, on the Fourth of July, 1904, he still remains the greatest and most typical man of letters that New England has produced; not, perhaps, the greatest painter of his country's manners, but—what is of higher import—the greatest interpreter of its spirit.

The "Hamlet" of American Literature.

One figure who stands in a sort of involuntary isolation, in the best-known and best-loved circle of our American writers,—this is Hawthorne, with many resemblances to Shakespeare's *Hamlet*, says Bliss Perry, editor of the *Atlantic Monthly*, in an article which was delivered as an address at Bowdoin College in commemoration of Hawthorne.

He died but forty years ago, and many living men and women remember him with strange vividness. Yet he remains, after all, a man apart. Mystery gathers about him, even while the annalists and the critics are striving to make his portrait clear. Certain characteristics of Hawthorne are, of course, indisputable, and it is not fantastic to add that some of these qualities bear a curious resemblance to those of that very *Prince of Denmark* who seems more real to us than do most living men. Hawthorne was a gentleman; in body the mold of form, and graced with a noble mind. Like *Hamlet*, he loved to discourse with unlettered people, with wandering artists, with local humorists, although without ever losing his own dignity and inviolable reserve. He had irony for the pretentious, kindness for the simple-hearted, merciless wit for the fools. He liked to speculate about men and women, about temptation and sin and punishment; but he remained, like *Hamlet*, clear-sighted enough to distinguish between the thing in itself and the thing as it appeared to him in his solitude and melancholy. His closest friends, like Horatio Bridge and W. D. Ticknor, were men of marked justice and sanity of mind,—of the true *Horatio* type. Hawthorne was capable, if need be, of passionate and swift action, for all his gentleness and exquisite courtesy of demeanor. Toward the last, he had, like *Hamlet*, his forebodings,—"such a kind of gaingiving, as would perhaps trouble a woman;" and he died, like *Hamlet*, in silence, conscious of an unfinished task.

THE GEORGE SAND CENTENARY.

THE one-hundredth anniversary of the birth of George Sand was celebrated in Paris on July 1. A statue by the well-known French sculptor, Sicard, was unveiled in the garden of the Luxembourg, and at the Comédie Française the famous "François le Champi" was rendered. The statue is a government enterprise, and represents, not the middle-aged French authoress and woman of the world, but a young, beautiful, romantic woman,—George Sand when she came to Paris, in 1831. *L'Illustration*, in an appreciation of George Sand, says of this time:

She was fleeing from her husband; and, several years afterward, she obtained her liberty. But her first novels give voice to those sufferings which she underwent in her married life. She has branded the egoism and awkwardness of certain husbands. She has created the type of the woman who is not understood, which all literature abused so much until Flaubert rendered it justice in his "Madame Bovary." But the revolt of George Sand was sincere and justified. In demanding more

independence for women, in attacking the hypocrisy of the world, she opened the way for such writers as Alexandre Dumas, *fils*, or Paul Hervieu. Her generosity in the defense of her sisters knew no bounds. Herself independent, she took up the cause of all the oppressed. She saw too clearly all the natural and social inequalities to remain unmoved.

Jules Claretie, writing in *L'Écho des Deux Mondes* (the French literary semi-monthly published at the University of Chicago), declares that M. Sicard's statue is remarkably well done and expresses the character of the woman much better than any of our pictures of her later in life. She was a poet and a heroine, he says—a dreamer of happiness. M. Claretie finds the influence of Russian literature strongly evident in her work. He traces the influence of Dostoyevski especially. He is also sure that Madame Sand was a diligent reader and a devoted disciple of Jean Jacques Rousseau. "An artist she was also, a landscape painter and poet, but, above all, human ; a woman among women, with the robust nature of a man, and yet a depth of maternal possibilities like the earth itself, which she loved." The daily newspaper *Figaro* is publishing in a series the hitherto unedited letters of George Sand, which is announced to appear in book form in Brussels in a few weeks. The love-letters of Alfred de Musset to Madame Sand are remarkable for their passion and poetic expression, even when their author is considered. *Blanco y Negro*, of Madrid, asserts there is no doubt that George Sand is the greatest French writer after Balzac.



STATUE OF GEORGE SAND BY THE FRENCH SCULPTOR, SICARD.

THE LOSS TO LITERATURE BY THE TURIN LIBRARY FIRE.

THE universities of Oxford and Cambridge, England, have sent their condolences, couched in choice Latin, to the University of Turin on the losses by the recent library fire. Similar messages have been received from the authorities of the British Museum, London, and the Bibliothèque Nationale, Paris. According to Paolo Boselli, writing in the *Nuova Antologia* (Rome), the principal details of the damage done are as follows :

There are forty-one sections of printed books in the National Library at Turin, containing about three hundred thousand volumes. Nine sections were burned out ; their contents consisted of 31,511 volumes, of which only 6,800 remained. The loss of the 23,711 volumes is less deplorable for the number than for the value of the works consumed. The greatest damage was done in the five sections which were very rich in works of philosophy, pedagogy, and educational treatises, consisting of 5,689 volumes, of which only 176 were saved. Of the complete works of eminent literary men, most of them being in the shape of letters, only 105 volumes remain out of the original 4,939. The law section was very remarkable, with its 4,157 volumes, of which 525 have been preserved. The linguistic section consists to-day of 551 works, while 3,239 have perished by fire. The philological section has lost 2,290 works, and has saved 656 only. Of the precious Aldines, out of 700 volumes only 150 remain. All the archives of the library went up in flames. All the memoirs and annotations upon the manuscripts of the library which were destined for future publication have perished. The fire destroyed entirely the topographical inventory of manuscripts compiled by B. Peyron, with the supplement of Frati, containing in all a register of 500 Latin, Italian, and French manuscripts not included in the catalogue.

LOSS OF PRECIOUS MANUSCRIPTS.

It is impossible to fix exactly the number of manuscripts stored in the library previous to the fire, but they are roughly reckoned at some forty-five hundred. The greatest damage was done among the Hebrew, Arabic, Persian, and Italian manuscripts. From the room which con-

tained the most precious documents, among the remains which did not entirely perish in the flames there were rescued random pages and many volumes partially consumed.

Almost all the Hebrew manuscripts were burned, only 40 remaining out of the 111 Oriental, Arabic, and Turkish works registered by Nallino. Less damage has been suffered by the Greek manuscripts, although there is no single one of them but has been more or less injured by the effects of fire or water. Not more than half of them have entirely survived the disaster. Probably the original number was 406, of which it is hoped that 177 may be restored from the scattered fragments. All the parchments seem to have escaped destruction, and among them that famous Codex of Theodoret's Commentary on the Minor Prophets, whose illuminations are so justly renowned. This literary monument had previously survived, unhurt, the fire of 1667. But the Greek Hymnary commented on by Cardinal Pitri and by Krumbacher seems to have been consumed, and the Greek Psalter of the eighth century has been almost destroyed; the Greek Diplomariat has also perished. Passini has enumerated in the Turin collection 1,291 Latin manuscripts. From the calculation of Frati, they can be safely enumerated as 2,475.

In the list of works surviving the fire there are 1,350 Latin manuscripts, but it is probable that by further search and the restoration of what remains other parchment manuscripts of this class more or less complete may come to light.

The most terrible havoc was wrought among manuscripts, 172 in number, in the French language, registered by Passini, which were of the first rank, both as regards the beauty of their text and their illuminated decoration, including the books of Charles V., Charles VI., Philip, and the Bastard of Burgundy, which for their singular rarity had been celebrated, studied, and imitated by the foremost writers and artists. Among the artistic manuscripts of which a wretched morsel only survives is the *Heures de Turin*. The manuscript of *Historia Augusta*, illuminated by Pisanello and Pasti, survives in a most ruinous condition. The illuminated missal of Cardinal Rosselli, a Spanish work of the fourteenth century, is but slightly injured. The collection of Romances of Chivalry has suffered much from the fire, and many masterpieces of illumination have perished. Numerous works dealing with the history of Savoy have been reduced to ashes, and the glory of the library, the French Department, with its important and exquisite examples of illumination, contains nothing but a heap of half-consumed fragments, from among which it is to be hoped something will be rescued by the restoration of experts.

WHAT CONSTITUTES A MUSICAL NATION?

TWENTY-FIVE years ago, Rubinstein wrote in his autobiography:

The relative knowledge of music among Germans, French, and English, stated arithmetically, would be somewhat as follows: Of the German people, at least 50 per cent. understand music; of the French, not more than 16 per cent.; while among the English, not more than 2 per cent. can be found who have any knowledge of music. Even Americans have a higher appreciation of music than the English. . . . In America, we find a little more music than in England. . . . But it is only in Germany than one learns to what noble heights it may attain. In France, music has a special part assigned to it, is in a prosperous condition and well appreciated, but its recognition is far different from that given it in Germany. In no other land do we find the real merit of musical compositions so quickly discerned and accurately valued as in Germany.

Commenting on these statements, and on the fact that they are approximately true to-day, Henry C. Lahee, writing in the *Musician*, observes that the folk-song counts for but little without the skill of the composer and his art in making a theme of the song. As to German musical culture to-day, Mr. Lahee says: "There are probably just as many absolutely unmusical people in Germany as in any other nation, but of those who are musical a greater proportion have been able to secure some degree of musical education than in any other nation."

CAN MUSICAL APPRECIATION BE ACQUIRED?

A foundation for musical appreciation, in the form of a national musical education, is absolutely necessary, continues Mr. Lahee, if there is to be a discernment of the real merit of musical compositions.

Music is often spoken of as a language. We should laugh at the idea of discerning the merit of a literary composition without a knowledge of the grammar of that language, and it is difficult to understand how people can pretend to appreciate music without some knowledge of its grammar. And yet that is what we find every day. The way in which this nation, which contains all the necessary elements, can become a musical nation is by giving every boy and every girl an opportunity to learn something of the grammar of music.

There is a movement on foot to establish elementary harmony as an elective study in the public schools, he reminds us, and this project formed an important subject of discussion at the convention of the Music Teachers' National Association recently held at Asheville, N. C. "It is the most important movement in musical education since the introduction of singing into the public schools, some seventy years ago."

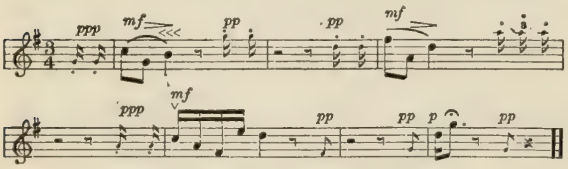
It is the greatest mistake to imagine that playing the piano, or some other instrument, or singing, makes

a person musical in the best sense. It is certainly not musical education, for the word education stands for something much broader and much deeper. A knowledge of harmony freely given to those who wish to take advantage of the privilege would help wonderfully to develop a musically appreciative nation. In fact, it seems that to fill in at the top by importing great artists and giving symphony concerts to audiences incapable of fully appreciating the works is very much like trying to put a mountain-peak on stilts. The mountain-peak needs a good foundation on which to rest. The concerts will be confined to few localities and to those who have the most money until the nation generally is educated to a degree of appreciation which will bring good music into greater demand and make it accessible to the masses.

THE SONG OF THE THRUSH.

ONE of the most interesting papers of its kind that has recently appeared in any American magazine is Mr. Theodore Clarke Smith's article entitled "Song-Forms of the Thrush," in the *Atlantic Monthly* for June. In this article, Mr. Smith gives the results of his observations among various types of thrushes in the New England States and Canada.

To record with exactitude the notes of the singers, is not an easy matter ; but after a number of experiments with the pitch-pipe, the writer was finally enabled to record a number of song-forms which he heard in Ohio, Massachusetts, and Quebec. Many of the wood-thrushes, he says, use only three or four phrases, and only a few have five or six. The first, here reproduced,



SONG OF THE RAVINE WOOD-THRUSH.

is a typical example of a song with four phrases. It is described as the song of the ravine wood-thrush, and the writer explains :
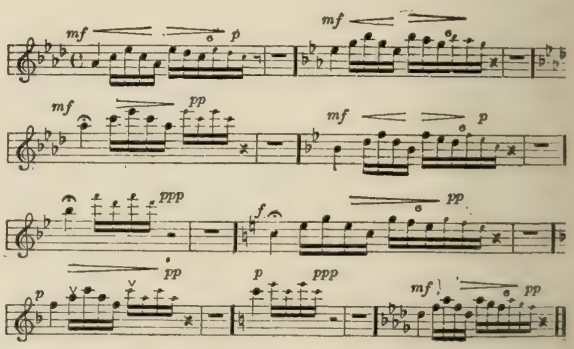
Of course, it does not pretend to give the actual sounds, or to enable one unfamiliar with the bird to reproduce the song, for the timbre—the unique, individual wood-thrush voice—is not to be hinted at by such means. All it does is to symbolize roughly the tones of the musical scale to which the thrush approximated.

It was more difficult, the writer says, to study the songs of the hermit-thrushes, because these birds are not only much shyer than the wood-thrushes, but are more restless, and though they will sing with untiring persistence for an hour and more at a stretch, and at all times of the day, they often change from tree to tree while in song. Then, also, they are not gregarious, as the wood-thrushes are, and to get acquainted with them meant tramping through wide stretches of pastures and forests or rowing many miles along the shores of lakes.

Each hermit-thrush which the writer heard seems to have from eight to eleven separate phrases, and these, unlike the figures of the wood-thrush, are in several different keys, and all approximately of the same form. The typical hermit-thrush theme is described as consisting of a long opening note, followed by two or more groups of rapid notes higher on the scale ; each of the phrases is similar in form, the only difference being that each begins on a different note, which, however, is invariably deliberate, loud, and penetrating, and therefore easy to determine with the pitch-pipe.

As an example of the song of a hermit-thrush, that described as the song of the camp-thrush is here reproduced. Mr. Smith says, in reference to it :

The contrast in form between this and the wood-thrush's song is obvious. Instead of from three to five unlike phrases forming part of a broken melody, there are nine phrases, all similar in form, not melodic, but thematic, in character.



THE CAMP HERMIT-THRUSH.

Mr. Smith sums up by saying that beneath an apparently haphazard utterance he found clear signs of permanent preferences in each bird.

Like the wood-thrush, the hermit tried to produce continued variety, without repetition of phrases near the same pitch, and without violent contrasts. It will be seen that most of the sequences are in related keys, and when the bird varies from flats to sharps the change is made easy by the form.

The contrasts of pitch were aided by those of timbre. The lowest phrases were generally round and hollow, not very loud, but exquisitely finished in delivery, uttered with deliberation and spirit, clear and rich, after pauses even longer than the wood-thrush's.

On one memorable occasion, fine singers of the two species sang in full voice not over fifty yards apart; and, while I drank in the sounds, it seemed to me that the superior beauty of the wood-thrush's best tones were undeniable. . . . But in song-form, in execution, and in general effect the contrast was undeniably, it seemed to me, in favor of the hermit-thrush. His long opening note in each phrase swelled gradually, the first group of rapid notes came louder, like a sparkling shower, and the next one diminished, fading away into a silvery whisper. When the two sang together, the wood-thrush's phrases seemed beautiful, but fragmentary.

Through the liquid notes of the wood-thrush, the steady, swinging phrases of the hermit-thrush pierced their way, now high and clear, now long and ringing, always individual, strong, delicate, and aspiring. He was the master artist of the northern woods.

JOHN BURROUGHS ON ANIMAL INSTINCT.

THE problem that has so persistently puzzled naturalists and philosophers for many years,—the distinction between animal and brute intelligence,—forms the subject of some interesting remarks by John Burroughs in the August number of *Harper's*. Mr. Burroughs' view is, that while animals have keen perception,—keener, indeed, in many respects than ours,—they form no conceptions. They have no power of comparing one thing with another. Living entirely in and through their senses, they are strangers to all that inner world of reflection, comparison, and reason which to the human mind is always open. As Mr. Burroughs puts it, animals have sense-memory, sense-intelligence, and they profit in many ways by experience, but they have not soul-memory or rational intelligence. Men and the lower animals share in common the fundamental emotions and appetites, such as fear, anger, love, hunger, jealousy, cunning, pride, and play. But to man alone belongs the world of thought and thought-experience, and the emotions that go with it. If we can conceive of the psychic world as divided into two planes, one upon the other, the plane of sense and the plane of spirit, we must regard the lower animals as living in the plane of sense, but, as Mr. Burroughs believes, "only now and then just breaking for a moment into the higher plane." Man also starts in the world of sense, but he rises into the plane of spirit, and here lives his proper life. He is emancipated in the world of sense in a way that beasts are not.

Mr. Burroughs would not draw a hard-and-fast line between animal and human psychology. In his opinion, instinct is undoubtedly modified by intelligence, and intelligence is often prompted or guided by instinct. For example, when the fox resorts to various tricks to outwit and delay the hounds, he exercises a kind of intelligence,—the lower form which we call cunning,—and he is prompted to this by an instinct of self-preservation. When the birds set up a hue and cry about a hawk or an owl and boldly attack him, they show intelligence in a simpler form,—the intelligence which recognizes its enemies, prompted, again, by the instinct of self-preservation.

Because man is half animal, Mr. Burroughs declines to accept the conclusion that the animal is half man.

ADMIRAL CERVERA'S ACCOUNT OF THE BATTLE OF SANTIAGO.

IN the *Nuova Antologia* (Rome), Admiral Cervera, in the course of an interview with Felice Santini, as reported by the latter, gives an account of the battle of Santiago. The admiral says that on the first breaking out of hostilities his squadron consisted of four cruisers, partially and very insufficiently protected. The gross tonnage of the squadron was about seven thousand. They were the *Infanta Maria Teresa*, the flagship; the *Viscaya*, *Almiranto Oquendo*, and the *Cristobal Colon*, which last was built in Italy and was the best ship in the command, as well as the most effective in action. "It would have dealt some hard blows to the powerful North American squadron if her revolving towers at stem and stern had not unfortunately been left unprovided with the four great guns which they were intended to carry."

Under these conditions, aggravated by an insufficient armament, a scanty supply of provisions, and crews too small in number and enfeebled by the circumstances of the voyage, but still full of courage, I received orders to weigh anchor at Cadiz for Cape Verde, thus running the risk of being chased by the numerous and powerful

United States cruisers. At Cape Verde I was to await orders, and was to take under my command the seven torpedo-boat destroyers which, in the opinion of the government and of my deluded country, Spain, would work miracles and make victory certain. However, I found them in such a wretched condition that I could only avail myself of the services of two, the *Pluton* and the *Furor*, which as soon as we reached the open sea we were obliged to take in tow, with no slight hindrance to the cruisers and great delay to our voyage, and curtailment of all liberty in tactic and strategic maneuver.

Admiral Cervera declares that he had intimated to the government of Spain before leaving Cadiz the weak condition of the squadron in an official report forwarded to the Spanish war office. "But public opinion, with all its misconceptions, brought pressure to bear upon the government. I received a second peremptory order to start, and I had no alternative but to obey." Of the voyage, he says:

When I reached Cape Verde, I found neither the provisions I was in need of, the coal that was an absolute necessity of the voyage, nor any means of completing my armament. I merely found awaiting me instructions to force an entrance into Santiago de Cuba, which port was known, both in Madrid and in all the world, to be strictly blockaded by the numerous and powerful ironclads of Admiral Sampson. The catastrophe of our voyage may easily be imagined. The enemy was awaiting us at the entrance of the harbor. By good luck, the very audacity of the orders given me was such that the enemy was for a moment off their guard. They had been unable to imagine that we would attempt to enter Santiago, which it was so easy for them to blockade, and I thus was enabled to execute a somewhat difficult and singular maneuver. We made our way with all our lights covered, for I hadn't even a swift scouting cruiser, officers and men standing at their posts ready for action, husbanding our fuel with the most rigorous economy, continually exercising our men, with eye and mind ever on the watch, and, although weak and utterly outnumbered, eager to try the arbitrament of battle. At last, eluding the cruisers of our powerful enemy, we succeeded in safely entering the narrow passage of Santiago harbor.

THE BATTLE OF THE FLEETS.

The admiral describes the dismay with which he subsequently received orders to rush into the lion's mouth by sailing out of Santiago, and thus describes the one-sided battle which ensued:

The enemy was soon advised of our movements, and kept out of range of our land batteries, moving at half speed, in expectation of our appearance at the harbor-mouth. I quickly shaped my course toward the hostile squadron, and was the first to open fire, which was returned with terrible effect. Our bridges, decks, and towers were soon crowded with the dead and wounded. The enormous projectiles tore asunder the sides of our vessels, setting them on fire, and dealing death on every side. My ships, which even if they had been in normal condition,—and they were far from being so, except as regards the courage of those who manned them,—would have stood only as one to five against the enemy, did not for one moment relax their useless fire. The Americans had only one wounded, while I, quite at the mercy of the enemy, whose superior speed easily overtook me, signaled to my ships, now that hope of escape was passed, to hug the shore and wreck their vessels there, rather than allow them to be captured.

In a short time what the admiral calls the "vain sacrifice" was consummated.

We had paid for our effort by the best blood of Castile. Three hundred of our men were dead, some of them drowned, others burned—reduced to tinder—and a lesser number wounded. When once the vessels went ashore, they became a helpless target of the enemy's fire. I and my captain were the last to fling ourselves into the water from the deck of the *Infanta Maria Teresa*, which, like the other ships, was on fire, though the flag of Spain still flew at its peak. The survivors were at last rescued from the waves and made prisoners by the Americans.

THE ELEPHANT AS A MACHINE.

THE elephant is not often thought of as a substitute for a traction engine; but in India and Ceylon it is the custom every year to capture large numbers of these beasts in order to utilize them in transporting heavy materials. In *Cassier's Magazine* for July, M. Barakatullah shows how adaptable the elephant is for this purpose. In the case of a newly tamed elephant, his first employment is in treading clay in a brick-field, or in drawing a wagon in double harness with a tame companion. But when it comes to moving heavy material, the sagacity of the elephant puts his labor upon a distinctly higher plane than that of all other animals. For instance, in an unopened country, the services of the elephant in dragging or piling timber, or in transporting stone for the construction of walls and approaches to bridges, are of great importance. While employed in such work, the elephant, according to this writer, seems to know very well how to take care of himself. He may be put in dangerous positions, as in road-construction along the face of steep declivities, where there is danger of falling over the precipice or of rocks slipping down from above; and in such instances it is said that the measures to which the elephant resorts are the most judicious and reasonable that could be devised. The elephant is superior to the horse in that he seems on all occasions to comprehend the purpose and

object that he is expected to promote. Hence, he voluntarily executes a variety of details without any guidance whatever from his keeper.

To get a weighty stone out of a hollow, the elephant will kneel down so as to apply its head to move the stone upward; then, steadying the stone with one foot till it can raise itself, it will apply a fold of its trunk to shift the stone in place and fit it accurately in position. This done, the elephant will step around to view the stone on either side and adjust it with due precision. The animal appears to gauge its own task with its eye, and to form a judgment as to whether the weight is proportioned to its strength. If doubtful of its power, it hesitates, and if urged against its will, it roars and shows temper.

In dragging and piling felled timber, it is said that the elephant does better work than even dock laborers. In clearing openings through forest lands, the mere movement of elephants through jungles and brushwood will throw them down and make a passageway.

WALL STREET AS VIEWED BY HENRY CLEWS.

NOW that the era of speculation and inflation that followed the second election of President McKinley has been succeeded in Wall Street by a period of conservatism and calm, it is a good time to review the natural developments of the past five years, and to gather from such a survey some indications of the future. This is the task undertaken by Mr. Henry Clews, in the August number of the *Cosmopolitan*. Mr. Clews recalls how the defeat of Bryanism, in 1900, started the fever for speculation on the New York Stock Exchange, which gained in intensity until it affected both the large and small capitalists and caused the formation of hundreds of industrial combinations and the overcapitalization of hundreds already in existence. He shows how the great capitalists of Wall Street took advantage of these conditions to manipulate stocks on a grand scale, and how the larger public, as usual, was victimized by these operations.

This period of inflation was first checked in the fall of 1902. At that time, the banks and conservative Wall Street operators, represented by Mr. Clews himself, gave emphatic warnings of the common danger, and no doubt by their course prevented a most serious collapse in business. Then came a long period of decline, in which hundreds of thousands of people were impoverished or ruined. All classes of speculators were involved in this depression; but the country as a whole suffered no such disturbance as occurred in 1893 or 1873. Mr. Clews describes the Northern Pacific panic of May 9, 1901, the capture of the control of the Louisville & Nashville Railway by John W. Gates and its redemption by the J. P. Morgan company, acting in the interests of the Louisville & Nashville and the Southern Railway companies, and other interesting episodes of the period of inflation. The liquidation and depression of 1903 he regards as a natural reaction from the preceding prolonged boom period. In that year, and in 1904, the center of extravagant speculation has been the cotton market.



Photograph by Aimé Dupont, New York.

MR. HENRY CLEWS.

In concluding his article, Mr. Clews notes the change that has come over sentiment and opinion in Wall Street during this eventful period of inflation and speculation. He says that both Wall Street and the outside public have lost the faith they had in many of the stock-market leaders, the men who were once followed blindly in their schemes of inflation and regarded as omnipotent in their execution. Furthermore,

Wall Street and the public, he says, have also lost faith in all new ventures and new railway and industrial bond and stock issues, as well as in the good judgment of the promoters and corporations concerned. Mr. Clews believes that this great change from "blind credulity and inordinate inflation to discriminating distrust and severe contraction" is exerting a wholesome effect in paving the way to a sounder, safer, and generally better state of things both in and out of Wall Street. The one bad sign he notes on the horizon at the present time is the borrowing by great corporations at from 5 to 6 per cent. on notes running from one to three years. While there is danger in this, Mr. Clews does not think that on the whole there is anything in the situation to occasion pessimism. Wall Street reflects our material progress.

THE TRUSTS FROM THE INVESTOR'S POINT OF VIEW.

IN the discussion of the trust question, comparatively little has been said regarding the proposed benefits to the investing public to be derived from governmental regulation. Mr. Charles A. Conant, writing in the current number of the *International Quarterly*, considers the protection of the investor, as well as the consumer, with special reference to the proposed extension of federal control over State corporations. The corporation laws of States where corporate business is largest already seek to protect the investor against investments in securities which have not the value they purport to have by additional guarantees that dividends which are not earned shall not be paid, and that proper provision shall be made by setting aside reserves in fat times for the paying of dividends in lean times. This protection, so far as it goes, is proper and desirable; but Mr. Conant points out that just so far as the Government relieves the citizen of the obligation of looking out for himself, it promotes a condition of dependence upon the state which is detrimental to genuine economic progress. No body of law yet devised can be depended upon by investors to protect them against the consequences of their ignorance in making investments. Mr. Conant therefore takes the ground that the thing to do is not to hamper legitimate corporations by new laws, but to teach the public to judge investments with discrimination.

WHAT THE INVESTOR SHOULD KNOW.

One of the first lessons that Mr. Conant would have the investor taught is the discrimination between different types of investment. He should learn that bonds have a prior lien over preferred stock, and preferred stock over common stock.

He should learn that these distinctions are necessary to meet the requirements of different types of investors,—the holder of trust funds, who should invest only in bonds and tested preferred stocks; the man who is willing to take slight risks and therefore may invest in preferred stocks of slightly lower reputation; and the man who for the sake of possible large gains is willing and able to take large risks, and may therefore invest properly in the common stocks of untried "industrials" and undeveloped mines. The investor should learn the lesson that he cannot reasonably expect all these qualities to be combined in one investment,—that the securities which are absolutely safe are not usually the ones which are sold the cheapest and from which the largest returns may be expected. If the thousands of people who have within the past three years invested in some highly speculative common stocks and have seen their prices decline 75 per cent. in the market have been advised by competent financiers that such stock was a safe investment for trust funds or for those who could not afford to lose, they have just cause of complaint against their advisers; but if they had possessed a pittance of financial knowledge they should have known that the common stock of an untested enterprise, quoted far below par, could not in the nature of the case possess the character of a trust investment. It is difficult to see how legislation could protect such a type of investors from the consequences of their ignorance.

WHAT CAN "PUBLICITY" DO?

As to the question whether further "publicity" would be of value to the investor, Mr. Conant seems somewhat skeptical. Under the English law, there has been "publicity" in the affairs of stock companies since 1862; yet this has not prevented gigantic frauds, or repeated losses by reckless speculators. In our country, the Steel Corporation makes admirable quarterly reports, and semi-official estimates of its earnings at much more frequent intervals. Would greater publicity than exists to-day protect the reckless speculator against himself? Does such a man lose money because he cannot get information which he honestly seeks? When he gets a "tip" to "sell Pennsylvania," does he proceed at once to examine all the available data regarding the finances, policy, and future earning capacity of the Pennsylvania Railroad? Mr. Conant concludes that "publicity" in certain cases where there is now secrecy would undoubtedly benefit a few, but it would be the few who now profit most by careful study of values.

UNPUNISHED COMMERCIAL CRIME.

IT has often been remarked that our American system of commercial law, while it continues to punish the elementary crimes easy of detection, because made familiar to succeeding generations, breaks down utterly in the face of those newer offenses which have been made possible by the changed conditions of modern life. So well understood is this fact that the American public has already ceased to expect a criminal prosecution in cases where rascality of huge proportions is developed under cover of "high finance." This new type of crime is the subject of a vigorously worded article by George N. Alger in the August number of the *Atlantic*. This writer shows that in our great cities there is an increasing volume of business done which is either fraudulent in itself or which depends upon fraudulent means for a large part of the financial success that it often obtains. He specifies, for example, fraud in obtaining credit by falsehood; fraud in concealing and conveying property to avoid the just demands of creditors; fraud in stealing trade-marks and trade-names; fraud in the substitution, adulteration, and misrepresentation of goods; fraud in bribing, "commissions," and "special rebates;" fraud in the promotion, organization, inflation, management, and destruction of corporations.

All these types of fraud, as we are all aware, are perpetrated continually, and, in a majority of cases, without any criminal prosecution resulting. To show how prevalent are these iniquitous schemes, we have only to consult the advertising pages of almost any of our great metropolitan dailies. One matter that Mr. Alger touches upon in his article has generally escaped treatment in "reform" literature. He alludes to the subject of "business graft,"—a kind of fraud by which the purchasing agent of a railroad grows rich on secret commissions for everything which, through him, his company buys. Mr. Alger's point is not that such frauds exist, for every one knows that they exist and flourish luxuriantly. But the significant thing is that in this country we do not think of these modern forms of criminal business as proper subjects for treatment by criminal law; often we do not consider them as crimes at all. Mr. Alger insists that crimes of a more intellectual type, and especially those developed by the business methods and expedients of highly successful financiers, affect the moral welfare of the community as a whole more seriously than the simple and obvious forms which are committed by the common criminal. In other words, he would have our criminal courts perform the functions of health boards in preserving the community from moral epidemics.

Which, for example, is really the greater enemy of American society, the Mulberry Bend Italian who in a fit of jealous frenzy murders his wife or the promoter of a heavily watered corporation who, by a fraudulent prospectus, induces the foolish innocent to lose thousands upon thousands of honestly earned dollars? At the crime of the Italian, the moral sense of the community is shocked. Even his poor neighbors in his own tenement regard his offense with horror. The sphere of influence of such a murder is comparatively small, and the whole machinery of the law is immediately turned upon the criminal. If he flee, the police of the whole country aid in the search for him. He is quickly captured, quickly tried, and lifelong imprisonment is the penalty. To the promoter whose successful operations enable him to live a life of ostentatious luxury, and with whom reputable men are apparently not unwilling to associate, the criminal law ordinarily has nothing to say. As to the young men who see him living in elegance, with the profusion of worldly goods his methods have gained for him, who enjoy the hospitality of his automobile or his yacht,—is it surprising that they should learn to think that there is a better way of getting money than by earning it, or that they also should become earnest students of that all too prevalent form of business success whose triumph consists in making plenty of money and keeping out of jail?

THE UNITED STATES AND MEXICO: A CONTRAST.

Our own unwillingness as a people to punish severely criminals of good social standing who have respectable friends is well illustrated in a story which Mr. Alger attributes to Recorder Goff, of New York City. This story was related by the Recorder in the course of an address before a club of lawyers, in which he was making a point that, in criminal law, the present American tendency is to protect the criminal at the expense of society.

"I was in the city of Mexico," he said, "some years ago, and went through the great city prison in company with the Mexican attorney-general. As we passed along, observing the prisoners, all of them engaged in hard manual labor, one of them, of lighter complexion than the rest, attracted my attention. 'That man looks like an American,' I remarked. The attorney-general smiled, and said that he was. I then inquired what he was there for, and from the attorney-general's reply, and from a subsequent conversation which I had with the man himself, I learned the following facts: Some years before, in a central State in our own country, two men had been partners in a general real-estate business. They lent money for clients, and had, in addition, the funds of many lodges and fraternal societies in their keeping. They misappropriated this money. Finally, after having exhausted the means of concealment, and having reached a point where discovery was practically certain, they debated together what they should do. What they decided upon was this: they had stolen in

the neighborhood of one hundred thousand dollars, and they divided what remained of it; one of them fled to Mexico with his share of the booty, and immediately took steps to become a Mexican citizen, so that he could not be extradited for trial in the United States; the other stayed at home. After the crime was discovered, the one who stayed at home was indicted and tried. He fought desperately in the courts, but was finally convicted, with a strong recommendation by the jury for clemency. Powerful influences were brought to bear in his behalf, and he received a light sentence of less than two years in prison, which was materially reduced by good behavior. His prison labor consisted in keeping the prison books.

"His partner in crime, who fled to Mexico, was apprehended there, and his extradition was asked for. He had, however, become a Mexican citizen, and under the treaty between Mexico and the United States could not be extradited. Unfortunately for him, this application for extradition brought him to the attention of the Mexican authorities. He could not be sent to the United States for trial, for he was a Mexican citizen, but he could be and he was prosecuted as a Mexican in Mexico for bringing stolen money into the republic, was sentenced to ten years at hard labor, and was serving that sentence when I saw him. He had about seven years more to serve before he obtained that freedom which his equally guilty American partner had then been enjoying for more than a year."

The instance related by Recorder Goff goes to show that the Mexican authorities, in this case, at least, had a profound sense of their obligation to the community.

CONDITIONS OF IMMUNITY FROM CHOLERA.

UNDER the title "Über Cholera-Immunity," Dr. Alfred Wolff, of Berlin, gives a report in the last number of the *Biochemisches Centralblatt* (Leipsic) of some interesting investigations into cholera, and describes the mode of action of a highly valuable serum upon the cholera vibrio in the peritoneum of the guinea-pig upon which experiments were made.

Dr. Wolff believes that by carefully conducted experiments it is possible to follow out the nature of the complicated processes which bring about the condition of immunity from any particular disease. In cases of cholera infection he found a wholly unknown poisonous element acting, which is produced by the cholera vibrio, the recognized cause of the disease. From the experiments made upon guinea-pigs, it was demonstrated that a certain definite amount of the poison produced fatal results, and that this fatal dose of the cholera poison kills quicker than the fatal dose of the bacteria which produce it. A concentrated solution acts more rapidly than a proportionate amount of a dilute solution.

When a disease-producing germ, or the poison which it forms, is introduced into the body of an animal, it calls forth a resistant element in the blood which neutralizes the poison and dissolves the germ. The question of the nature of the immune element is an old one, and for a long time efforts have been made to isolate it from the components of the blood. The verifying of recent experiments has shown that the element which produces immunity is combined with the globulin of the blood, and some of it is combined with the englobulin, but the albuminous matter in the blood is perfectly inactive toward cholera. This indicates that the immune element is not chemically united with the albumen, but only mechanically mingled with it. The immune element is destroyed by treatment with sulphate of ammonia.

Experiments show that the so-called *anticorps* on immune elements of normal animals, and on those that have been made immune by treatment, are apparently identical, but the immune elements have important chemical differences among themselves in different species of animals. And further, the same animal shows great differences in its degree of immunity at different times.

The difference between the reaction of a normal animal to the vibrio of cholera and the reaction of an animal that has previously been made immune by treatment with cholera serum lies in the much more rapid dissolving of the bacteria by the blood of the immune animal.

It should be noted that, as a matter of fact, an antitoxic immunity to poisons emanating from disease germs really exists, but, on the other hand, immunity in the true sense, against the disintegrated substance of bacterial bodies, and especially albuminous material, does not exist.

The cholera vibrio is not directly destructive to the immune element of the blood. This element is freed from its loose chemical combination with other substances when a fresh supply of the cholera vibrio is introduced into the tissue and dissolves the vibrio by chemical action. Probably the immune element is not destroyed as a result of its work in dissolving the bacteria, but is again set free and carried about by the circulation of the blood and actively continues the destruction of bacteria by dissolving them.

BRIEFER NOTES ON TOPICS IN THE PERIODICALS.

SUBJECTS TREATED IN THE POPULAR AMERICAN MAGAZINES.

The Political Campaign.—In nearly all the current numbers of the American magazines and reviews, articles on the pending Presidential contest are distinctly noticeable by their absence. Aside from the editorial review and forecast contained in the *World's Work's* department entitled "The March of Events," Mr. Henry Litchfield West's survey in the *Forum*, and Mr. Joseph B. Bishop's *chronique* contributed to the current number of the *International Quarterly*, only one magazine article of the month among our exchanges has any specific reference to American political conditions of the present year; that article is the vigorous exposure of "The Enemies of the Republic," by Mr. Lincoln Steffens, in the August number of *McClure's*. In that paper, Mr. Steffens deals particularly with the triumph of the reform wing of the Republican party in Illinois and its parallel in the advancement of the Folk movement among the Democrats of Missouri. Mr. Steffens characterizes Mr. Deneen, the Republican gubernatorial candidate in Illinois, as the Folk of Chicago. But he does not overlook the fact that a "deal" was entered into between the Yates and Deneen forces, although he declares that the terms of the transaction were distinctly honorable. It is Mr. Steffens' belief that the ring forces have been overcome at last in Chicago Republican circles, and that a movement is well under way for the complete regeneration of government, municipal and State.

Topics Suggested by It.—Representative J. Adam Bede contributes to *Leslie's Monthly Magazine* for August an interesting running sketch of the most famous "spellbinders" now on the American platform. Mr. Bede makes some entertaining comment on the representative campaign speakers of both the great parties,—such men as Mr. Bourke Cockran, of New York; Representative Hepburn, of Iowa; Champ Clark, of Missouri; Senator Nelson, of Minnesota, and a long line of political orators whose reputation is State rather than national in scope. On the whole, it is a timely contribution to the literature of American politics.—In *Munsey's* for August, Mr. R. K. Munkittrick, of *Judge*, writes entertainingly on the important contributions made by our cartoonists to the gayety of nations, especially in Presidential years, since Thomas Nast's time. No one is better qualified than Mr. Munkittrick to outline the methods of American cartoonists, or the difficulties under which they labor.—The editor of the *Cosmopolitan*, Mr. John Brisben Walker, prefaces his August number with a note of warning apropos of the alarming prevalence of bribery in American elections. In Mr. Walker's view, it is not enough that heavy penalties for bribery at the polls should be inscribed on our statute books; in every town, he thinks, there should be a society whose business it would be to pursue the briber and the bribed until the doors of the penitentiary closed upon them. As for absence from the polls, Mr. Walker holds that the only recognized excuse should be either a certificate of ill-health or certified absence from the county.—In the July number of the *North American Review*, Mrs. Ida Husted Harper presents the familiar arguments for woman suffrage. The same magazine contains "A Foreign Estimate of Mr. Roosevelt," by an "Anglo-American." This writer's comments are extremely favorable to the President, and even laudatory in tone. He declares, in conclusion, that "England can hardly conceive the possibility of Mr. Roosevelt's defeat next November. He towers above all his Democratic rivals except Mr. Cleveland, who has proved himself an administrator of absolutely the first rank. Englishmen simply take it for granted that Americans will think twice and thrice before they part with such a man."—Mr. Horatio W. Seymour outlines, in the *North American*, the policy of what he terms "Democratic Expansion;" that is, the rapid extension of Democratic territorial government for every foot of soil belonging to the United States, with the view to the possible creation at some future time of self-governing States. He declares that Democrats should cease to heed the "'emotional gentlemen' who favor an ignoble surrender of territories bought with American blood and treasure."

About the Far East.—Most of the magazines have either said their say about the Russo-Japanese war or are waiting to get descriptive articles written at the front. Very little appears in the August numbers to indicate that any war is going on in the far East. There are, however, a few articles of cognate interest suggested by the war. Notable among these is an important paper on "The Secret of Japan's Strength," by Harold Bolce, in the August *Booklovers*. This article directs our attention to the fact that while Japan is rapidly advancing to the front as a first-class fighting nation, she has in reserve an army of thirty million farmers, who are even now gathering ample harvests in her diminutive fields. With less than nineteen thousand square miles of arable land, Japanese farmers have built up the most remarkable agricultural nation the world has known. The better to illustrate the limitations under which Japanese agriculture has been developed, this writer asks us to imagine all the tillable acres of Japan as merged into one field. The entire perimeter of such a field could be skirted by a man in an automobile, traveling fifty miles an hour, in the period of eleven hours. It is not patriotism alone that has accomplished Japan's agricultural triumph. What has really made Japan self-sustaining and powerful has been nothing more or less than scientific skill diligently applied in husbandry. For example, while the experimental farms maintained by the United States number fifty-six, Japan has nearly two hundred. No explanation of Japanese success as a rising world-power will be adequate which does not take account of

her remarkable skill and diligence in the tilling of the soil.—The *Chautauquan* for August contains "A Reading Journey Through the Japanese Empire," by Anna C. Hartshorne, author of "Japan and Her People," who is a resident of Tokio. This "Reading Journey" comprises six articles, entitled "Kyoto, the Heart of Japan," "From Kyoto to Kamakura," "Tokio," "The Provinces," "The Hokkaido and Back to Kobé," and "The Southern Islands and Formosa." These articles are fully illustrated from original photographs, and are supplemented by an exhaustive and carefully annotated bibliography on Japanese history, art, and life.—The August number of *Success* has an instructive article by Martin J. Foss on "What to Read Concerning Russia and Japan." The same magazine contains an article by Shunzo Murakami entitled "Our Little Brother in Japan."—In the *North American Review* for July, Mr. Archibald Colquhoun gives an exposition of Japanese policy in China, showing what has already been accomplished in the way of reforming Chinese institutions and changing the Chinese attitude toward the Japanese. His article is suggestive as to the possible outcome of the present war.

The World's Fair at St. Louis.—The August number of the *World's Work* is almost wholly devoted to the Louisiana Purchase Exposition. It is a beautifully illustrated number, valuable alike to those who intend to visit the exposition later in the season, to those who have already visited it, and to the large number of interested stay-at-homes. There are articles on "The New Epoch in the Use of Power," by Bernard Meiklejohn; "Transportation as a Measure of Progress," by Isaac F. Marcosson; "The People as an Exhibit," by Walter H. Page: "The Philippine Peoples," by Alfred C. Newell; "A Measure of German Progress," by James Glen; "The Exhibit of Pictures and Sculpture," by Charles H. Caffin; and "The Inspiring Display of the States," by members of the *World's Work* staff, besides a number of briefer articles on various phases of the fair and lessons to be derived therefrom. No other magazine has attempted so elaborate or comprehensive a treatment of the fair; but in the August *Century*, André Castaigne contributes an article on "The Pictures of the Louisiana Purchase Exposition," while in *Leslie's*, Mr. Grant Richardson writes on "The Men Who Made the Fair;" Mr. Charles F. Drayton on "What It Costs to See the Fair," and there is an unsigned paper giving a glimpse of the whole exposition.

Literary Topics.—Among purely literary themes, the Hawthorne centenary easily holds first place in the July and August magazines. We have quoted at some length in our department of "Leading Articles of the Month" from the papers appearing in the July *Critic* and the August *Atlantic*, respectively. The *Critic* is, indeed, a Hawthorne number, publishing in this one July number not less than ten Hawthorne articles. In the *North American Review* for July there is also an important appreciation of Hawthorne from the pen of Mr. Hamilton W. Mabie. Among articles of distinctly literary interest in the August *Atlantic* are "A Selborne Pilgrimage," by Cornelius Weygandt, and "A Literary Blackmailer of the Sixteenth Century," by Paul Van Dyke, the latter title referring to Pietro Aratinno, the once famous Italian writer, whose life, bad as it was, seems to have been grossly misrepresented by his contemporaries and successors. Mr. Weygandt, a faithful student of Gilbert White, gives a detailed description of the surroundings of Selborne as they appear at the present day.—"Society's Writing Craze" is described in *Munsey's* for August by James L. Ford. He states that a remarkable craze for authorship is now raging among the women of New York's fashionable set. His estimate is that at the present time there are at least four thousand aspirants for literary fame among these devotees of fashion.—In the *Booklovers Magazine* for August, Mr. T. M. Parrott contributes an appreciation of Israel Zangwill as a playwright. In the opinion of this writer, Mr. Zangwill has these essential qualifications for dramatic composition: ability to tell a story, power of characterization, and the gift of lively and entertaining dialogue. It only remains for him to learn the tricks of the playwright's trade.—In the *International Quarterly* there appears a thoughtful essay by Arthur Symons on "Coleridge."—The literary paper in the *Forum*, by Herbert W. Horwill, is devoted to "The Art of Letter Writing."

Art in the Magazines.—The August installment of Miss Edith Wharton's descriptions of Italian villas in the *Century* is devoted to the ancient country-places of Lombardy.—In the *Booklovers* for August, Mr. Andrew Wright Crawford writes on "The Promise of Civic Beauty," describing several of the most notable of the outer park systems of America. Of these, the metropolitan system of Boston has acknowledged pre-eminence, but much progress has also been made, of late years, in New York, Hartford, Chicago, San Francisco, and Washington. The progress made in each of the cities is summarized in Mr. Crawford's article, which is appropriately illustrated.—In *Munsey's* for August, Mr. Robert Scott Osborne describes the Stanford Memorial Church at Palo Alto, Cal., one of the most remarkable pieces of ecclesiastical architecture in the country.—Some striking pieces of color printing appear in the *Booklovers* in connection with a page of text devoted to "Four French Painters of To-day,"—Henner, Sinibaldi, Laurens, and Agache.—Perriton Maxwell has some interesting comment in the *Metropolitan* for August on "The Portraiture of Children," illustrated by a number of notable paintings, which are reproduced in connection with the text.

Nature Out-of-Doors.—Among the interesting natural-history papers in the August *Outing* are "Blue Fish and Blue Waters," by Edwyn Sandys; "The Trail of the Jaguar," by Caspar Whitney, and the usual department of "Natural History," by John Burroughs.—We have quoted in our department of "Leading Articles of the Month" from a paper by Mr. Burroughs, in *Harper's*, entitled "Some Natural History Doubts and Conclusions." The same writer continues, in the *Century* for August, his criticism of those nature writers who persist in attributing to animals conduct and abilities which he deems incompatible with animal nature. For the truth about animals, Mr. Burroughs commends us, not to Romanes, Jesse, or Maichelet, "but to the patient, honest Darwin; to such calm, keen, and philosophical investigators as Lloyd Morgan, and to the books of such sportsmen as St. John, or to our own candid and wide-awake Theodore Roosevelt,—men capable of disinterested observation, without any theories of animals to uphold."—The *World To-Day* (Chicago) has a suggestive paper on "How to Go Into the Woods," by the Rev. William J. Long.

Travel Notes.—A descriptive article on Tangier, the Moroccan metropolis, to which attention has lately been drawn by the Perdicaris case, appears in the *Metropolitan Magazine* for August. Several of the illustrations drawn by the author, Mr. Charles Wellington Furlong, to accompany his text are both spirited and informing.—"An Ascent of Mount Baker," by George C. Cantwell, in the August *Outing*, gives a thrilling account of a difficult piece of mountaineering in our far Northwest. In the same magazine appears Mr. W. C. Jameson Reid's story of his sojourn among the Tibetans,—a people whom not many English-speaking travelers have encountered on their native heath.—Tutuila, our Samoan island, is described in the *Atlantic Monthly* for August by President David Starr Jordan and Mr. Vernon L. Kellogg. It is truly astonishing that so little interest has been taken in this American possession, even among our "expansionists."—An American insular possession far better known in this country is described in Albert Bigelow Paine's article on "The New Coney Island" (illustrated), in the August *Century*.—The same magazine has a charming travel sketch by Minnie Norton Wood, entitled "Summer Splendor of the Chinese Court."—Alvan F. Sanborn relates, in the *Booklovers* for August, some of his experiences in tramping through Normandy.

Science, Pure and Applied.—Doubtless, the month's most important scientific contribution of a popular character is Sir Oliver Lodge's paper on "Electric Theory of Matter," in *Harper's* for August. The great physicist confesses that there is as yet no experimental justification for the claim that an atom of matter can be formed out of electricity; but he looks forward to the time when some laboratory workers "will exhibit matter newly formed from stuff which is not matter, instead of, as now, only recognizing the transmutation of some preëxisting complex atoms into simpler forms."—"The Campaign Against the Mosquito," by John B. Smith, in the August *Booklovers*, gives a good exposition of the methods pursued in New Jersey in combating the pest.—Professor Dean's article in the *Popular Science Monthly* for July, giving an account of his visit to the Japanese zoölogical station at Misaki, is full of interest and information for the scientific man.

THE SPIRIT OF THE FOREIGN REVIEWS.

The Real Japanese Woman.—Prof. A. Lloyd, who has lived for many years in Japan, contributes to the *Taiyo* (Tokio) a study of the real Japanese woman. Although dainty, delicate, and doll-like, he says, the women of Japan are capable of great heroism. Of examples, he says, four cases seemed to "appeal to my imagination more strongly than the rest. The Empress, who herself rode at the head of her armies and fought in Korea, was, of course, one; but what impressed me more was the instance of the wife of Shibata Katsuie and her women, who preferred to perish with their husbands in the beleaguered castle rather than save their lives, without their husbands, by an appeal to the clemency of their victor. In modern history, I saw the woman who had saved the life of her future husband by hiding him under the mats of her sitting-room, and I once met an old lady who refused to take anesthetics for a most painful operation on the ground that she had when young been obliged to stand by while her own husband and son committed suicide at the command of their lord, and that if she could face that she had no need of chloroform for so trifling a thing as a surgical operation." The war with Russia has shown what Japanese womanhood is capable of in times of national trial.

A Canadian Opinion of the War.—A British colonial opinion of the probable outcome of the war in the far East is thus stated by the *Canadian Magazine* (Toronto): "The most that can be hoped for by pro-Russians is that each side may acknowledge itself unable to subdue the other. Even that would be a great triumph for Japan and a virtual defeat for Russia. It would compel the latter to recognize Japan as at least of collateral authority and importance in all far-Eastern affairs. How can it be hoped that any better than a drawn battle can be looked for from the Russian standpoint? Even if with fearful sacrifices and effort they recover lost ground and drive their foe into the sea, that is as far as they can go. He is still triumphant on that element, and secure in his ocean-girt islands. However bitter the draught may be, the very best issue that Russia can now hope from the contest is a compromise settlement in which she will have to recede from the arrogant position at first assumed. Japan will have to be recognized as possessing, at least, an equal voice with any other power in Asia, and the knowledge that she will always be ready to fight for her interests will make her voice a potent one."

Japan Like Rome?—*Unity and the Minister* (Calcutta) believes that Japan's "steady victory in its conflict with Christian Russia does not prove the superiority of a non-Christian political ideal to a Christian standard, but the inevitable victory of consolidated patriotism over anarchy and misrule." The editor of this Indian journal likens Japan to ancient Rome, but warns her that, without Christianity, she must eventually fall, as did Rome. "The enthusiastic patriotism of the Japs strongly reminds us of that of the Romans of old, who had no other motive to serve their country but that of patriotism. It simply thrills one's heart to hear the story of Japanese love of their country and wonderful instances of their self-sacrifice. Rome's greatness was built upon the patriotism of its citizens, and Japan's rapid strides as a nation are also due to a similar virtue. Patriotism is a noble virtue, no doubt, but it is partial and human, and it cannot endure unless it be tinctured with religion and love of God."

The Yellow Peril of Russian Imagination?—In his monthly record of the war in the far East, Ed. Tallichet, in the *Bibliothèque Universelle* (Lausanne), declares that Russia herself is responsible for any danger that may really exist from the yellow peril. It was she who ill-treated China and forced Japan to spring to arms. China, in any event, is absolutely lost to Russia, he says, because of the bad faith of the latter, which is now recognized in the Celestial Empire. As to the result of the war, it is his belief that Russia will have to

give up Manchuria and content herself with her ancient boundary of the Amur. Japan is best fitted of any nation to help China to work out her destiny; and Russia has enough to do in Siberia to keep her busy. If the empire of the Czar would only understand it, says M. Tallichet, in conclusion, she has enough to keep her busy indefinitely with her own miserable, backward people, without attempting to solve the vast, appalling Chinese problem.

An Appeal by Japanese Socialists.—One of the most earnest, fearless champions of socialism is the weekly organ of the Japanese Socialists, the *Heimin Shimbun* (Tokio). We have already quoted words of cheer in its columns from Japanese Socialists to their brothers in Russia. A recent issue contains an appeal to European and American Socialists to bring about intervention by petitioning their governments. Your interests as well as your principles of humanity, this appeal says, require you to do something at once in the way of bringing about peace. "Your governments, by joint action, ought to compel the two nations to submit the cause to the court of arbitration at The Hague."

The United States of Europe.—In the course of a lecture delivered at the Chicago Arts Institute on European-American relations, M. Anatole Leroy-Beaulieu, the well-known French economist, declared that, while a union of all Europe is still far distant, it is not an impossibility. He said that Europe, being little more than a geographical expression, does not stand for the same idea to Europeans as America does to Americans. Centuries of rivalry and opposing interests, loves, hates, and radical racial differences have made the peoples of Europe mutually suspicious and jealous of their separate national independence. The rivalry of the United States, however, he believes, will be a great factor in bringing about the union of Europe. Religion, democracy, and socialism will be great moving forces. The accomplishment will begin by certain economic union, perhaps by free trade among themselves and tariffs against the rest of the world. An international alliance, with an agreement to reduce the armament of war, will be the next step. M. Leroy-Beaulieu's lecture is reported in full in the *Écho des Deux Mondes* (Chicago).

The Japanese as the Russian Muzhik Sees Them.—A Russian author, the editor of the *Odessy Novosty* (Odessa News), desiring to find out the idea of the Russian peasant concerning the war, made a tour of investigation throughout a number of Russian "governments," among them those of Kursk, Moscow, and Podolia. Among many thousands of muzhiks with whom he spoke about the war, not one knew what was going on in the far East, where Japan is, nor the cause of the hostilities. "The reason we are fighting," said one peasant, "is because the Chinese have revolted and we have to put them down." "You are mistaken," said this editor (the account is reprinted in the *Bibliothèque Universelle*), "we are not fighting the Chinese, but the Japanese." The muzhik laid his finger on the side of his nose and thought. After a moment of reflection, he observed, "To tell the truth, I do not understand it. The good God has willed it that we are orthodox, but the Japanese are of another persuasion. Have you, my good sir, ever seen a Japanese?" When the writer had assured him that he had seen many, the good fellow grew angry. "That is not possible," he said; "one cannot see a Japanese." "Why not?" "Because the Japanese is a little insect, which only lives in the night. Go and look for them, and you will find them hidden in the prickly thickets. It is for this reason that the Japanese have made such trouble for our poor soldiers. They crawl into their boots, suck their blood, and when they have filled themselves, the poor soldier's soul has fled. Now, how can you fight with such little pests as these?"

Is France Unprepared in Asia?—The progress of the far-Eastern war up to the present has thoroughly alarmed a certain high official in the French navy, who contributes anonymously to the *Revue de Paris* an article recounting the lessons which the fighting on sea has so far presented to the world, and expressing grave doubts as to the ability of the French navy, in its present condition, to safeguard the republic's colonial interests. France, he points out, has no naval base worth the name in the far East, and in case of war her fleet would not be able to refit or recoal. Thanks to the Anglo-French agreement, the republic has nothing to fear from the greatest naval power; but this writer strongly advocates the enlargement and improvement of the French Indo-Chinese naval base at Saïgon, in Indo-China. French colonial forces in the far East, he points out, number twenty-six thousand men, of which twelve thousand are Europeans. In case the republic should have to fight England, Japan, or the United States (he apparently believes that Manila is the outpost of an American army of invasion), it would be necessary to increase this force to at least fifty thousand men. He criticises the Russian lack of preparedness, especially at Port Arthur, which, he says, is too small and lacks almost everything. He points out as a curious coincidence that the Russians in Port Arthur are burning Japanese coal, while the Japanese are supplied with the Welsh product. The Russian navy in general he praises, but believes that the imperial naval authorities have not borne in mind sufficiently the difference in climatic conditions, particularly that of humidity, between European Russia and the scene of the war. Of the personnel of the Russian navy, he declares that there is some good technical instruction, but poor general education. Subordinate officers are rather superficially prepared, he declares; mechanicians are too exclusively practical in the lower grades, and too exclusively theoretical in the higher. The subalterns, he also declares, throughout the entire navy, are, in general, too young, and the superior officers too old. Finally, he declares, the Russian sailors do not get enough exercise in squadron, nor enough war maneuvers. Add to these lacks a certain nonchalance, or, if you will, the fatalism of the Slav, and you have the chief causes of the Russian reverses.

One French Pro-Japanese View.—French opinion is not unanimous in its sympathy with Russia, and in attempting to salve the wounds of the republic's ally, M. F. Dubief, a member of the Chamber of Deputies, writing in the *Revue Bleue*, declares that the declaration of war came with as much of a shock to the French Government as it did to the bureaucracy of St. Petersburg. The French, he admits, also underestimated the Japanese, and had no conception of the cleverness, thoroughness, and vigor of their diplomacy. Russia, in her Eastern march, had always been able to

"bluff" Oriental peoples into permitting what she would. There was no reason to expect that Japan would do otherwise. Now that war has been declared, this writer wonders why his countrymen have failed to recognize the bravery of the Japanese people. The heroism of the Japanese battalions, he says, almost passes belief. "Such national enthusiasm, such warlike fury, such absolute contempt of death, has never been seen before." Picturing the disasters which have already come to the Russian armies, and which are likely to come with the fall of Port Arthur, he concludes: "What irony there is in this situation for the imperial initiator of the great peace tribunal at The Hague!"

Spain and Emigration.—Gabriel M. Vergara, a writer in the *Revista Contemporánea* (Madrid), expresses grave fears as to the effects of emigration on the future industrial and economic condition of Spain. He says that climatic conditions have rendered certain portions of the kingdom unfit for habitation, and refers to sections in the central portion which have become almost depopulated owing to droughts. Certain reforms in political methods would be necessary to make the land able to support its original population. The people themselves are forced by destitution to abandon their mother country for some really fertile lands. He believes that some system of colonization can be arranged to check the decline in population and restore Spain to some of the glories of her great past. It is interesting to know that at the time this article was published the three-hundredth jubilee of Don Quixote was being celebrated throughout Spain.



DON QUIXOTE.

(From the painting by Edouard Grützner, to commemorate the three-hundredth anniversary of Cervantes' death.)

Do the French Lack the Speculative Sense?—One of the best-informed Frenchmen on economic and political subjects, M. Marcel Labordère, believes that "to-day the Frenchman realizes keenly the lack of a quality, which, it is true, he did not possess in former times, but the need for which now appears very plainly,—the speculative sense." A Frenchman, he declares, in the *Revue de Paris*, will speculate; but, like betting on a "sure thing," he must have it all reasoned out beforehand, and a good return well in sight. He does not initiate in the matter of speculation, but he is always ready to adopt, and fall in with, schemes which have been originated and floated by others. In this way he is often a greater loser than were he to take the original risk himself. A Frenchman can always be found ready to buy bonds, stocks, and other commercial papers from the rest of the world. This, M. Labordère declares, is due to the financial laws and institutions of France. French law protects the weak Frenchman from the strong Frenchman, but it fails to take into consideration, in many cases, the strong foreigner who is ready to prey upon the weak and strong Frenchman alike. All this is one result of the habit of economy which is ingrained in the French character. While this habit of economy is very praiseworthy, he says, and has done much for France, perhaps it has made the French people glorify money too much. In not being willing to risk, they do not gain, like other peoples.

Subsidized Journals of Russia.—The Russian Government dispenses about 6,000,000 rubles ($3,000,000) annually in subsidies to the Russian and the foreign press. According to the *Zazya*, edited by the famous Yarmonkin, the following are the journals receiving subsidies from the government: *Novoye Vremya*, *Novosti*, *Birzhevyya Vyedomosti*, *Znamya*, *St. Petersburgskaya Vyedomosti*, *Moskovskaya Vyedomosti*, *Grazhdanin*, *Russki Vyestnik*, and *Klimat*.

Japan's Fighting Men.—In the study of "Japan at War," in the *Contemporary Review*, Edwin Emerson, the American newspaper correspondent in the far East, asserts that, judged by the stern test of war, the *morale* of the Japanese soldier is almost perfect. "To a remarkable degree, they have shown themselves possessed of the soldierly virtues of self-immolating bravery, manly fortitude and endurance, implicit obedience to orders, and devotion to duty. With these ancient virtues of the fighting man they combine the modern winning qualities of good shooting and individual initiative. To the foreign observer, it often appears anomalous that the Japanese should show any capacity for war. The average man of the people appears constitutionally timid. He shrinks from innovations that he does not understand. In the city of Tokio, there are many thousands still who are afraid to enter the electric cars. In the face of authority, the Japanese common people appear cowed and subservient to a degree. They dare not look their superiors in the face. A loud word or an abrupt address utterly upsets them. In their ordinary routine of life, they are provokingly easy-going and fond of comfort. That such men should make good fighting stock seems inconceivable. The outcome of Japan's

last wars controverts such conceptions. In order to understand the fighting prowess of the Japanese, one must bear in mind the splendid traditions of honor and chivalry that have been handed down to them by the warrior class of the Samurai. The descendants of these men form the best stock of the Japanese army of to-day."

Public Opinion in Korea.—In his monthly summing up of the war, Mr. Homer Hulbert, editor of the *Korea Review* (Seoul), informs us that it is very difficult to gauge the sentiments of Korean officialdom in the matter of the conflict. The general drift of feeling seems to be in favor of the Japanese, but the Korean official is much more likely to ask your opinion as to the probabilities of the outcome of the war than to express a decided sympathy with either of the contestants. In fact, the Korean people come the nearest to observing strict neutrality, in this war, of all the peoples not directly concerned. Koreans are decidedly averse to expressing their opinions frankly. Each man denies that his opinion or his individual preference is of any weight. This throws a curious light upon the effect which political life in Korea for the past four centuries has had upon the individual. The expression of political preferences has so often led to the executioner's block that it is second nature to the Korean to refrain sedulously from committing himself to a definite policy until he sees which way things are going to turn out. Mr. Hulbert notes, in passing, that the Korean Government, on the urgent advice of the Japanese, has decided to spend forty thousand dollars in repairing the streets of Seoul.

Scandinavian Neutrality.—The *Woche* (Berlin) believes that the permanent neutralization of the Scandinavian countries would be an important and desirable accomplishment. It would mean much, in case of war, to Russia, Germany, England, and France. This German journal, however, points out that the recent neutrality agreement of the three countries, Denmark, Norway, and Sweden (last April), cannot be effective beyond the neutrality of each one. Permanent neutrality is a question of agreement by all the nations, particularly the great powers. It points out as particularly significant the Swedish action in forbidding nations at war to coal at Swedish ports.

The Poetry of George Meredith.—A tribute to Meredith as the writer of poetry which is "one of England's greatest national possessions" appears in the *Independent Review*. The writer says: "The appetite for Mr. Meredith's poetry grows by what it feeds on. The difficulty is in the first few mouthfuls. At the first reading of a poem, some lines, probably, will capture the imagination; but the rest, perhaps, will seem inferior or obscure. A second reading extends the range. A third may render us greedy of the whole poem." To Meredith, Mother Earth is the real mother of man. "It is from life—its joys, its sorrows, and its long battle—that we must learn. Definite answer to the problem of good and evil there is none. But Earth will in the end teach us, if not to know, at least to feel aright, by long experience of life. But also we are taught by Nature. The face of our living mother, the Earth, has a language that appeals to the deepest in us. In accordance with the doctrine that we have been evolved out of Earth, body and soul together, Mr. Meredith does not regard our flesh as wholly vile. He divides our nature into three parts—blood, brain, and spirit. Blood is the flesh, senses, and animal vigor. Brain is brain. Spirit is the spiritual emotion which comes of the interaction of brain and blood. These three must all go together."

A South American Tribute to Garibaldi.—The twenty-second anniversary of the death of Giuseppe Garibaldi has been celebrated in Buenos Ayres by the erection of a monument. *Caras y Caretas*, the Argentine illustrated weekly, contains a tribute to the Italian Liberator, who, it will be remembered, in 1836 went to South America and took part in some of the movements for political liberty in the southern continent. Garibaldi, says *Caras y Caretas*, belongs to both Europe and America, and Argentina regards him as one of the greatest of men—"a simple, heroic figure, always great in adversity as well as in prosperity. His deeds stand as noble inspirations to patriots of all ages."



GIUSEPPE GARIBALDI.
(The monument erected in Buenos Ayres to commemorate the twenty-second anniversary of his death.)

Christianity in Japan.—The *Sunday Magazine* (London) opens with a paper on "Religion in Japan." The writer quotes an American missionary who had worked among the people for years to the effect that the Japanese come as near to being a nation of atheists as any people upon the planet. The writer says that, so far as Christianity is concerned, progress in Japan is slow. "There is no sign of any real turning to Christ." "Many prominent men are in favor of the adoption of Christianity as the state religion of the country, and, indeed, a commission of Japanese statesmen which visited Europe some years ago to study civilization advised such a step, but in the not unlikely event of this adoption the movement would be entirely political. It is a curious fact, not generally known, that in the present war, and during the conflict with China in 1894, the Japanese Government allowed a number of native Christian ministers to accompany the regiments as chaplains. The British and Foreign Bible Society, too, in conjunction with the National Bible Society of Scotland, has been permitted to present to the Japanese soldiers, as they have gone to the front, portable copies of the New Testament in their native tongue. Christians in Japan have full liberty of worship and all the rights of citizens. In fact, the Speaker of the House of Representatives is, and has been since 1890, a Christian (a Presbyterian), and fourteen years ago, when the present constitution came into force, no fewer than fourteen Christians were elected to seats in the lower house of the Diet, a number altogether out of proportion to the percentage of Christians in the nation. It is estimated that there are about one hundred thousand

Christians in Japan, of whom nearly one-half are Roman Catholics and sixteen thousand belong to the Greek Church. The Presbyterians and Congregationalists have about ten thousand each, and the remainder, with few exceptions, are in the Anglican communion. The Christian Endeavor movement, too, is very strong in Japan."

Assassination as a Factor in Russification.—In an unsigned interview with W. T. Stead in the English *Review of Reviews*, "a member of the Senate of one of the great powers, a man of keen intelligence and of lofty public spirit," declares that with the assassination of General Bobrikoff the real Russification of Finland has begun. "Assassination has hitherto been a distinctively Russian institution, which they have heretofore failed to acclimatize in Finland. We have often marveled at the immunity of the Finns from the malady, which has often raged with so much virulence across the frontier. But they are showing symptoms of complete Russification now. At last! It is a veritable triumph for M. Plehve. The Finns have always had such implicit faith in justice, they never stained their hands with blood. Assassination is ever the refuge of despair. It has taken M. Plehve and General Bobrikoff a long time to destroy the faith of the Finns, but they have succeeded at last." When asked whether, in his opinion, the fate of Bobrikoff would lead to a reconsideration of the policy of repression in Finland, this statesman replied: "Precedent is against it. The policy or impolicy of which he was the instrument is more likely to be pressed more rigorously. It has always been so in Russia. There was only one exception that I can remember. When Bogolepoff was killed, the Czar, in appointing General Vannoffsky, instructed him to deal leniently with the students. But that is the exception. The government usually fights the terrorism of the assassin by the terrorism of the administration. It will probably do the same in Finland. A fatuous, useless, or worse than useless, policy, adopted against the protest of almost every intelligent Russian, from the dowager-empress downward, will be persisted in more doggedly than ever. The Russian Government, it will be said, cannot allow itself to be terrorized by the assassin."

Are "Passive Resisters" Morally Right?—Passive resistance, being a refusal to pay a legal charge, is necessarily an illegal act, is the judgment of the Rev. J. G. James, writing in the *International Journal of Ethics*. The precedents of illegal resistance to tyrannical measures in times past are not allowed by him as valid, for "what may have been excusable and right under a tyranny may be entirely wrong" in a country possessed of freedom and democratic institutions. Passive resistance will be followed, of necessity, by some of the bad results of law-breaking. There will be a weakening of the authority of law. Police courts will be regarded as more respectable for criminals. Conscientious objectors to secular instruction may in their turn "resist." If each party, as it comes to be a minority, is to "resist," political chaos will follow. Consequences may not be disregarded, as they are an index to the character of the antecedent conduct. To the plea "We must obey God rather than man," the writer answers: "The command of God is heard in the legalized demand itself, and by means of human law and institutions." Morality can recognize no call to a duty which disregards the obligations of the law and the claims it lays upon the individual citizen. Passive resistance has no support on ethical grounds alone, or on ethic political grounds, Mr. James insists. Yet, if rooted in the religious convictions of the individual, it may possess some moral value, such as attaches to anything done with moral seriousness in a sense of moral responsibility.

SCIENCE IN FOREIGN PERIODICALS.

The World's Product of Quinine.—According to a report of the director of the quinine plantations maintained by the British Government in India, there was manufactured in the province of Madras, in 1902, 15,711 pounds of quinine, and in Bengal, 11,927 pounds, making a total of 27,638 pounds from all India. The island of Java manufactured and exported 43,750 pounds. Figures for the rest of the world are supplied by the French scientific journal, *Mercure* (Paris). The raw material (quinine) is produced as follows: Java, 14,726,000 pounds; India, 2,020,000 pounds; Ceylon, 407,000 pounds; South America, 775,000 pounds; Africa, 179,872 pounds;—total, 18 107,872. This, when manufactured, would produce 861,000-odd pounds of quinine, which, added to the manufactured product of India and Java, already mentioned, would give a total of 933,000 pounds of quinine produced in the world in 1902. The two principal markets for this product are Amsterdam and London.

A New Use for Aluminum.—At a recent meeting of the French Society for the Encouragement of National Industry, a paper was read on the substitution of aluminum for wood in the machinery of spinning mills. *Métallurgie* (Paris) regards this paper as a valuable contribution on the subject, and reports the following as to its data and recommendations: "In the textile industries—spinning, dyeing, and silk-weaving, among others—a wooden bobbin is generally used. This is cheap and easily worked, but it has many drawbacks. Being very hygrometric, it suffers from variations of temperature; this accounts for the fact that in spinning factories, where the atmosphere is full of humidity, the bobbins revolve irregularly, causing jerks which slacken the speed and occasion the threads to break. The result is waste of stuff and loss of time in joining the threads again. It has been proposed to substitute aluminum for wood. Bobbins made of this metal revolve in any temperature and any degree of humidity; their relative lightness (five aluminum bobbins weigh no more than two wooden ones) allows the machines carrying them to move more quickly, or an equal speed may be obtained at less expense of motive power; finally, the smaller volume of the bobbins diminishes the cost of transport. It was stated that several firms had adopted the use of aluminum bobbins, and had found that they possessed many advantages."

Self-Registering Meteorological Apparatus in Lapland.—Dr. Hamberg describes, in *La Nature* (Paris), a successful attempt to establish a self-registering meteorological apparatus in Lapland. Such an

attempt had been made on Mont Blanc, by M. Jannsen, but not very successfully, as the apparatus failed to keep working through the required time. The first attempt made by Hamberg, in 1900, was a failure. Later, in connection with a scientific exploration of the region of Sarjektjokko, a second and successful attempt was made. A number of difficulties had to be overcome. It was found that ink could not be used for the recording, and this had to be done by the punctures of needles. Much trouble was occasioned by the collection of frost, which in the first experiments caused a complete stoppage of the clockwork mechanism. This was obviated by placing the station at a lower level. Great care had to be taken in keeping the air about the instruments as dry as possible, both on account of the frost and to prevent corrosion of the instruments by rust. Then, too, the recording paper was likely to buckle because of differences in the moisture. The desired dryness was brought about by the use of felt jackets and a liberal supply of calcium chloride. All these difficulties were overcome, however, and the apparatus worked successfully through the winter. While there is still some trouble from frost, it would seem that the problem of establishing a self-registering apparatus in a cold climate has been solved. The height of the whole apparatus is only four meters, and the weight descends only one and one-half meters to insure motion for a year. The year's records take about twenty meters of paper.

Malaria Expedition to Dutch New Guinea.—In the *Zeitschrift für Hygiene und Infections Krankheiten* is a rather long article by Dr. Dempareff, reporting in regard to the malaria expedition to Dutch New Guinea. On this expedition, Dr. Dempareff was absent about two years. He visited Egypt first, then made a prolonged stay in Dutch New Guinea. He visited the Western Isles at the close of 1902, and on his homeward voyage visited Dutch Samoa and Australia. He made a careful examination of the country with reference to the development of malaria, and experimented in methods of combating the disease. Although there is little that is really new in his report, it is interesting and important as confirmatory evidence in regard to the cause and distribution of malaria. Where the *Anopheles* mosquito was absent, as in Samoa, he found no malaria, while where it was present, malaria was sometimes prevalent in such form as to be a deadly scourge, especially to children.

The Suppression of Malaria.—Prince Auguste d'Arenberg, the president of the company of the Maritime Canal of Suez, writes in *Annales d'Hygiène Publique* (Paris) of the fight against malaria in Ismaïlia. It is interesting as showing how much may be accomplished by a careful application of the discoveries of modern science. This little city, situated midway on the Suez Canal, had become so invested with malaria that few of its inhabitants escaped the disease. After the publication of the work of Laveran and Ross, a systematic campaign was made against mosquitoes with such success that now it is difficult for the physicians who are studying malaria to get enough specimens of the *Anopheles* to carry on their work. Mosquitoes are practically exterminated in the city. With this destruction of mosquitoes has come a lessening of the number of cases of malaria. In 1903, there were only two hundred cases, while the number in the year before that had been two thousand. There is every reason to expect that malaria will entirely disappear from this region.

Inside a Thunder-Storm.—To be in the heart of a thunder-storm in a balloon is probably a rare experience, and it is interesting to have the record of one who survived it. In *Longmans' Magazine*, Rev. J. W. Bacon tells of such an experience. The balloon was at a height of three thousand feet, and was being carried along by a main sweep of air. "We paid insufficient heed to a murky veil ahead of us, which began gathering and deepening, and blotted out the view. We were soon enveloped in this gray curtain, and thus its true appearance was lost to us; but at Newbury, our starting-ground, a large crowd was watching us entering a vast and most menacing thunder-pack, and was wondering why we did not come down. The first real warning which we had of our predicament was a flash of lightning close on our quarter, answered by another on our other side, and almost before we could realize it, we found we were in the very focus of a furious storm which was being borne on an upper wind, and a wild conflict was already raging around us. There was our own fast current carrying us westward; there was the storm-cloud slightly above us hurrying to the east; and added to these there now descended a pitiless down-draught of ice-cold air and hail. We were doubtless in a cloud which was discharging lightning over a wide area, each flash, however, issuing from the immediate vicinity of the balloon, and the idea formed on the writer's mind was that many flashes were level,—that is, as if from one part of the cloud to another. Any that reached the ground must, from our known position, have been at least a mile long." Mr. Bacon concludes his sketch with the reassuring fact that during ten years the average annual death-rate from lightning is less than one in a million.

Color Puzzles in Nature.—The distribution of color in nature is the subject of a very interrogative article in the *Westminster Review*, by George Trobridge. A common impression that intensity of color depends upon the presence of light is discredited by the fact that the most brilliant of precious stones are found deep in the earth, that the bright-colored pulp of many kinds of fruit and the crimson blood of animals are also hidden from the light. Cold seems to turn color pale. Mr. Trobridge mentions some interesting seasonal generalizations concerning flowers. "In winter and early spring, white and yellow assert themselves. Pink is the typical color of summer." The deeper and fuller tints are most prevalent in late summer and autumn. "Yellow holds its own at all seasons." The writer throws out many questions to which no answer has yet been found. Why is the range of color in pinks and carnations limited to white and shades of red? Why is there no blue rose to be found, though almost every other color has its rose? Why is color in fruit trees limited to white, pink, crimson, and purple? Why is purple so frequently associated with poisonous plants? Passing to the animal world, he asks, why is white so rare among land birds and so common among aquatic, and especially marine, birds? How is it that carnivorous animals are so frequently striped and spotted, while such markings are comparatively rare with the herbivorous? Why are song birds usually somber in color, while the brilliant-colored species have harsh and discordant voices?

THE NEW BOOKS.

NOTES ON RECENT AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS.

HISTORICAL WORKS.

A THREE-VOLUME "History of the Moorish Empire in Europe" (Lippincott), by S. P. Scott, is the result of twenty years of labor, most of them spent studying the remains and effect of the Moorish ascendency. Mr. Scott begins his study with the earliest of the ancient Arabians, and considers the successive stages of development and history of that really marvelous race, whose achievements in science, literature, and the arts have been the inspiration for much of our present-day progress. Much of the ground already covered by Irving and Prescott had to be resurveyed, especially as Mr. Scott proves from the authentic chronicles of eye-witnesses that there are many errors in the pages of the famous historians. It is a carefully done work, with a good deal of material, itself unimportant, but valuable as sidelights upon the psychology of the people under consideration. The author disclaims any feeling of animosity against the Spanish people, and yet a perusal of this book does not tend to increase one's respect for the Spanish character. The reader will be disappointed at finding such a meager description of the famous battle of Tours, in which the Moslem march into France was stayed. Mr. Scott also sweeps away the beautiful, romantic, and chivalrous character whom, in our younger days, we identified with the Cid. Perhaps, however, these are but evidences that he has written a more accurate history.

We have been so long without a popular single-volume history of the United States that most students and teachers of the subject had begun to despair of the attainment of any such boon. Mr. Henry William Elson perceived this lack, and for many years has had in contemplation the writing of a work that should fall between the elaborate histories which few people ever see, except in public libraries, and the condensed school histories, most of which are innocent of all the literary graces. In the attainment of his aim to interest the general reader in the narrative of the origin and growth of our country and its institutions, it seems to us that Mr. Elson has met with unusual success. In his selection of topics (in his "History of the United States"—Macmillan), Mr. Elson has discriminated wisely, choosing in the main those things that really interest our reading public, and not fearing to display, on occasion, a commendable independence of judgment. He shows, moreover, intelligent acquaintance with the results of modern scholarship, frequently accepting such revisions of historical statements as have approved themselves to the majority of independent investigators, and not hesitating to express judgments of popular heroes that run counter to deep-seated popular prejudice. Mr. Elson incorporates in his notes some capital suggestions to readers who wish to pursue special lines of inquiry by consulting the best secondary authorities or referring to the original sources. His whole book is itself built upon the most serviceable plan, and will be found of great use, we imagine, even to specialists, while students in high-school and college courses will find the work a helpful supplement to their text-books.

A novel literary enterprise was that conceived by Mr. Olin D. Wheeler, which has borne fruit in two volumes entitled "The Trail of Lewis and Clark" (Putnams). In these volumes, Mr. Wheeler not only tells the story of Lewis and Clark's famous exploring expedition of one hundred years ago, but gives a description of the trail followed by those intrepid explorers based upon actual travel over it a century later. Thus, for all those Americans who now dwell in the regions traversed by the exploring party of 1804–06, this book has more than a general interest, since it presents so effectively the scenes characteristic of their own localities. School children in some of the trans-Missouri States may learn from this book, for the first time, perhaps, of the exact location of the Lewis and Clark trail. The illustrations of the work are numerous, and have been selected with excellent judgment.



FREDERICK LAW OLMSTED.

Long before the late Frederick Law Olmsted had won a national reputation as a landscape architect, he had achieved no little fame as a newspaper correspondent, writing of his observations in the Southern States more than fifty years ago. So interesting and instructive were Mr. Olmsted's comments on what he saw in slavery and its economic effects that a new edition of "A Journey in the Seaboard Slave States" (Putnams) has just been brought out, with a biographical sketch of the author by Mr. Frederick Law Olmsted, Jr., and an introduction by Prof. William P. Trent. It is Professor Trent's judgment that this book of Mr. Olmsted's "must probably rank along with 'Uncle Tom's Cabin' and 'The Impending Crisis' as one of the three books that did most to open the eyes of the North to the true nature of the plague of slavery, and to the inflamed condition of public opinion at the South during the decade preceding the Civil War." While Mr. Olmsted's book was one that made the least sensation at the time of its publication, it is Professor Trent's opinion that of the three books named it is by far the most valuable to the historian and to the reader in reconstructing the past.

It is only at rare intervals that such works as Prof. Herbert L. Osgood's "The American Colonies of the Seventeenth Century" (Macmillan) are issued from the press. This elaborate study is the result of many years of painstaking research, and while no final judgment can be passed by the critics until all the volumes of the

series have been published, it is safe to say that Professor Osgood's work will influence all consideration of the subject for many years to come. He is the first writer to undertake a systematic treatment of the institutional history of the colonies, and to attempt to introduce in such a history some conception of the system of imperial control under which they existed. In the two volumes now published, Professor Osgood considers only the American side of the story. In the volumes to appear in the future, the beginnings of colonial administration, from the British point of view, will be discussed. And thus one important function of the work as a whole will be to illustrate the principles of British colonization, so far as those were revealed in the early relations between the home government and its American colonies. From the nature of the case, a work of this scope is more than a narrative of events; it is rather a series of discussions, or essays, on the various phases of colonial administration. The facts of colonial history are stated with great clearness, and with no attempt at "fine writing."

Surely, some justification is required for the writing or publishing of a new life of Napoleon at this late day. In the case of Col. Theodore A. Dodge's elaborate four-volume work (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), it is to be noted that the book is less a biography than a history, forming, indeed, one of the series of volumes published under the general title "Great Captains," and including, up to the present, Alexander, Hannibal, Cæsar, and Gustavus Adolphus. The present work takes up the history of the art of war from the beginning of the French Revolution to the end of the eighteenth century, giving a detailed account of the wars of the French Revolution. It is strictly a military work, and in no sense a personal biography. The political events of the Napoleonic era are touched on only so far as they illustrate the art of war or elucidate campaigns. In this, as in the preceding volumes of the series, Colonel Dodge gives us the matured conclusions of an expert on matters of which only an expert can judge. A similar study of Frederick the Great is promised for the near future.

Edgar Stanton Maclay, the historian of the navy, has discovered a United States ship captain and two important Revolutionary War battles which have not heretofore been recorded. In a sympathetic account based on some documents recently brought to light, Mr. Maclay has told the story of "Moses Brown, Captain, U.S.N." (Baker, Taylor). Moses Brown was one of the privateer captains who sailed from Newburyport, and afterward became captain of the first *Merrimack*, in the United States navy. This book is illustrated.

Michael Davitt has written the story of the Land League revolution in Ireland, under the title "The Fall of Feudalism in Ireland" (Harpers). Mr. Davitt writes with his customary vigor and fullness,—we had almost said wordiness,—and this volume of seven hundred and fifty pages of fine print is crammed with quotations, citations, digests, legal and documentary references, and reproductions of letters and lists. These make rather tedious reading, but they buttress up the argument, and are valuable as records. The story of Ireland's wrongs is known well enough. The connected story of cause and effect, however, covering two centuries and a half of mistaken rule (if not misrule) in Ireland, has perhaps never been told with such "straight from the shoulder" blows as in this philippic of Michael Davitt.

The battle of the Plains of Abraham, which decided the fate of Canada, was also the culminating feat in one of the greatest imperial wars. It serves to mark three of the mightiest epochs of modern times,—the death of Greater France, the coming of age of Greater Britain, and the birth of the United States,—and was made possible only by the fact that Great Britain had secured command of the sea. These are the points upon which Major William Wood, secretary of the Quebec Branch of the British Navy League, has elaborated his scholarly work, "The Fight for Canada" (London: Archibald Constable & Co.). "As all the Seven Seas are strategically one, it is the Navy which is the great unifying force in every world-wide struggle. Armies led by such men as Wolfe and Frederick the Great are, of course, indispensable instruments of victory. But squadrons led by men like Saunders, Hawke, and Boscawen,—and all working together under the supreme direction of an administrator like Anson,—are the uniting forces which enable a world-power to hold its own through an age-long crisis like the Great Imperial War, when led by a statesman like the first William Pitt."

Dr. Walter Robinson Smith, the instructor in American history in the Washington University, St. Louis, has revised his lectures delivered before the University Association and published them in a compact manual, under the title "A Brief History of the Louisiana Territory" (St. Louis News Company).

Apropos of the Presidential campaign, one or two recently published historical works are of more than ordinary interest. The two-volume "History of the Republican Party," by Francis Curtis (Putnams), appears just at the completion of fifty years of the party's existence. In the first volume, Mr. Curtis makes a careful examination of the origins of the party, its earliest creeds, platforms, and leaders, and the contests which it waged prior to and during the Civil War and the era of reconstruction. In the second volume is included a full exposition of the party's record from the Liberal Republican movement of 1872 to the present year. President Roosevelt contributes a foreword, and Senator Frye and Speaker Cannon, introductions to the work.

Another recent publication is an essay by President McKinley entitled "The Tariff: A Review of the Tariff Legislation of the United States from 1812 to 1896" (Putnams). This work was written by the late President in the spring of 1896, a few weeks before his first nomination for the Presidency. It presents a comprehensive survey of the history of protection in the United States, and of the ground on which the system has been confirmed and extended by successive generations of American statesmen.

An interesting contribution to our educational history is Mr. Clifton Johnston's "Old Time Schools and School Books" (Macmillan), a volume which includes materials gathered from all sorts of out-of-the-way places, and forming, in connection with the illustrations, which have been diligently collected by the author, a remarkable presentation of American school conditions of bygone times. The chapters on "The New England Primer," "Noah Webster and His Spelling-Book," and "The First American Geography" are of special interest.

"Letters from an American Farmer," by J. Hector St. John Crèvecœur, have been reprinted from the original edition, with a prefatory note by Prof. William P. Trent, and an introduction by Ludwig Lewisohn (New York: Fox, Duffield & Co.). These letters originally appeared in London, in the year 1782. They were written by a Frenchman who settled in the American

colonies some years before the Revolution, and describe with fidelity colonial life and conditions. As literary productions, these letters have unusual merit, and are well worth reading, as Professor Trent suggests, for their own sake. The historical student will find them valuable for the information that they give of pre-Revolutionary customs and social life. Especially enlightening is the letter "What is an American?"

A novelty in historical text-books is Mr. Barr Ferree's "Pennsylvania: A Primer" (New York: Leonard Scott Publication Company). In this book are presented, in the most concise form possible, the essential facts of Pennsylvania history. Since it is intended to serve as a summary of facts, the text is arranged in paragraphs, which, in their turn, are gathered into related chapters, and the narrative form has been entirely abandoned. In the compilation of the work, the geography and the geology, as well as the political divisions, of the State have been fully treated. The illustrations are unusual for a volume of such scope, consisting largely of maps, reproductions of old prints, facsimiles of manuscripts, and other similar materials.

BIOGRAPHY.

"Frederick the Great, and the Rise of Prussia," in the "Heroes of the Nations" series (Putnams), is by William F. Reddaway, author of "The Monroe Doctrine." The story of the rise of Prussia has often been told, but it bears lessons which make it well worth other retellings. How much it resulted from the personality of the great king Mr. Reddaway points out in a good running account, illustrated by maps and diagrams.

It seems strange that historical novelists should have passed by Jacqueline, that most remarkable woman, in the making of their romances. Jacqueline was the last independent sovereign of Holland and Zealand. From her sixteenth year, she fought against Philip of Burgundy and the kings of Spain to save her patrimony. Not even the royal career of Mary Queen of Scots can surpass that of Jacqueline in stirring adventure and varied fortune. The novelist will no doubt appropriate this splendid dramatic character before long. Meanwhile, the true record of her varying fortunes has been written, under the title "A Mediæval Princess" (Putnams), by Ruth Putnam. This is an illustrated history beginning with Jacqueline's birth, in 1401, and carrying the record of her life, with sidelights on the country she ruled, to her death, in 1436.

Austin Dobson has written the volume on Fanny Burney in the "English Men of Letters" series (Macmillan). Mr. Dobson's treatment of the Burney family, and especially of the sweet girl who afterward became Madame D'Arblay and the famous novelist, is sympathetic, but not particularly attractive in style.

In his volume on Crabbe, in the "English Men of Letters" series (Macmillan), Alfred Ainger characterizes Crabbe and Wordsworth as the two eminent English poets who were moderns although they produced their verse before the end of the eighteenth century. The influence of Crabbe's verse to-day, says Mr. Ainger, is "at once of a bracing and sobering kind."

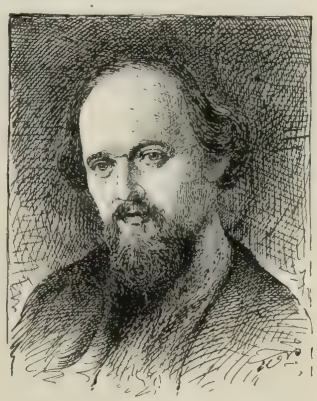
Because Matthew Arnold's voice still cries in the wilderness and the world needs to have his ideas and theories, his admonitions and warnings, unified, William Harbut Dawson, author of "German Socialism and Ferdinand Lasalle," has written the book of the Arnold cult, under the title "Matthew Arnold, and His Relation to the Thought of Our Time" (Putnams). There is an Arnold cult, a cult of practical idealism—"the pursuit of perfection as the worthiest working principle of life." Mr. Dawson believes that Arnold is gradually coming into his own, because his idealism "attracts by virtue of its very sobriety and sanity."



MATTHEW ARNOLD.

Mr. G. W. E. Russell's "Matthew Arnold" (Scribners) is one of the "Literary Lives" series. It was the poet's express wish that no biography of him should be written. So this is really an appreciative study based largely on the collection of Arnold letters, edited by Mr. Russell and published some ten years ago. This volume is illustrated.

The volume on Dante Gabriel Rossetti, in the "English Men of Letters" series (Macmillan), is by Arthur C. Benson. A strange, sad, beautiful, mysterious life was Rossetti's. Mr. Benson has told us a more connected story of it than we have ever seen before.



DANTE GABRIEL ROSSETTI.

Hélène Vacaresco, one of the ladies-in-waiting to Queen Elizabeth of Roumania, has written an account of her first-hand impressions of various European monarchs, under the title "Kings and Queens I Have Known" (Harpers). The royalties whom Mme. Vacaresco met were, of course, the famous Queen of Roumania—"Carmen Sylva"—King Edward and Queen Alexandra of England, Kaiser Franz Josef of Austria, Kaiser Wilhelm of Germany, the Russian Czar and Czarina, the Dowager-Queen (Margarita), and King Emmanuel and Queen Helena of Italy, Queen Christina and King Alfonso of Spain, Queen Wilhelmina of the Netherlands, the sovereigns of Servia, Pope Leo XIII., and Queen Victoria.



HÉLÈNE VACARESCO.

An unprejudiced examination of Tolstoy's ideas in the light of modern knowledge, tracing their development from inception to present-day status, is what T. Sharper Knowlson attempts to do in his book "Leo Tolstoy" (Frederick Warne). Mr. Knowlson claims that while the life of the great Russian shows many violent contrasts and inconsistencies, it is not because he is a "worn-out libertine who has made of the dregs of his old age a hypocritical offering to religion." Tolstoy is, underneath all, an honest thinker, "a world character who in some directions will become a world force."

Mr. Henry Dwight Sedgwick has a fine scholarly insight, and when he writes about a scholar such as Francis Parkman the result is a polished piece of literature. There is nothing sensational in his life of Parkman, in the "American Men of Letters" series (Houghton), but it is a well-told bit of biography. The volume ume has a portrait of Parkman for a frontispiece. The summer journals of the historian, a diary of a trip to Europe, and "several erratic and scrappy" note-books show Parkman's methods of examining historic places and of collecting historical materials.



FRANCIS PARKMAN.

(From frontispiece in "American Men of Letters" series.)

Maria Edgeworth, as the author of Irish books, with a number of hitherto unpublished letters, is the picture the Hon. Emily Lawless has presented in her volume on Miss Edgeworth in the "English Men of Letters" series (Macmillan). The reader gets quite an insight into Irish life in the last years of the eighteenth century.

RECOLLECTIONS, CHIEFLY LITERARY.

The famous Englishmen of the last century, literary, political, and ecclesiastical, have been given more than usual attention by writers this past year. A number of books have appeared which can be classed together because of their subject-matter rather than of the way in which they have been treated. "Personalia" (Doubleday, Page), from the pen of an anonymous writer, is one of this class. The writer, who signs himself "Sigma," has had a most enviable acquaintance with a surprisingly large number of prominent Englishmen in the past fifty years. Writing in a gossipy and somewhat acrid style, the author has divided his anecdotes and reminiscences into five parts,—"Harrow in the Early Sixties;" "Lawyers;" "The Church;" "Art and Letters;" "Personages and Retrospects." The reader discovers, as he always does when reading anything biographical, that some of the most illustrious people have been possessed of certain distressing traits of character,—in fact, "Sigma" has noted these with great accuracy, while he has failed to see the kindlier traits which genuine friendship with the persons described would certainly have revealed. Browning, Carlyle, Dickens, Disraeli, Archbishop Davidson, Du Maurier, Gladstone, Lord Milner, Shelley, Archbishop Tait, Thackeray, Bishop Wilberforce, Oscar Wilde, and a hundred others are mentioned.

"Mrs. George Bancroft's Letters from England" (Scribners), which first appeared serially in *Scribner's Magazine*, is another of this type of book. London society in the forties could boast of a host of famous persons, and Mrs. Bancroft's position as wife of the American ambassador, together with the charm of manner which must have been hers, gave her a large acquaintance among the most sought-after people of the day. The letters, addressed to members of her family and to a few friends, are written in the dignified style of sixty years ago, with a purity of diction and a grace of narration worthy of the wife of the great historian.



MRS. GEORGE BANCROFT.

Still a third publication of the same general stamp as the two mentioned above is "Chats on Writers and Books" (Sergel), by the late John N. Crawford. Mr. Crawford was a newspaper writer of some repute, whose work appeared for many years in the Chicago papers. Beginning with Dean Swift, and coming down to the end of the Victorian era, the reader is asked to glance at considerably over one hundred writers of books.

POLITICS, ECONOMICS, AND SOCIOLOGY.

President Roosevelt's virile philosophy of life, as shown in his personal utterances on various matters of vital public and private interest, has been presented in an attractive systematized form in a little volume under the title "The Roosevelt Doctrine." This book, which is published by Robert Grier Cooke, was compiled by E. E. Garrison. There are nearly twenty-five important topics treated in a consecutive way, and together they give a brief summary of the principles of American citizenship and government. Mr. Roosevelt's public utterances really present a rather remarkable exposition of the duties and rights of man and government, particularly of the American man and the American government, and it was distinctly worth while to bring these utterances into related form. This volume is introduced by an extract from the introduction to the President's "Published Speeches" by Dr. Albert Shaw, editor of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS.

In this campaign year, when the relation of the citizen to the State will be a matter of frequent discussion, the appearance of such a work as Mr. Frederick Van Dyne's "Citizenship of the United States" (Rochester, N. Y.: Lawyers' Coöperative Publishing Company) is peculiarly opportune. Mr. Van Dyne is assistant solicitor of the State Department at Washington, and is frequently called upon to deal in a practical way with the various questions that group themselves under the chapter-heads of his book. This is doubtless one reason why his treatment of these questions is notable for its definiteness and grasp of the concise points involved. Mr. Van Dyne's work is confined to the subject of federal citizenship, which with the recent rapid development of our nation as a world-power has become

a far more important matter than formerly. It is a great advantage to have the points of the judicial decisions, international treaties, and other authorities brought together in this compact treatise. The real value of the work is attested by the action of the United States Government in placing a copy in the hands of each of our diplomatic officers and consuls.



MR. FREDERICK VAN DYNE.

The aim of Prof. W. W. Willoughby, in his volume entitled "Political Theories of the Ancient World" (Longmans), is to include information drawn, not only from the ordinary formal sources, but from such knowledge as we have of contemporaneous political practice and social life, as well as from the prevailing conceptions of ancient times. His purpose is less to present a series of abstract systems as apparently the arbitrary creations of their originators than to exhibit the development of thought, the phases of which are made to appear as logical results of ancient political life, and of the ethical and intellectual peculiarities of the times in which they were formulated.

One of the newer American writers whose work has won much favorable notice, especially in the South, is Mr. William Garrott Brown, whose most recent volume, "The Foe of Compromise" (Macmillan), is a series of clever essays chiefly dealing with American political problems. Apropos of the Presidential campaign, Mr. Brown's defense of American parties in this volume will be read with special interest. The book is notable for its literary quality. The title essay, originally published in the *Atlantic Monthly*, was pronounced by the London *Daily Mail* as "a most brilliant piece of literary work, original in style, comprehensive and eloquent in thought." Mr. Brown writes with rare discrimination and insight.

"American Problems" (Winona Publishing Company) is the title of a volume by the Rev. Joseph A. Vance, of Chicago, which includes discussions of the negro problem and several other social questions, particularly those connected with municipal government. The book as a whole is a plea for the application of the principles of genuine Christianity to the solution of these vital social and political problems.

Dr. George Scherger's book on "The Evolution of Modern Liberty" (Longmans) is chiefly interesting for its consideration of the relation between the principles of the French Revolution and those of the American Revolution, as expressed especially in the Bills of Rights of the individual States. While Dr. Scherger dissents from the view that the French Declaration of the Rights of Man is a literal transcription of the Bills of Rights, he maintains that the idea of the Declaration of the Rights of man is specifically American. He declares that there is no trace of such an idea in Rousseau or in any other French writer.

In "The Citizen's Library," Dr. Delos F. Wilcox has contributed a useful little book entitled "The American City: A Problem in Democracy" (Macmillan). Availing himself of the great body of literature dealing with the governmental problems of the American city that has come into existence within the past few years, Dr. Wilcox discusses in this volume what he regards as the fundamental principles of the American city problem, and points out its real relations to the great problem of human freedom as it is being worked out in American political institutions. Some of the author's chapter-heads will indicate the scope of his work,—"Democracy and City Life in America," "The Street," "The Control of Public Utilities," "Civic Education; or, the Duty to the Future," "Municipal Insurance," "Local Centers of Civic Life," "Local Responsibility; or, Municipal Home Rule," "Municipal Revenues," "Municipal Debt," and "A Programme of Civic Effort."

In "The Better New York" (Baker, Taylor), Dr. William H. Tolman and Charles M. Street present a kind of sociological Baedeker covering the metropolitan district. Dividing the city of New York into eleven sections, the various philanthropic and educational institutions in these sections have been described in this book, so that by following the programme here laid out a visitor to the metropolis who is interested in the institutional life of the city may spend many profitable hours—or days, as the case may be—in a tour of all the important institutions without once retracing his steps.



PROF. CHARLES SPRAGUE SMITH.

In "Working with the People" (Wessels Company), Charles Sprague Smith, managing director of the People's Institute, New York, has told the story of the excellent work done by himself and his fellow-laborers in spreading abroad a clearer conception of the unity of all education and uplift effort—in a school of social science in which "all social faiths could meet and reason together."



DR. G. STANLEY HALL.

Dr. G. Stanley Hall's monumental study of "Adolescence" (Appletons) is sub-headed a study of "the psychology of adolescence, and its relations to physiology, anthropology, sociology, sex, crime, religion, and education." This work, in two volumes, is based on the author's "Psychology," a work which is now in preparation. Dr. Hall, who is president of Clark University, and who holds the chair of psychology and pedagogy at that institution, says that he was impelled to the study by his belief that "never has youth been exposed to such dangers of both perversion and arrest as in our own land and day." It consists of a revision and amplification of a

series of lectures, from which much of the technical has been eliminated. Prominence is given to the various manifestations of sex and their influence on life.

WORLD-POLITICS AND THE FAR EAST.

A most attractive title to a book is the one Dr. Emil Reich has given to his latest study of national psychology, "Success Among Nations" (Harpers). This is a study of the three questions: "Which were the successful nations?" "What were the causes of their success?" and "Which are likely to be the successful nations of the future?" National success, Dr. Reich contends, is due, primarily, to quality, not quantity, and to a properly balanced will and intellect in the national character. He measures the principal nations of ancient and modern times by this standard, and endeavors to explain the causes of failure in certain cases. Russia, this writer believes, will never exert a great influence on the civilization of the world, because Russia represents quantity, not quality. Germany has a real chance to be world-dominant. "British civilization will always be great and one-sided. In Europe, she can no longer be umpire." The United States, being neighborless, and, moreover, her women being lacking in "what it is customary to esteem feminine in Europe, especially in the question of maternity, is likely to fail, unless great care be taken." It is true that ours is not the land of the almighty dollar to the extent that some Europeans would have the world believe, and it is also true, Dr. Reich admits, that America "has solved ideals [how does one solve an ideal?], moral and social, which European nations have in vain endeavored to attain." But, nevertheless, a close study of American history and American institutions inspires the Hungarian historian (Dr. Reich) with "far more apprehension as to a sound development of America in the future than with fear for the fortunes of Europe." The path of America is "strewn with stumbling-blocks which it will require her utmost ingenuity to circumvent or to surmount." Several of the chapters in this book have already appeared in the form of magazine articles, and one of them has been quoted from in the REVIEW OF REVIEWS.

Books of political and economic information on conditions in the far East and the issues involved in the Russo-Japanese war are plentiful and valuable. One of the most useful is Dr. Wolf von Schierbrand's "America, Asia, and the Pacific" (Holt), which is an attempt to present an idea of the great international struggle sure to come in the near future for the control of the Pacific Ocean and the great trade of its markets. Dr. von Schierbrand's chief contention is that during the present century the Pacific is bound to become what the Atlantic was during the eighteenth and nineteenth, and the Mediterranean during the twenty-five centuries preceding. He believes that the United States is the nation best equipped for the coming race in the Pacific, and devotes several chapters, in the main, to proving this.



DR. WOLF VON SCHIERBRAND.

America's chief rivals, Great Britain and her colonies, Germany, France, Japan, and Russia, are also considered, and their equipment noted. His observations on the Panama Canal and the future of the Dutch East Indies are particularly interesting and suggestive. A dozen or more maps help to elucidate the text.

A year—just 365 days—spent in traveling through all parts of the Philippines has furnished A. H. Savage Landor, the explorer, author of "In the Forbidden Land" (Tibet), with materials for a very complete work on the Philippine Islands, dealing fully with topographical, ethnological, civil, and political conditions. Two or three thousand photographs taken during the trip afford excellent material for illustration to this rather bulky volume, which Mr. Landor has entitled "The Gems of the East" (Harpers). He has made a very readable record of a trip of several thousands of miles into regions never before visited by white men, and has interspersed this record with many episodes and personal experiences. A number of tables and a good map of the archipelago complete the work.

A new book of travel, "The Heart of the Orient" (Putnams), by Michael M. Shoemaker, describes a section of the East about which but little has been written. Starting from Constantinople, Mr. Shoemaker made an extensive tour through the Caucasus, northern Persia, Turkestan, western China, and eastern Russia, and back to St. Petersburg. He tells in a pleasing way a great many interesting things about the country and the mode of travel.

BOOKS OF AMUSEMENT.

Carolyn Wells' delicious "Nonsense Anthology" (Scribners) contains all the time-honored ballads, limericks, and other rhymes which reconcile us to seriousness and logic by being so different. De Quincey once said, "None but a man of extraordinary talent can write first-rate nonsense." Certain it is that nonsense has its legitimate place among the divisions of humor, and though it cannot be reduced to an exact science, we must acknowledge it a fine art. Besides the traditional nonsense, there is in this volume a goodly sprinkling of the newer and less-known rhymes.



RUPERT HUGHES.

The most entertaining book on the American metropolis we have seen for some time is Rupert Hughes' "The Real New York" (Smart Set Company). The flavor of the city's life, as well as the excellent graphic description of points of interest, make the text as delightful as Hy. Mayer's illustrations are appropriate.

"Phoenixiana," by John Phoenix, first published in 1855, is again presented by D. Appleton & Company in an attractive edition for which John Kendrick Bangs has written an interesting introduction. As an amusing diversion, nothing could be better than these absurdities,—the very extract of nonsense and tomfoolery, but with enough genuine wit and merit to have made them last for fifty years at least.

The American Monthly Review of Reviews.

EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW.

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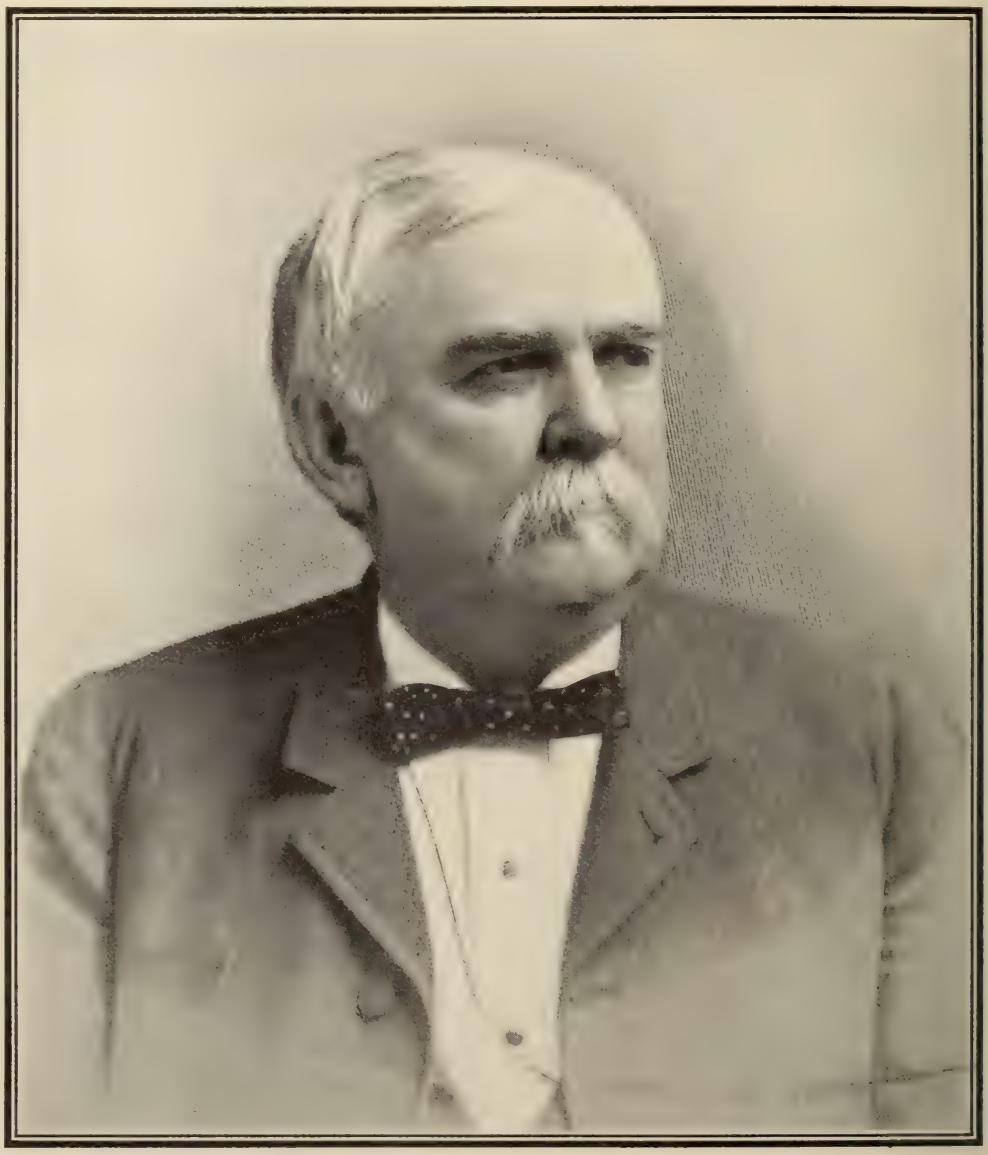
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THE LATE SENATOR GEORGE GRAHAM VEST, OF MISSOURI.

(Mr. Vest was born in Kentucky in 1830, began to practise law in Missouri while a very young man, was in both branches of the Confederate Congress, and was sent to the United States Senate in 1879, serving there continuously for twenty-four years, and retiring last year on account of ill-health. He died on August 9. He was a strong Democratic partisan, a brilliant orator, and a conspicuous figure in the Senate. As he lay dying, his political opponents in the Missouri Republican State Convention, in a telegram of sympathy to Mrs. Vest, paid the Senator the following tribute: "The unquestioned integrity and unsullied honor of your distinguished husband will be not only a priceless heritage to you and yours, but to every citizen of the State.")

THE AMERICAN MONTHLY

Review of Reviews.

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THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

Republicans Awaiting the Verdict.

The experience of another month fully confirms the estimates already made by this magazine regarding the character of this year's political campaign. The real work was done in the settlement of the preliminaries. The Republican party must stand simply upon the record of the McKinley-Roosevelt administrations, together with that of a series of Republican Congresses. No party has ever carried on the government of the United States with a more complete and unhampered opportunity than has been accorded to the Republicans during the past seven years. It was the consistent and logical thing to make President Roosevelt this year's candidate of the party, and to go before the country asking for a vote of confidence and a further lease of power. The party would have confused the issues and exposed itself to defeat if it had discredited President Roosevelt and nominated someone else. There are two distinct entities known as the Republican party: one of these is the permanent organization dominated by groups of public men and professional politicians; the other is the great mass of citizens,—comprising one-half, more or less, of the people of the country,—who are accustomed to call themselves Republicans and to vote for the candidates of that party. There was a powerful attempt made last year by the professional party organization to displace Mr. Roosevelt. Against this attempt the sentiment of the masses of the Republican voters was the principal deterrent. Finally, the professional element in the party came to see the necessity of supporting Mr. Roosevelt, and long before the convention met at Chicago the situation had been accepted with good grace.

A Position Defensive but Alert.

When this result had been achieved, there was not much more for the Republicans to do that was vital in its nature. They did not have to attempt to manufacture issues; they had no feuds to heal or party skeletons to hide, and they were entirely ready for the verdict of the country. But since the election does not occur until November, it was obviously necessary for them to use diligence to keep their case before the voters, and to do systematic work for the securing of the best possible results in detail throughout a great country where, in a hundred different ways, local issues have a bearing upon national ones. It was logical, therefore, to select for campaign manager a man of system and of activity closely related to the recent work of the Government, and qualified to see that efficiency and alertness are not lacking at any point in the Republican campaign. There was nothing in the situation that called for mystery, but there was this year, as always, abundant room for the use of tact, skill, keen judgment, and shrewd common sense.

The Democrats Recovering Party Tone.

On the Democratic side, the whole situation was one of vastly greater difficulty. The Republican party was relatively compact and unified, while the Democratic party was rent by factionalism and dissension of the most extreme sort. The chief problem with the Democrats was not so much how they might overwhelm the Republicans, as how they might patch up their own differences sufficiently to get into the field at all. They have shown amazing vitality as a party in returning to the so-called "safe and sane" basis without formal bolts or wholesale defections. It must be admitted in frankness that as yet the party does not show signs of desperate energy or profound conviction in its attitude of opposition to the party in power. It would be a great deal to expect of so shattered an organization that it should at one and the same time rehabilitate itself and deal death-blows to an opposing party as well intrenched and superbly equipped as the great organization dominated by President Roosevelt. The chief gain for the Demo-

cratic party lies in its having accepted very generally and loyally its Presidential candidate, Judge Parker, with whom it finds itself increasingly satisfied as the weeks go by.

The Campaign Organization.

The party is not as well pleased with its campaign organization as with its ticket and its platform. It was by a somewhat difficult process that it found a chairman for the National Committee. Senator Gorman refused the position, and the names of Mr. August Belmont and other active Parker supporters of New York and the East were one by one eliminated. The choice finally fell upon the Hon. Thomas Taggart, of Indiana, well known as several times mayor of the city of Indianapolis, and long identified with Democratic politics in his State. It is considered, however, that the real head of the campaign is to be found in the person of Mr. William F. Sheehan, a long-time political intimate of ex-Senator David B. Hill, and at one time lieutenant-governor of New York. Mr. Sheehan is regarded as Judge Parker's closest political friend and confidant. Being assured that Parker would be nominated, he rented a house at Esopus, some months ago, in order to be conveniently near the candidate. As chairman of the executive committee, he is in a position to see that Judge Parker's wishes and ideas are at all times carried out; and in point of fact the candidate himself, whose talent for practical politics is as good as that of President Roosevelt, will supply the directive mind behind all the more important policies and moves of the campaign. Those of our readers who are conversant with politics do not need to be reminded that the State of New York is of necessity the chief battle-ground this year.

Dividing the Field.

A very clear outline of Democratic strategy, as well as a good account of the career of Mr. Thomas Taggart, the national chairman, will be found elsewhere in this number of the REVIEW, in a well-informed article contributed by Mr. Hornaday, of the Indianapolis *News*. In this article it is pointed out just what States the Democrats must carry in order to win the election. Judge Parker, Mr. Sheehan, and David B. Hill are old political managers in New York, and the most critical task in the whole campaign is the one they have on their hands at home. It is expected that Mr. Taggart, as national chairman, will give so much of his time and attention to Indiana and the West that it will not be necessary to establish a distinct Western headquarters. The Democratic campaign is to be run from No. 1 West Thirty-fourth Street, New York City, and the Republican campaign from No. 1 Madison Avenue.

The Executive Committee.

The make-up of the National Executive Committee is strikingly significant of the transformation that has come about in the Democratic party since the last two national campaigns. Mr. De Lancey Nicoll, a well-known corporation lawyer of New York, is vice-chairman of the national committee as well as a member of the executive group. The other members are Mr. August Belmont, the New York banker and railroad man; Col. J. M. Guffey, the leader of the Pennsylvania Democrats, known as a petroleum magnate; Mr. John R. McLean, the Ohio multi-millionaire; ex-Senator Smith, of New Jersey, also a man of vast corporation interests; Senator Martin, of Virginia, said to be identified very extensively with large corporations, and Mr. Timothy E. Ryan, of Wisconsin. Senator Gorman, of Maryland, is regarded as virtually a member of the committee. Mr. George Foster Peabody is treasurer of the national committee, and, together with the chairman and vice-chairman, is *ex-officio* a member of the executive committee. Nearly, or quite all, of these men were Gold Democrats in 1896, and several of them were in aggressive opposition to Mr. Bryan. Mr. Peabody, in particular, was untiring and of eminent service in securing the victory for sound money.



GOOD TIMES COMING IN INDIANA.
MISS INDIANA: "Oh, Tom, how much did you bring me?"
From the *Post* (Cincinnati).



A GROUP OF DEMOCRATIC LEADERS ON JUDGE PARKER'S PORCH, AT ESOPUS.

The four in line, reading from right to left, are Chairman "Tom" Taggart, Judge Parker, Charles F. Murphy, the leader of Tammany, and ex-Senator David B. Hill. On the step, behind Judge Parker, is John G. Maher, of Nebraska.

A "Plutocratic" Group.

The committee, as a whole, suggests "Plutocratic" business interests, rather than politics as divorced from the commercial motive. This situation is rendered the more striking when one adds to it the organization of the State Democratic Committee in New York and the influences that seem to prevail in the party's councils. Thus, the chairman of the State committee is Mr. Cord Meyer, of Brooklyn, one of the most important men in the so-called "Sugar Trust;" and the chairman of the State Executive Committee is State Senator Patrick McCarren, also of Brooklyn, said to be associated with two or three of the largest trusts and combinations in the country. It would be too much to suppose that Democratic harmony on such terms as these could have been free from all misgivings or disquietude. The most widely read of Democratic newspapers,—those published in New York City by Mr. W. R. Hearst, — while nominally supporting Judge Parker, are outspoken day by day in sweeping attack upon the control of the Parker campaign by the financial magnates and the attorneys and agents for the trusts. The most influential and able of Eastern Democratic newspapers is the New York *World*, and it has been closely associated with the Parker movement. But it has not been well pleased with the campaign organization. Tammany Hall, for reasons of its own, has not as yet fallen into line very ardently; but since Tammany alone can furnish the needed Democratic votes, the Tiger's fur will have to be stroked the right way before election time. Mr. Murphy, the Tammany chief, has been at swords' points with Mr. McCarren, the head of the State



Photo by Alman, New York.

MR. CORD MEYER.

(Chairman of New York State Democratic Committee.)

Executive Committee. Tammany has appointed a campaign committee, with a number of new men,—these also, as a rule, being conspicuous for their large business connections. Thus, all of a sudden, from being the poor man's party, the Democracy has become the most dazzlingly plutocratic political organization any country has ever known.

Mr. Peabody as Treasurer.

This would seem to make easier the task of the national treasurer, Mr. George Foster Peabody, who has been accustomed to raise money for the sound-money campaigns and for various philanthropic, educational, and religious movements, in all of which he is even better known as a giver than as a collector of other people's bounties. Mr. Peabody represents the very highest type of citizenship and of sincere devotion to the public good. When, three years ago, an honorary degree was conferred upon Mr. Peabody by Harvard University, he was announced and characterized by President Eliot in the following words: "George Foster Peabody, Southerner by birth, New York banker and financier by profession, wise counselor and disinterested worker on behalf of education in the Southern States." In politics, Mr. Peabody has only one object in any manner selfish: he would like to see his friend, Mr. Edward M. Shepard, governor of New York, and ultimately President of the United States. But this object is not a selfish one either, for Mr. Peabody unquestionably regards Mr. Shepard as the best-qualified man in sight. It is natural enough to find some of Mr. Peabody's associates on the executive committee playing the game of practical politics. It is a game by which they have thriven. Some of them are politicians in business and business men in politics. But Mr. Peabody is at once an idealist and a practical man of affairs, who honors any undertaking by his connection with it. He is absolutely opposed to the use of a single penny of campaign money for dubious purposes, and it is said that he will not be content merely to know how the fund is raised, but will also take a keen interest in the manner in which every dollar of it is expended.

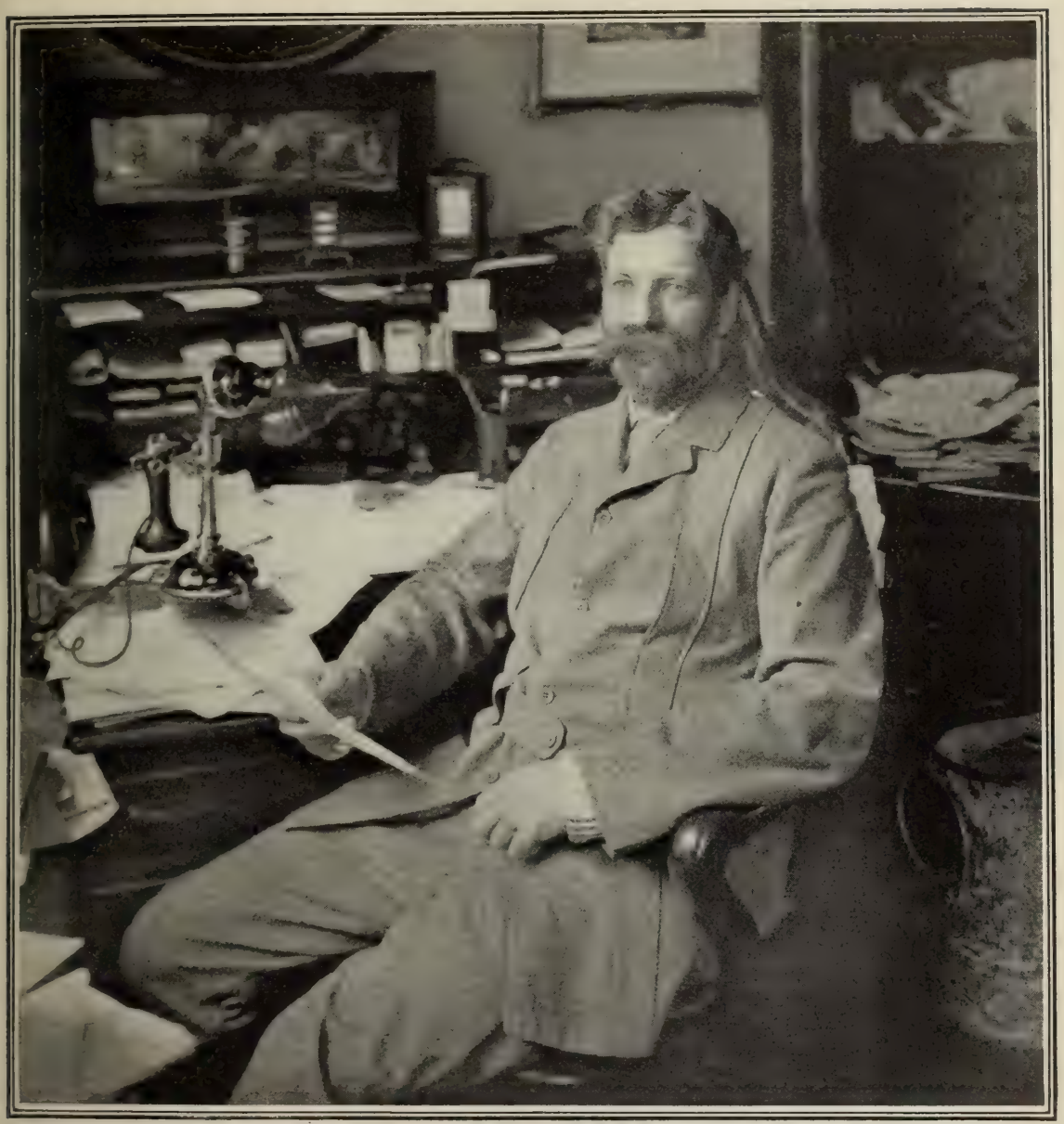
Will the Election Be Honest?

In an article which we publish elsewhere in this number on the Republican campaign and its manager, by Mr. Albert Halstead, it is declared that President Roosevelt's party, on its side, will make the



HON. PATRICK H. M'CARREN.

(Chairman of the New York State Democratic Executive Committee.)



MR. GEORGE FOSTER PEABODY, TREASURER OF THE DEMOCRATIC NATIONAL COMMITTEE, IN THE OFFICE OF HIS SUMMER HOME, AT LAKE GEORGE.

most business-like and conscientious use of its funds, devoting itself to a perfectly legitimate and honorable campaign of education, principally through speech-making and the distribution of printed matter. It is fairly certain, therefore, that we shall have good intentions on both sides as respects the use of money to promote success, although everybody familiar with political conditions is sadly aware that in extensive parts of the Eastern States which are to form the battle-ground there is shocking venality. The fact that voters can be bought creates a strong temptation to make careless use of campaign funds, especially in States necessary to victory and abounding in voters who always expect to be paid for coming to the polls.

The New York State Situation.

It has been apparent for many months that New York would be the chief battle-ground, and that it would be of the highest importance to secure strong candidates for the State ticket. Although Mr. Elihu



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HON. DANIEL S. LAMONT.

(Who is mentioned as Democratic candidate for governor of New York.)

Root is in no sense a candidate, and it would be a great personal sacrifice for him to reënter public life, it seemed highly probable up to the middle of last month that the Republican State convention, to be held on September 15, would tender him the nomination for governor. It is the opinion on all hands that he is far the best man the party could name. Governor Odell is now chairman of the State Republican Committee. With Mr. Root as the candidate for governor, the campaign would to a great extent run itself. The Democrats have a number of men on their list of possible candidates for the governorship. Mayor McClellan, of New York, has been so strongly assailed for having approved, last winter, of the Remsen gas bill, which Governor Odell subsequently vetoed, that his name has been dropped from the list. The most prominent among the names canvassed last month was that of Mr. Daniel S. Lamont, at one time private secretary to President Cleveland, later a member of Mr. Cleveland's cabinet, and now for a number of years an officer and director in large railway and other corporations. District-Attorney Jerome and Mr. De Lancey Nicoll were also frequently mentioned for the governorship, as was the Hon. Edward M. Shepard. Mr. Charles W. Goodyear, of Buffalo, was another name much seen in the newspapers in this connection. Of all these, Mr. Edward M. Shepard would count for most as a candidate against ex-Secretary Root. Mr. Shepard is a lawyer of the highest rank, a scholar and man of letters, and a political philosopher with an instinct for the practical conduct of affairs. He is taking active part in the Vermont and Maine campaigns. With Roosevelt and Parker as rival candidates for the Presidency, and men of the caliber of Root and Shepard as contestants for the governorship, the State of New York could well be congratulated upon having brought to the front a group of public men every one of whom is qualified by character, talents, and personality for the foremost place in the country's gift. This is as it ought to be.

Mr. Roosevelt's Notification Speech.

The two Presidential candidates, when officially notified of their nominations, made speeches of acceptance that were highly praised by the organs of their respective parties. Mr. Roosevelt's notification occurred on July 27, at Oyster Bay, N. Y., and Mr. Parker's on August 10, at Esopus, N. Y. Many people regarded the speech at Oyster Bay as one of the ablest and most skillful utterances ever made by President Roosevelt. It defended the consistent record of the Republican party, and declared it unwise to change the policies that have worked out so well. It argued firmly for a protective tariff, as against the Democratic platform's denunciation of protection as a robbery. It presented the case of Cuba as illustrative of the disposition of the Republican party to extend foreign markets "by reciprocal agreements whenever they could be made without injury to American industry and labor." It defined the Republican attitude toward labor and capital, praised the Panama policy, declared that in foreign relations there is not a cloud on the horizon, and made a remarkably telling statement of the Republican position in the Philippines. This speech of acceptance is to be followed—as long-established custom dictates—by a letter of a somewhat more elaborate character, and it was announced that this would be made public about September 10. After his speech of acceptance at Oyster Bay, on July 27, President Roosevelt returned to Washington, but again resumed residence at Oyster Bay on Saturday, August 20. Public business in all departments was well cleared up, and the cabinet officers were widely scattered.



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THE NOTIFICATION OF PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT AT OYSTER BAY. (SPEAKER CANNON STANDS ON THE PRESIDENT'S RIGHT.)

Judge Parker's Speech at Esopus.

Judge Parker's speech of acceptance was much more eagerly awaited than that of President Roosevelt, inasmuch as the President's views on every public question were already perfectly well known to the country, while Mr. Parker's views had been kept shrouded in a sort of sacred mystery. The Esopus effort was a sensible and ably written but an extremely cautious deliverance. In his preliminary references to the platform, which he praised highly, Judge Parker declared that "the spirit of the platform assures conservative instead of rash action." The address proceeded in abstract and general terms to explain the meaning of liberty, and to declare in favor of the maintenance of the executive, legislative, and judicial powers of the government as separate and equal. The discussion was followed by extended allusions, which obviously referred to recent conditions in Colorado. This abstract argument, which made up nearly one-half of the speech, was on behalf of what the Judge calls "constitutionalism" as against "imperialism." Its criticism of President Roosevelt and the Republican administration was implied rather than direct. Like the Albany platform, it contained many truisms.

On the Tariff and Trusts.

The middle section of the speech was devoted to the tariff. Here, again, the discussion was very guarded and cautious, and the purport of it can be fairly stated in two quotations,—namely, "It is due to them [the people] that we state our position to be in favor of a reasonable reduction of the tariff." The other is as follows: "That a wise and beneficent revision of the tariff can be accomplished as soon as both branches of Congress and an Executive in favor of it are elected, without creating that sense of uncertainty and instability that has on other occasions manifested itself." Judge Parker explains this by taking a position, often advocated in the pages of this magazine,—namely, that tariff changes should not be put into effect without allowing a long enough period to intervene to enable business conditions to adjust themselves. The Judge thinks that trusts have been encouraged and stimulated by excessive tariff duties. He is evidently not in favor of legislation against trusts, believing that "the common law as developed affords a complete legal remedy against monopolies." The calmness and reserve of his statements please the judicious, but irritate extremists.

On the Philippines.

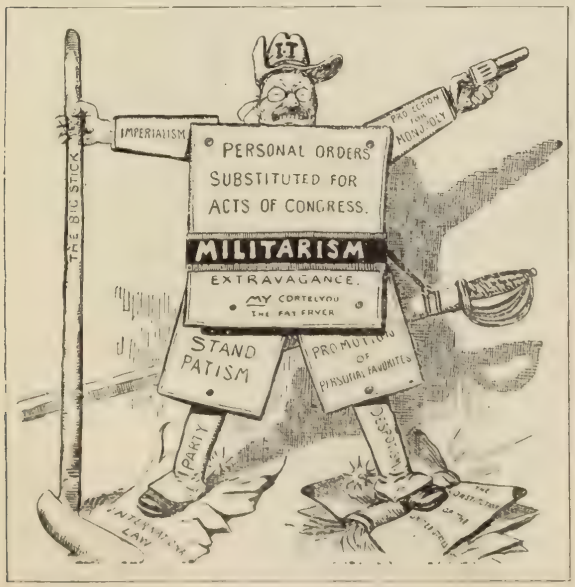
His argument on the Philippine question is fully summed up in the following quotation: "It is difficult to understand how any citizen of the United States, much less a descendant of Revolutionary stock, can tolerate the thought of permanently denying the right of self-government to the Filipinos." This form of statement is eminently characteristic of the working of Judge Parker's mind. The sentence will bear re-reading many times. Its qualifications give it at least eight removes from being a direct statement of opinion upon what should be done in a practical way about the Filipinos. It will be seen that the Judge is really not discussing the Philippine question, but discussing the question whether it is "difficult" or not to "understand" how a "citizen" can "tolerate" a certain kind of "thought." As a matter of fact, those practically dealing with the Filipino question are not denying the right of self-government, but are eagerly training the Filipinos in the practical art of self-government. The Judge admits that the accident of war brought us "responsibility" in the Philippines, "but," he proceeds, "that responsibility will be best subserved by preparing the islands as rapidly as possible for self-government, and giving them assurances that it will come as soon as they are reasonably prepared for it." The most important newspapers supporting Judge Parker have been equally divided as to whether by "self-government" he means independence, or means that very condition of things which the Republicans are striving to bring about. At least, he has succeeded in demonstrating that we are so fortunate as not just now to have on our hands any Philippine question at all.

Have We a Tariff Issue?

He has also demonstrated, furthermore, that we have not really on our hands any tariff question in a sharp or imminent sense. He himself points out that, even if successful this fall, the Democratic party cannot obtain a majority in the Senate during the next four years, and cannot, therefore, revise the tariff except by Republican acquiescence and coöperation. Experience, however, has always shown that legislation on a question of such importance is never accomplished unless the two houses of Congress are in control of the same party. If the Republicans do not, within the coming four years, apply themselves to the business of a reasonable modification of the Dingley tariff, the Democrats will, in any case, win a Congressional victory in 1906, and a sweeping victory all along the line in 1908.

The Two Candidates on War and Peace.

Judge Parker makes a fine criticism upon militarism, and declares as follows: "We are not a military people bent upon conquest and engaged in extending our domains in foreign lands, or desirous of securing natural advantages, however great, by force, but a people loving peace, not only for ourselves, but for all the nations of the earth." This is clearly true and not to be disputed by





TWO DEMOCRATIC CARTOONS ON THE "MILITARY" ROOSEVELT.

The issue. From the *World* (New York). Two views of the President. - From the *Eagle* (Brooklyn).



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JUDGE PARKER MAKING HIS ACCEPTANCE SPEECH AT ESOPUS.
(Hon. Champ Clark, of Missouri, who had made the notification speech, sits in front, wearing a straw hat.)

any man. Fortunately, it is a subject upon which there is not the slightest difference of opinion between the two parties. If it is intended as a subtle kind of allusion to President Roosevelt's having served in the war against Spain, it will scarcely impress the country as sound. The Democratic party of the South and West did even more than the Republican party to bring on that war, and if it was in any manner right to give moral support to it at home, it must have been equally right to go to the front as a soldier. Mr. Roosevelt has spent his life as an industrious man of letters and a diligent public servant in civil capacities. To endeavor to make him out a military personage eager for war and glorying in the clash of arms is a thing that harmlessly amuses the American public. On his part, President Roosevelt declared, in his speech of acceptance: "We seek international amity for the same reasons that make us believe in peace within our own borders, and we seek this peace not because we are afraid or unready, but because we think that peace is right as well as advantageous." Furthermore, it is to be remembered that our governmental relations with the whole world have never been so perfectly amicable as they are at the present time. In the eyes of the world at large, Mr. Roosevelt is regarded as the foremost living representative of arbitration and the methods of peace, as against the methods of force, in the settlement of international questions.

A Single-term Candidate.

The most striking statement in Judge Parker's speech of acceptance is that in which he declares for a single term. A part of what he said on this interesting subject is in the following language:

> If the action of the convention shall be indorsed by an election by the people, I will, God helping me, give to the discharge of the duties of that exalted office the best service of which I am capable, and at the end of the term retire to private life. I shall not be a candidate for nor shall I accept a renomination. . . .
>
> It is simply my judgment that the interests of this country are now so vast, and the questions presented are frequently of such overpowering magnitude to the people, that it is indispensable to the maintenance of a befitting attitude before the people, not only that the Chief Magistrate should be independent, but that that independence should be known of all men.



MISS DEMOCRACY (to Uncle Sam): "As I am now safe and sane, I would like to manage your household." UNCLE SAM: "How long have you been out of the asylum?"—From the *Leader* (Cleveland).

It is clear that Judge Parker's title to the confidence and support of about half of the voters of the United States does not rest upon the expression of distinct tenets or his arraignment of the Republican party. It will rest upon the fact that his views are marvelously like those known to be held by leading Republicans such as President Roosevelt, Mr. Root, Secretary Hay, Mr. Taft, and others, and that his election would not, therefore, result in any radical change in the method or spirit of the admirable administration that the country has enjoyed during the past few years. Mr. Parker is placed in the difficult position of having to satisfy his party by an effort to differentiate issues upon public questions, at the very time when the elements that have captured the Democratic machinery have wholly destroyed the issues that had previously existed, and that had been represented by Mr. Bryan, Mr. Hearst, and the radicals of the party. There has never been a parallel situation in our entire political history. Judge Parker resigned from the bench on August 5, after a continuous service of twenty-five years. His letter of resignation to the Secretary of State is as follows:

HON. JOHN F. O'BRIEN,
Secretary of State, Albany, N. Y.

SIR:—I hereby respectfully resign my office as Chief Judge of the Court of Appeals of the State of New York, such resignation to take effect immediately.

ALTON B. PARKER.

Rosemount, Esopus, N. Y., August 5, 1904.

The Early Campaigns in Vermont and Maine.

The good people of the State of Vermont are privileged in Presidential years to hear some of the foremost political orators on both sides, through the simple fact that they hold their State election in September instead of November. While Vermont always goes Republican, the size of the majority is supposed to bear some relation to prevailing public sentiment throughout the country, and marked Democratic gains in Vermont,—as in Maine, where also an early State election is held,

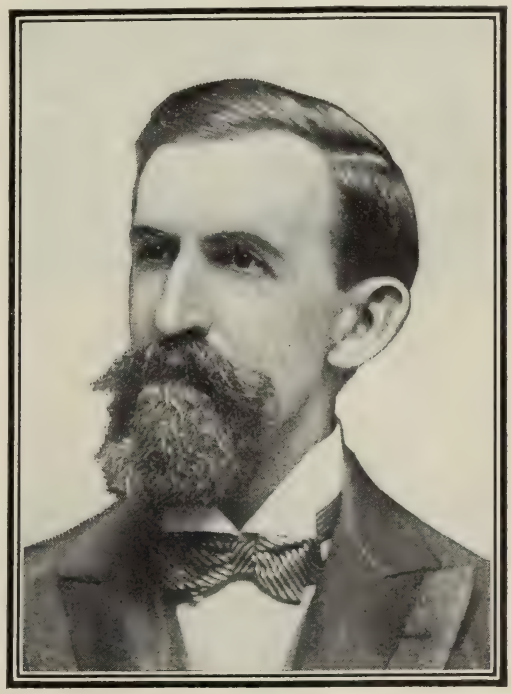
—would be regarded as pointing to victory in New York, Connecticut, and New Jersey. The Vermont election occurs on September 6, and the Maine election on September 12. In the middle of August, the Democrats discovered that the Republicans were making a notable speaking campaign in these two States, and they decided to send a number of prominent and eloquent campaigners to try to reduce Republican majorities, particularly in Maine. The Republicans would like to carry the State by at least 25,000, and the Democrats will regard it as a highly auspicious sign if they can hold the Republican plurality down to 15,000. This was the vote by which Harrison carried the State in 1892. The McKinley pluralities were much larger, and at the State election of 1902, the Republican plurality was about 27,500. In Vermont, the Harrison plurality was nearly 22,000; that of McKinley in 1900 nearly 30,000 and the Republican plurality in the State election of 1902 was 24,500. At these early elections, Vermont and Maine choose Congressmen as well as State officers, and a decided sag in the Republican vote would indicate a probable chance for the Democrats to make some Congressional gains in Massachusetts and to carry Connecticut for Judge Parker. Mayor Cyrus W. Davis, of Waterville, was nominated for governor of Maine by the Democrats in July. The Republican candidate is the Hon. William T. Cobb. The Republican and Democratic candidates for the governorship of Vermont are, respectively, Charles J. Bell and Eli H. Porter.

Politics in the Bay State.

In Massachusetts, there is a considerable degree of political activity on both sides. The movement for reciprocity with Canada is under constant discussion and has a large backing among business men. The Democrats claim that there is capital for them in this movement, and they are also trying to gain votes through a revival of the activities of the anti-Imperialist League, which, early last month, held a great meeting in Faneuil Hall, Boston, with distinguished speakers like Carl Schurz, Charles Francis Adams, Edward M. Shepard, and W. Bourke Cockran on the platform, the meeting, of course, being in the interest of Judge Parker. Colonel Gaston, as Democratic national committeeman, makes elaborate claims to the effect that Massachusetts is good fighting-ground this year. It had been expected that Colonel Gaston would be renominated for governor by the Democrats, or else that that honor would go to Mr. Charles S. Hamlin, formerly Assistant Secretary of the Treasury. It was announced later in August, however, that the Hon. Richard Olney, ex-Secretary of State, would probably be nominated. The Republican State convention will not be held until October 7.

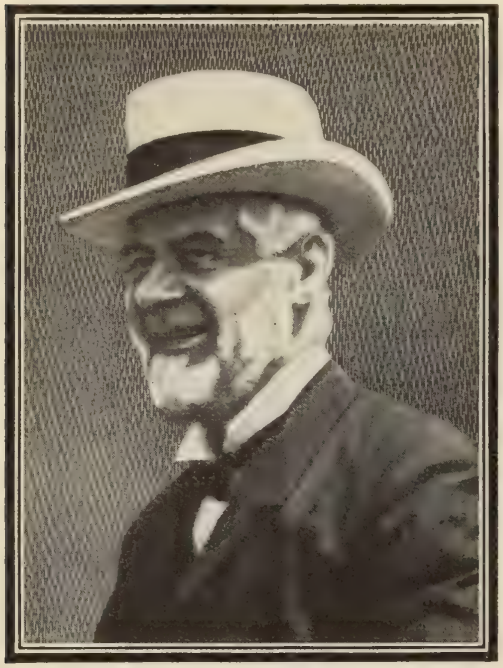
"Out in Indiana."

The speech notifying Senator Fairbanks of his nomination as Vice-President was made by ex-Secretary Root, at Indianapolis, on August 3. Mr. Root laid stress upon the importance of the office of the Vice-Presidency, and complimented Mr. Fairbanks upon his qualifications in general and in particular. By way of contrast, he



HON. JOHN W. KERN, DEMOCRATIC NOMINEE FOR GOVERNOR OF INDIANA.

pointed out the fact that the Democrats had nominated a man too old to be relied on for efficiency in the Presidential office in case of the President's death or disability. Mr. Fairbanks accepted the nomination in a brief speech contrasting the policies and records of the two parties. This will be followed later by the usual letter of acceptance. It is understood that Mr. Fairbanks will take a very active part in the campaign, speaking a great deal, particularly in States west of Ohio. He has not resigned his seat in the Senate, and there is, of course, no reason why he should take such a step unless elected to the Vice-Presidency in November. The Republicans are confident of success in Indiana, but the Democrats also express them-



HON. HENRY GASSAWAY DAVIS.
(As candidate for Vice-President.)

selves as hopeful, and Mr. Taggart, the Democratic chairman, will be relied upon to give attention to his own State, Mr. Sheehan, Mr. Belmont, and others assuming responsibility for the situation in New York. John W. Kern was nominated for governor by the Democrats, at Indianapolis, on August 3. Mr. Kern had been proposed for the Vice-Presidency, at St. Louis, by the Indiana delegation. Some of the Republicans are afraid that the rivalries engendered by the ambition of a number of men to succeed Mr. Fairbanks in the Senate may hamper the Republican cause in that State quite as much as Mr. Fairbanks' name on the Presidential ticket can aid it.

A Venerable Candidate.

The notification of the Hon. Henry Gassaway Davis, Democratic candidate for the Vice-Presidency, occurred at White Sulphur Springs, on August 17. Mr. Davis, in his acceptance speech, sounded the calamity note, and declared that these were bad times. In his own language: "Work is scarce, many wage-earners are unemployed and wages are reduced. The apprehension which now prevails in business circles and the present unsatisfactory industrial conditions of the country seem to demand a political change." He spoke up bravely for the rights of labor, associating himself with the workingman: "For years I worked in the ranks as a wage-earner, and know what it is to earn my living in the sweat of my brow. . . . My experience as a wage-earner and my association with labor have alike taught me the value of Democratic principles." It was hardly needful that Mr. Davis should have reminded his hearers that he had ceased to be a laboring man more than a generation ago, and had joined the ranks of the much-objurgated monopolists and plutocrats before most present-day "wage-earners" were born. One is almost compelled to quote Mr. Dooley's humorous characterization of the excellent veteran who is Judge Parker's running mate. It is as follows:

"I haven't med up me mind," said Mr. Dooley. "They're both good an great men. Hinnery Gassaway Davis is a fine ol' Virginia (West) gintleman. Through his middle name, he is related to Willum J. Bryan, an' he is father-in-law of another gr-reat man, Sinitor Elkins. Mr. Davis is eighty-wan years old an' has forty millyon dollars, or is forty millyon years old an' has eighty-wan dollars, I'm not sure which, but, annyhow, th' figures passes belief. He is a good man, an' it is thought that his ripe judgment an' still riper fortune will add gr-reat strenth to th' ticket. I see in th' pa-apers that he looks twinty years younger thin his years, an' I'll bet that befure th' campaign is over he'll feel three millyon dollars younger in his bank-roll."



HON. JOHN SHARP WILLIAMS,
OF MISSISSIPPI.

Mr. Davis' speech charges the Republicans with extravagance, eulogizes Judge Parker, calls the St. Louis platform "sane, safe, and sound," and promises in a future letter of acceptance to give his "views upon some of the important questions that are commanding the attention of the country." Mr. Davis was notified in a speech an hour long by the Hon. John Sharp Williams, which was an elaborate and very ill-judged exercise in sarcasm and ridicule intended to be at the expense of President Roosevelt. It could not hurt the President in the least, but it has, unfortunately, hurt Mr. Williams a good deal. This is the more regrettable because Mr. Williams has really been making something of a record at Washington, and ought to have risen to the dignity of his opportunities at St. Louis, and again in this West Virginia speech of August 17.

West Virginia as Doubtful Territory.

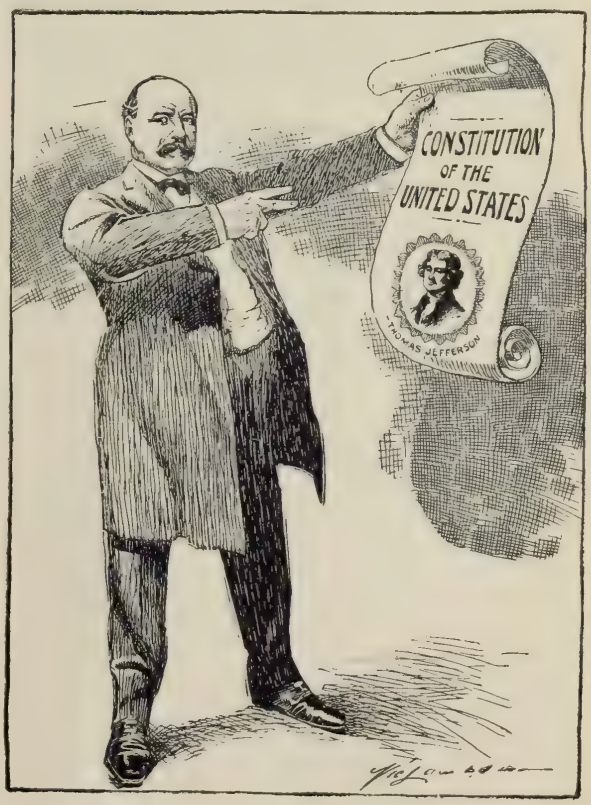
West Virginia was carried by the Republicans in the two McKinley campaigns, but in previous Presidential elections for twenty-four years it had been Democratic. The Republicans of West Virginia have recently been split by a bitter fight over proposals for the reform of taxation. Mr. Dawson, the Republican nominee for governor, led the tax reform movement as against the faction representing large corporate interests. The Democrats claim that the lack of Republican harmony will give them the State, their nominee for the governorship being State Senator John Cornwell, a young man of force and ability. The oil, coal, gas, and other corporate interests of West Virginia are supposed this year to favor the Parker and Davis ticket, although heretofore they have supported Senators Elkins and Scott, the Republican leaders. Mr. Scott's term is about to expire in the Senate, and he has the strongest personal motives for seeking to carry the State for Roosevelt, and he is on Mr. Cortelyou's executive committee; while Senator Elkins is equally active, wishing to avoid the charge of tacitly conceding the State to his father-in-law. Thus, West Virginia may fairly be placed in the list of doubtful States. The Democratic campaign committee will rely upon Mr. Davis himself to support and guide the West Virginia canvass, just as Mr. Taggart is to direct operations in Indiana, and Judge Parker, with Mr. Belmont, Mr. Hill, Mr. Sheehan, and the other members of a well-known group of New York politicians are to assume full responsibility in the most critical task of all.

In the West.

In Illinois and Wisconsin, the Democrats will exert themselves to the utmost, although there does not seem to be any probability that they will carry either State. In the course of the present month, there is likely to be some clearing up of the factionrent Republican situation in Wisconsin. There may also within a month be some indication of the way in which labor troubles and other current problems are to affect the voting in Chicago. The Democrats are going to try hard to carry Colorado and the group of Rocky Mountain States. The political situation in Colorado can be better outlined after the middle of September, when State tickets will have been nominated and the local issues fairly joined. There is some difference of opinion on the question whether or not it will be best for the Republicans to renominate Governor Peabody, who is held responsible by the representatives of organized labor and others for the recent drastic way in which the militia has dealt with the strike situation in the Cripple Creek district. The militia has now been withdrawn from all disturbed neighborhoods in Colorado and the local authorities have resumed sway.

As to "Law and Order" in Colorado.

There has been a veritable deluge of controversial material printed about the situation in Colorado, and the outside public remains confused both as to the facts and as to their legal and ethical bearings. It is just possible, in view of all that has happened, that it would have been better if the State authorities had not tried so hard to do their duty by keeping order in the Cripple Creek district. If the militia had not been sent, the citizens would probably have arisen, and, after the manner of a frontier vigilance committee, dealt in a drastic way with dynamiters and anarchists who had come into Cripple Creek from the Coeur d'Alene and other centers of discord, in order to make trouble and bring disgrace upon the name of organized labor. If the citizens in their desperation had driven murderers and other law-breakers out of the community, they would have been acting as many American



"THUS FAR SHALT THOU GO AND NO FARTHER!"
(Tenor of former Judge Parker's speech of acceptance.)
From the *Press* (Binghamton).

communities have been obliged to act in times of similar emergency. But when methods of procedure laid down in the Constitution and laws are invoked, one expects to see them consistently pursued. One does not expect to see the militia organization proceed by the methods of a vigilance committee. It was not a very large number of men who were deported, and doubtless some of them richly deserved all and more than they had to suffer. But such means for ridding a community of a reign of terror will never be pursued without causing a large amount of local criticism and much mild rebuke, in the name of constitutions and laws, of the sort that Judge Parker puts into his speech of acceptance. The Labor Bureau in the Department of Commerce and Labor at Washington has been diligently and impartially investigating the whole subject of the recent troubles in the Cripple Creek district, and when the report of that inquiry becomes public, we shall, for the first time, have access to a complete and exhaustive *résumé* of the facts. The Republicans of Colorado are in such a position in general as to be compelled, both by consistency and by their convictions, to uphold the course that Governor Peabody's administration has pursued. Yet it is undoubtedly felt that Governor Peabody has aroused a good deal of personal feeling against himself, and that some workingmen in Colorado who would like to vote for President Roosevelt may not know how, under the Australian system, to vote a split ticket, and, in case of Peabody's renomination, may be driven to the Democratic fold.

Disorders in Another Direction.

Although the troubles in the Cripple Creek district will inevitably be forced into the political campaign in Colorado, they do not in reality belong at all in the domain of national party politics; and Judge Parker, though in most respects marvelously prudent and tactful, has shown some lack of judgment in giving nearly one-half of his speech of acceptance to a preachment upon law and order and the constitutional rights of the citizen, based upon the methods used in ending the reign of terror in Colorado's altitudinous mining district. For, consistency would now seem to require that he should in his letter of acceptance derive his illustrations from more recent occurrences at Statesboro, Ga. Several members of a family in a country neighborhood had been murdered. A number of negroes were arrested on suspicion. The machinery of the law worked promptly, and two were convicted and sentenced to be hung. It was expected that others still detained in jail would be found implicated, and in due time convicted. The mob, however, was impatient, and was determined to break the jail and lynch the negroes. On request of the trial judge, a company of militia was called out to guard the jail. It was fully explained to the mob that the processes of the law were working with efficiency, and the confessions of the two men already convicted were relied upon to make more certain the conviction of several others. The mob returned, however, and soon discovered that of the company of a hundred militia set to guard the jail, only twenty-five were actually on duty. Further, it readily found out that these twenty-five had been instructed not to load their guns. After some show of resistance, the twenty-five were easily disarmed, and the two men who had been convicted, and would have been hung within a few days, were taken out, tortured, and burned at the stake. Another negro who had been arrested and held on suspicion, but who was released for lack of evidence against him, was followed by a company of armed white men and ruthlessly murdered. Two or three other negroes in the neighborhood were also murdered by members of the mob, and a considerable number, night after night, were flogged and warned to leave the neighborhood.

Colorado and Georgia.

In Colorado, we are told, the militia was too high-handed in putting down the mob and ridding the community of dynamiters and criminals. In Georgia, the militia was supine, and the mob trampled without hindrance upon every safeguard of law and order. Colorado has a Republican for governor, and Georgia has a Democrat. Both situations grow out of strictly local conditions. Neither of them has the slightest bearing upon questions at issue between supporters of President Roosevelt and supporters of Judge Parker. But the Democrats in the East, who insist upon reproaching the Republican party for one phase or another of strife and trouble in Rocky Mountain mining camps, must not expect that they will hear nothing in reply about one phase or another of disorder in Democratic States. They will be told of the wanton savagery of communities that make a neighborhood orgy out of burning men at the stake who are already condemned to legal execution, and the supineness of officials who set unarmed men to guard jails against armed mobs. The American people ought to remember that underlying facts are exactly the same in campaign years as in any other years; and, so far as we can learn it, the hard truth is that in the main the conduct of Governor Peabody in attempting to enforce law and order in the Cripple Creek district has been creditable, and abundantly entitles him to reëlection; while,

on the other hand, the recent conduct of almost all the Southern governors in their determination to lessen the lynching evil has been not only sincere and courageous, but truly effective.

Southern Progress.

Foremost among all these should be be mentioned Virginia's brilliant governor, the Hon. A. J. Montague. North Carolina's governor, Charles B. Aycock, has stood like a tower of strength for law and order and every form of true social and educational progress. The governor of Georgia is not personally blameworthy for the dreadful occurrences at Statesboro. Civilization must make its way in this country by vigilance and struggle. It is highly cheering, therefore, to note that thus far this year the number of lynchings in the Southern States, as compared with former years, shows a marked reduction. The cause of education steadily advances in the South, and nowhere do the leaders of education better understand the true function of the country district school than some of those who are now directing the Southern school movement. Several of the Southern States have now decided to require that all district schools shall teach something of the principles of agriculture and industry. To make the new methods thoroughly effective will require many years, but it is a great gain to know what ought to be done and to have reached a point of determination. Governor Blanchard, of Louisiana, with a State superintendent of education working in most zealous coöperation, has chosen to make educational progress his foremost policy and chief concern.

Mr. Folk and Missouri Politics.

There is a political situation in the State of Missouri that is so variously reported as to have produced confusion in the minds of most people outside of that State who have cared enough to seek any enlightenment about it. As our readers were informed last month, Mr. Joseph W. Folk, the young circuit attorney of St. Louis, famed for his exposure and prosecution of municipal and legislative boodling and bribery, succeeded in winning the Democratic nomination for governor. The convention accepted his short and simple platform, which declared against political crime and corruption ; but the Democratic machine seems to have been bent rather than broken, and it surrounded Mr. Folk with a ticket of its own sort. Next to Mr. Folk, the most prominent men on the ticket are two who had been exposed by him as reprehensibly if not criminally connected with the boodling conspiracies against which he regards his present campaign as a direct crusade. Mr. Folk's justification is



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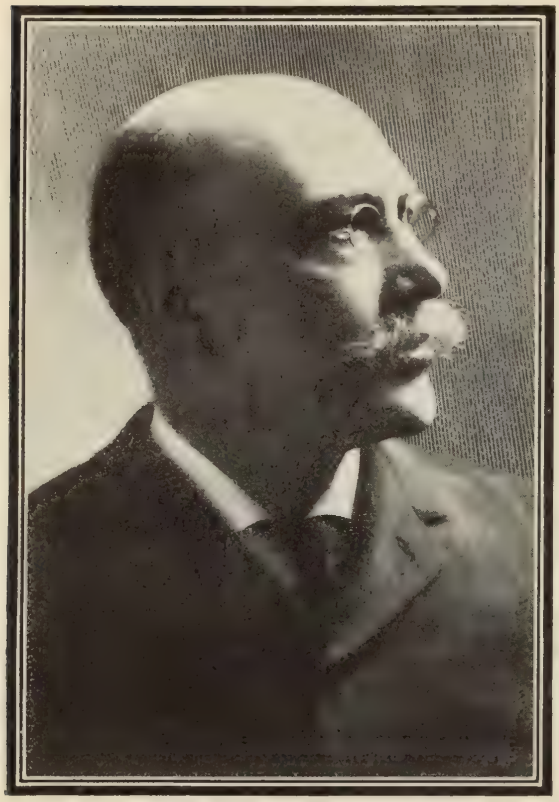
HON. JOSEPH W. FOLK.

(The Democratic nominee for governor of Missouri.)

that the convention adopted his platform, and all the candidates agreed to stand upon it. This does not seem to be entirely ingenuous, inasmuch as it has never been difficult to get rascals to adopt resolutions condemning rascality. Thus, Missouri's most active Democrat, United States Senator William J. Stone, came into lively controversy with Mr. Folk last month by demanding an answer to the question whether or not Mr. Folk and his followers were in good faith supporting Cook and Allen, the candidates, respectively, for Secretary of State and Auditor of State. The independent Democratic press of St. Louis, while supporting Folk, is distinctly repudiating Cook and Allen, and advising the friends of reform to scratch the ticket.

Walbridge and the Republicans.

Meanwhile, the Republicans have taken the field with an able and prominent Republican for governor in the person of the Hon. Cyrus P. Walbridge, a well-known citizen of St. Louis, president of the Business Men's League of that city, and a director of the Exposition. Mr. Walbridge was for many years prominent in the city government, having been president of the upper branch of the municipal assembly, and for four years

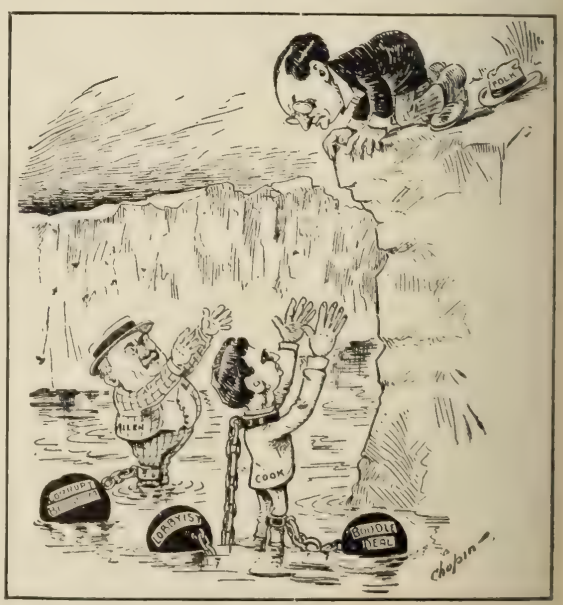


HON. CYRUS P. WALBRIDGE.
(The Republican nominee for governor of Missouri.)

mayor. There is likely to be dispute as to his genuineness as a municipal reformer; but it is our belief that he gave St. Louis a very upright and intelligently conducted administration. If the Democratic machine had not yielded to the inevitable and nominated Folk for governor, but had nominated a man of their own, the Republicans would have had a fine opportunity to carry the State both for the Walbridge ticket and the Roosevelt electors. As matters stand now, the Democrats are counting upon Folk to carry the State by a sweeping majority for the Parker electors through the winning of the reform vote. There are outside Republicans who have been so much pleased with Mr. Folk's conduct as prosecuting attorney that they believe everybody regardless of party should vote for him for governor. There are also Republicans who believe that it would have been good tactics to have indorsed Folk's nomination, and to have put his name at the head of the Republican ticket, with the idea that this would enable reformers of a Republican and Roosevelt inclination to cast their ballots, by a single mark of the pencil at the head of the Republican column, at once for Roosevelt and for Folk. This, however, presupposes Mr. Folk's consent; and it is not likely that the Democratic managers of Missouri would have permitted Mr. Folk's name to stand at the head of the Republican column as a plan for strengthening the Roosevelt vote. For that limited number of people who have the courage to try to vote a split ticket on an Australian ballot paper, it will be entirely possible, as matters stand, to vote one way in national politics and another way in Missouri State and local politics. But most voters will not try experiments of that sort. There are many Republicans in Missouri who urge that the true logic of Democratic corruption, as exposed by Folk, calls for Republican victory, especially when so solid and competent a business man as Mr. Walbridge is the candidate. There are other Republicans in Missouri who believe that Mr. Folk ought to be elected at all hazards, regardless of his associates on the ticket, and who are of opinion that in their desire to defeat Folk the boodling element would prefer to see Walbridge elected.

What Do the "Boodlers" Prefer?

This, again, seems scarcely credible, inasmuch as Folk's principal ability to do harm to the boodlers lay in the mere fact of his holding the office of circuit attorney. Thus, by way of parallel, it is easy to believe that there might be a great many rascals and evil-doers in the city of New York who,



AN IMPOSSIBLE JOB.

"You can't pull them out, Mr. Folk, but they can pull you in."—From the *Post-Dispatch* (St. Louis).

for the sake of getting Mr. Jerome out of the district attorney's office, which he now holds, would be more than glad to help put him into the governor's chair, where he could do them no direct or particular harm. Some of Mr. Folk's critics take the ground that the work of exposing and prosecuting corruption and fraud in St. Louis and at the State capital of Missouri has only begun ; and that Mr. Folk, if indeed solely devoted to the cause of political purification, ought to have sought another term as circuit attorney rather than the governorship, where, they allege, his ability to aid the cause will at least be greatly diminished. The governor's term in Missouri is four years, and Mr. Folk's friends are already thinking of him as a Presidential candidate in 1908. Senator Stone, who indorses Cook and Allen as in every respect quite good enough for him, declares that Folk had sought some kind of alliance or compromise with these gentlemen, while Mr. Folk himself stoutly denies it. The newspapers of the country meanwhile, apropos of Mr. Folk's triumph in securing the nomination for governor, have preached many elaborate sermons to young men based on the text that the short cut to political success nowadays for the ambitious youth lies not in being the serviceable tool of the bosses and the machine, but in striking out boldly as a fighting reformer. If Mr. Jerome should carry off the Democratic nomination for governor of New York, these sermons would be repeated with a mere change of names. Meanwhile, there is always a little danger lest the young reformer, who finds that his efforts to overthrow the wrong and uphold the right are proving an easy ladder upon which he may mount to political fame and fortune, should at times lose sight of the means by which he has risen. St. Louis and Missouri are far from being purified, and it is said that the pool-rooms still flourish in New York City !

Turkey Makes Concessions.

American diplomacy scored another triumph in the long Roosevelt-Hay series last month. It had been impossible to obtain a respectful and business-like treatment at Constantinople for the American minister in the presentation of just claims. It had come to be not merely a question of the treatment of American schools throughout the empire, nor yet of the neglect or refusal to pay money that was admittedly due for wanton destruction of American property. But, above those things, it had come to be a question of the dignity and honor of the American Government. An American naval squadron, under Admiral Jewell, was ordered to anchor off the port of Smyrna, and another American fleet of battleships under Admiral Barker was at Gibraltar awaiting call. The Sultan at once found it convenient to see Mr. Leishman, the American minister. There was a prompt exchange of views, and Mr. Leishman was able to inform our State Department that all demands had been conceded. The great point gained is that American Protestant schools and colleges are henceforth to be placed upon the same footing of recognition throughout the Turkish Empire as has long been accorded the institutions of the Greek, Catholic, and other Christian bodies.

Russia and Neutral Shipping Again.

Despite the conciliatory tone adopted by the Russian Government in the matter of the seizure of the British vessels *Malacca* and *Knight Commander* by the Vladivostok squadron, its promise to send no more of the volunteer fleet out of the Black Sea, except as merchantmen, (commissioning them regularly as men-of-war from some other Russian port afterward), and despite, also, the release of part of the cargo of the ship *Arabia* by the Russian prize court, questions of the duties of neutrals and the rights of neutral vessels in the present war continue to agitate Europe and, to a certain extent, the United States also. The contention of the British Government in the matter of the vessels seized in the Red Sea by the Russian raiders was twofold : (1) that it was for the seizing vessel to prove the ultimate destination of the cargo, and that the consignment to a neutral port of goods not inherently contraband should be conclusive evidence of their legality ; (2) the undefined status of the Russian vessels. "If they are warships, they had no right to pass through the Dardanelles ; if they are not warships, they have no right to make seizures : they are pirates." This second point was a vital one. Feeling in England ran so high that open war was talked of. The seizure of German vessels also aroused opposition, and Russia's own ally, France, expressed disapproval. So the Red Sea seizures were disavowed, and the Peninsular & Oriental Steamship Company's liner *Malacca* was released in the Mediterranean, after a formal examination in the presence of Russian and British consuls. Orders were sent to the raiders to make no more captures. The act of the commanders of the *Petersburg* and *Smolensk*, Count Lamsdorff attributes to "an excess of zeal," and makes an apology. This, however, leaves open and undecided the question of the right of the Russian Government to take its vessels of the volunteer fleet out of the Black Sea as merchant vessels and then transform them at sea into vessels of war.

The Sinking of the "Knight Commander."

A great deal of excitement was aroused in England over the seizure and sinking of the British ship *Knight Commander* by the Russian Vladivostok squadron on July 24. The *Knight Commander* was a British vessel bound for Japan, with a cargo consisting chiefly of railroad material consigned for private firms of Japan, the owners say, but, according to the Russian captain who sank her, really destined for Chemulpho, to be used in the Japanese military railroad in Korea. Admiral Jessen, in his report, declares that the captain of the *Knight Commander* made a false statement as to the character of his cargo, which was found to be contraband; and, "not being able to bring her to the nearest Russian port without manifest danger to the squadron, owing to her not having enough coal, we sank her, after taking off all her crew and removing her papers." Again, excitement in England ran high. Premier Balfour referred to the affair in Parliament as an "outrage" and called upon Russia for an apology and reparation. The Russian prize court at Vladivostok confirmed the judgment of Admiral Jessen, and adjudged the *Knight Commander* a lawful prize of war, and approved the Russian admiral's sinking her, in view of his inability to bring her into port.

American Cargo Involved.

A few days after the seizure of the *Knight Commander*, another British vessel, the *Arabia*, one of the Hamburg-American liners, chartered by the American Trading Company, was captured near the Japanese coast, and sent to Vladivostok under a prize crew. Her cargo consisted of 2,700 tons of flour, billed to Hongkong, and 460 tons of flour and 540 tons of railroad iron billed to Japanese ports. This cargo was mostly American owned. The prize court at Vladivostok decided that the ship and as much of her cargo as was destined for China were not contraband. These were accordingly released, and that part of the cargo consisting of flour and railroad material destined for Japan was confiscated.

What Is Contraband?

Early in February, the Russian Government issued a list of articles which it intended to regard as contraband. This list consisted of a number of foodstuffs and other commodities, which, according to the American and English view, are contraband only under certain circumstances, and cannot be declared so on the mere statement of the belligerent. Munitions of war are, of course, always contraband. Railroad supplies, if intended to advance the enemy's military operations; foodstuffs, if destined for the fighting forces or the beleaguered towns of the enemy, are also contraband. Railroad supplies, foodstuffs, and other commodities, however, which are not directly intended for the use of the military arm, are not contraband according to the best authorities on international law, and according to international custom. It is for the raiding vessel to prove their belligerent destination, if it does not so appear on the manifest of the captured ship. The Russian position is contained in the semi-official statement given out upon the seizure of the *Arabia*: "Foodstuffs consigned to an enemy's port in sufficient quantity to create the presumption that it is intended for the use of the government's military or naval forces, are *prima facie* contraband and sufficient to warrant holding the vessel for decision of a prize court."

The Right to Sink Neutral Ships.

There is, indeed, no international definition of contraband, but the Western world is fairly well agreed upon the doctrine of "continuous voyages," and the fact that some commodities may be, or may not be, contraband, according to their destination. It is not likely that Europe and the United States will permit Russia to supervise their Oriental trade, nor will they acquiesce in the judgment of a Russian naval commander as to his right to sink a neutral vessel on the assumption that she is carrying contraband, and that the immediate safety of his warships is of more value than the neutral, whose transgression has not been proven, and the very evidence of whose wrong-doing he destroys when he sinks her.

Mr. Hay on Principles Involved.

It is gratifying to learn that, on June 10 last, the American State Department, in a circular to American ambassadors in Europe, defined our conception of the rights of neutrals so clearly that there can be no mistake. Secretary Hay says, referring to the Russian list:

> The recognition in principle of the treatment of coal and other fuel and raw cotton as absolutely contraband of war might ultimately lead to a total inhibition of the sale by neutrals to the people of belligerent states of all articles which could be finally converted to military uses.
>
> Such an extension of the principle by treating coal and other fuel and raw cotton as absolutely contraband of war, simply because they are shipped by a neutral to a non-blockaded port of a belligerent, would not appear to be in accord with the reasonable and lawful rights of a neutral commerce.

The whole Russian contention as to contraband is "not in accord with the reasonable and lawful rights of neutral commerce," as set forth by our American authorities.

To quote further from Mr. Hay's criticism :

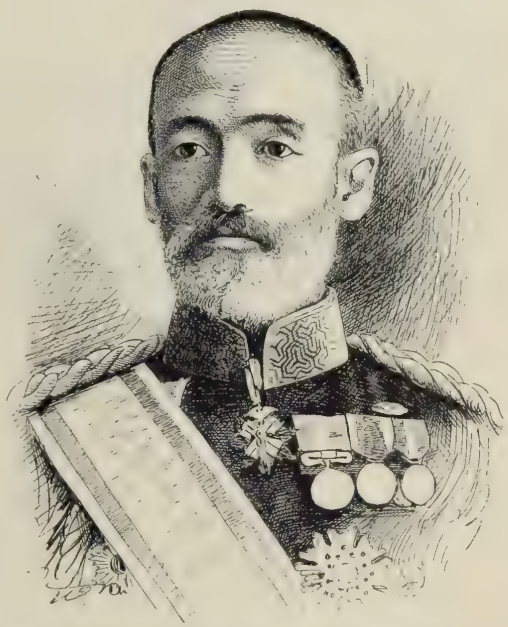
The principle under consideration might, therefore, be extended so as to apply to every article of human use, which might be declared contraband of war simply because it might ultimately become in any degree useful to a belligerent for military purposes.

Closing in Upon Port Arthur.

By August 20, the Japanese land forces were so near the main works of Port Arthur, and the Russian fleet had been so hopelessly scattered and disabled, that the fall of the fortress was plainly only a few days distant. On August 18, General Nogi, commander of the besieging army, sent in his summons to surrender. The terms he offered provided that the garrison should march out with the honors of war and join General Kuropatkin ; that all non-combatants should be brought to a place designated by the Japanese, and that the Russian warships in the harbor (the battleships *Retvizan*, *Sevastopol*, *Pobieda*, *Peresviet*, and *Poltava*, and the armored cruiser *Bayan*, with twelve or more destroyers and four gunboats) be surrendered to the Japanese. General Stoessel, the Russian commander, who had held the fortress so gallantly for six months, despite a very limited supply of coal and ammunition, had refused these terms absolutely, and, as we went to press, it was announced that the Japanese were making a final assault upon the works. Their losses had been very heavy, some accounts putting them as high as 15,000 men. The heaviest losses were due to the electric mines which the Russians had been using to great advantage ever since the siege began. For a month, the besiegers had been closing in slowly upon the fortress, gaining point by point, suffering terrible losses in men, but advancing relentlessly. In their charges, the Japanese, even according to their enemies, displayed the most furious and absolutely fearless dash, particularly in their frontal attacks. In the later engagements, they employed the extended formations adopted by the British in the South African war, with the result that the losses were less severe. The losses of men within the Russian lines at Port Arthur had also, unquestionably, been very severe.

Naval Battle at Port Arthur.

The beginning of the end with Port Arthur was the capture by the Japanese, on July 26 or 27, of Wolf Hill, one of the main defenses of the city, within two miles of the inner fortifications. Planting its heavy siege guns on this eminence, the investing army was able, not only to bombard the town itself and partially demolish the dry-dock in the harbor, but to reach the Russian vessels themselves by vertical fire. On August 10, this fire had become so severe as to force the fleet from its anchorage, to take desperate chances with Admiral Togo outside the harbor. At dawn, the Russian vessels (six battleships, four cruisers, and eight or more torpedo boats and destroyers) emerged, and attempted to break through the Japanese cordon to escape or to join the Vladivostok squadron. With seven battleships, eleven cruisers, and thirty smaller warcraft, Admiral Togo received the Russians. After a forty minutes' encounter, the latter, bent on flight, not fight, had succeeded in penetrating the Japanese line, had escaped the mines laid for them, and were dashing for Weihaiwei. But Admiral Togo pursued, and at five o'clock



LIEUTENANT-GENERAL NOGI, WHO IS BESIEGING PORT ARTHUR.

in the evening overtook the fugitives. In a three hours' battle, during which the firing was never at a less range than 3,800 yards,—and often at a much greater one,—the Russian fleet was scattered or disabled. The Japanese losses were not heavy comparatively. Admiral Togo reported 100 killed, altogether, and 29 wounded, most of them on his flagship, the *Mikasa*, which had borne the brunt of the fighting.

The Russian Defeat.

Five Russian ships returned to the harbor of Port Arthur, and several sought refuge in neutral Chinese and German ports. The *Czarevitch*, one of the finest Russian battleships (which was injured in the first attack on Port Arthur, in February), suffered terribly. More than three hundred of her



GENERAL STOESSEL.
(In command of the Russian troops at Port Arthur.)

crew perished. Her funnels were shot away, her steering-gear wrecked, and her value as a fighting unit quite destroyed. Admiral Wittshoeft, actual Russian naval commander, was killed on the deck of the *Czarevitch*, which found a temporary haven in the neutral port of Tsing-Tau, at the entrance to the German bay of Kiau-Chau. There, in accordance with the regulations of international law, the flag of the *Czarevitch* was lowered, and she was completely dismantled by the Germans, in whose hands she will remain until the end of the war. The crusier *Novik*, and the torpedo-boat *Bezhumi*, also sought refuge at Tsing-Tau. They were both forced to leave at the expiration of the twenty-four hours permitted by the law of nations. The *Novik* escaped, and reached one of the ports of the Russian island of Sakhalin. The cruiser *Askold* and the destroyer *Grozovoi* were not quick enough, and, on August 13, they put into the international port of Shanghai, which, for naval administration purposes, is under the jurisdiction of the Chinese Taotai, or governor. The *Askold* had two of her stacks shot away, and there was a great hole in her side. Altogether, she had been penetrated over two hundred times by Japanese shells. The Chinese governor gave the commanders of the *Askold* and the *Grozovoi* forty-eight hours in which to make the "reasonable repairs" allowed by international usage, and then demanded that they leave the harbor or dismantle their vessels. The Russians refused to do either, relying, it is claimed, on the weakness of the Chinese local administration to force them.

Japan Violates Chinese Neutrality.

One of the Russian gunboats, the *Ryeshitelni*, hotly pursued by the two Japanese destroyers, the *Asashio* and *Kasumi*, fled to the Chinese port of Chefu. Her commander, the Russians say, at once agreed to dismantle, and had actually removed part of his guns and engines, and lowered his flag, to the satisfaction of the Chefu officials. The two Japanese destroyers, however, followed the Russians into the harbor, and their officers boarded the gunboats, to satisfy themselves—(they say)—that she was honestly observing the rules of neutrality, and not planning to escape. This, of course, is no defense of their action. The *Ryeshitelni* was under Chinese authority, and inviolable. Any complaints or representations should have been made to the Chinese port officials. The Russians resented the action of the Japanese, and a fight ensued. The Russian commander gave orders to blow up the ship, but the attempt failed. Several of the Japanese were killed, and in the end, the two destroyers seized the Russian boat, towed it out of the harbor, and disappeared with it. The Japanese account agrees substantially with this, but declares that the Russians, besides planning to escape, forced the fight without cause. The St. Petersburg Government, acting through the French foreign office, promptly filed a protest against this violation of Chinese neutrality. At the same time, Japan protested against the refusal of the *Askold* and *Grozovoi* to leave the harbor of Shanghai or to disarm, threatening to enforce Chinese neutrality herself in this case.

Vladivostok Squadron Destroyed.

Admiral Kamimura has added his personal pledge to bind the Russian promise that no more British ships will be sunk by the Vladivostok squadron. The *Bogatyr* is on the rocks, north of Russia's northern harbor. The *Rurik* is at the bottom of the Korean Strait, with more than five hundred of her crew, and the *Rossia* and the *Gromoboi* are virtually falling to pieces in the harbor of Vladivostok, battered almost to scrap-iron after a five hours' battle with the Japanese ships. On August 14, Admiral Kamimura had his long-looked-for opportunity, and the Japanese strategy which has now resulted in wiping out Russia's

naval strength off the Eastern seas is now disclosed. Admiral Kamimura caught the Vladivostok ships in the Straits of Korea. It is probable that he had been at this point since the beginning of the war, for, contrary to current English and American belief, the Japanese commander had not been detailed to destroy the Vladivostok fleet. He is under the direct command of Admiral Togo, who had detailed him, not to seek the Russian vessels, but to prevent the Port Arthur squadron from getting to Vladivostok in case it escaped the blockading Japanese, and to intercept the Vladivostok ships should they try to run to Port Arthur. Togo's plan was to hammer away at Port Arthur, and neglect the northern Russian fleet entirely. He is reported as saying that it could do nothing to affect the general result of the war. It could not injure Japanese towns or seriously interfere with Japanese commerce, besides it had already done more harm to Russia than to Japan, by stirring up anti-Russian feeling in England, Germany, and the United States over interference with neutral commerce. Let the Vladivostok ships go on and make trouble for Russia, said Admiral Togo. And this was the policy pursued.

The Decisive Battle Near

The gigantic maneuvers of the three Japanese armies opposed to General Kuropatkin, in Manchuria, had brought all the lines so close together by August 20 that the Russian commander could scarcely escape a general battle. The excellent system of intercommunication between the Japanese armies and between the different sections of the same army (described in our article on page 332 of this REVIEW) had enabled Generals Kuroki, Oku, and Nodzu to work almost as though in personal touch with one another. The second army, under Oku, after a bloody battle, on July 24, at the point of the bayonet, took the important town of Tashi-Chao, on the railroad, and forced the Russians to retire to the strongly walled city of Haicheng. By a decisive battle at Simuchen, a day or two later, Oku turned the Russian right flank, while Kuroki, from the north, forced the important Yangtse pass (on July 29) in a sharp encounter, in which the Russian general, Count Keller,—successor to General Sassulitch—was killed. The Russian commander then found Haicheng untenable, and accordingly evacuated that city, and retired to his base at Liao-Yang. This town had been heavily fortified, and was situated in the center of bristling fortifications for fifteen miles about it on all sides. It is here that both Japanese and Russians expect that the decisive battle of the war will be fought.

Capture of Newchwang.

Meanwhile, General Kuroki had been throwing out his lines to the north of the Russians, seeking to cut off General Kuropatkin from the main of the railroad at Mukden, the capital of Manchuria. The Takushan (third) army, under General Nodzu, marching northward, parallel to the railroad, had so threatened the Russian flank that, with the capture of Tashi-Chao by General Oku, the Russians had decided to abandon Yinkow, which they evacuated without a struggle. Yinkow is the treaty port of Newchwang, and its possession gives the Japanese army a new base. Newchwang itself, which the Japanese at once opened to neutral trade, is an important city, a large railroad center, with a foreign trade of $50,000,000 a year, largely British and American. With the city, the Japanese took the local branch of the Russo-Chinese Bank, which had more than $25,000,000 loaned out to local concerns. Regarding this bank as the property of the Russian Government, it is announced that Japan will hold its assets and profits in Manchuria as legitimate spoils of war.

Kuropatkin's Plight.

As the Japanese semicircle narrows in about General Kuropatkin, the position of the Russian commander-in-chief becomes critical indeed. It is true that, with their concentration, his forces become more formidable, but the difficulties which face him are tremendous. With the rains making the roads like rivers, with a temperature of 100 degrees Fahrenheit, even when the sun is hidden, the heavily burdened Russian soldiers are in dire straits. It is reported of General Kuropatkin that, when he started for the far East, he remarked to a friend: "The first month they will say that I am inactive, the second that I am incapable, and the third that I am a traitor, because we shall be repulsed and beaten. I shall let the people talk, firmly adhering to my resolution not to advance before I have all the forces I need." The Russian general has certainly suffered from lack of equipment. The Siberian levies do not fight like European troops, and it is persistently reported that the famous railroad has practically broken down. Four months ago, General Kuropatkin was advised to take the position he has now been forced to take. Then he might have retired voluntarily to Mukden. Now he has been beaten back, losing all Manchuria, and seriously impairing the *morale* of his men. The Russians have always stood their ground bravely, but they have been outfought, outnumbered, and outgeneraled at every point. Yet they have no thought of ultimate defeat.

A Son Born to the Czar.

On the day that the battleship *Czarevitch* took refuge from the pursuing Japanese in a German port, the real human Czarevitch was born, in the imperial villa at Peterhof. The long-desired heir to the Russian throne came into the world on August 12. He will be christened Alexis Nikolaivitch, and, if he reigns, it will be as Alexis II. Already he has been gazetted Grand Hetman of all the Cossacks of the Empire, and the nation is wild with joy. The Czarina, who has always been very unpopular among Russians, because of her English ways, and because she had given birth to daughters only (there are four little grand duchesses), is now regarded with great affection. It is a thorny crown, a burdensome heritage, in a troublous time, that has come to the little prince. The next defeat in Asia may completely shatter the military prestige of his future empire, and the next assassination may cost him his father. Dark days lie ahead of him.

Assassination of von Plehve.

The assassination of Minister von Plehve will not be followed by a Russian revolution. Russians are not given to revolutions. The mass is too illiterate and too apathetic, and there is no great metropolitan city to act as a center of fermentation, but, according to private information from the Russian capital, things are beginning to ferment there. Many thinking Russians blame the Czar. They anticipate that the Japanese will win, and that a period of great distress and internal trouble will ensue. But the future is dark, and no one can predict anything confidently. The Nihilists on the Continent outside of Russia are divided into two camps. Prince Kropotkin thinks that the result of the war will be to postpone reform. Mrs. Stepniak, and the other school, exult over every Japanese victory as a stepping-stone to free Russia. Some upheaval is predicted which will result in a long step toward a constitutional monarchy. A few days after the assassination of Minister von Plehve, the question of the formation of a responsible cabinet was actually submitted to the Czar, but did not, we are told, meet with his approval. Some predict a holy war against Turkey.

Revolutionary Progress in Russia.

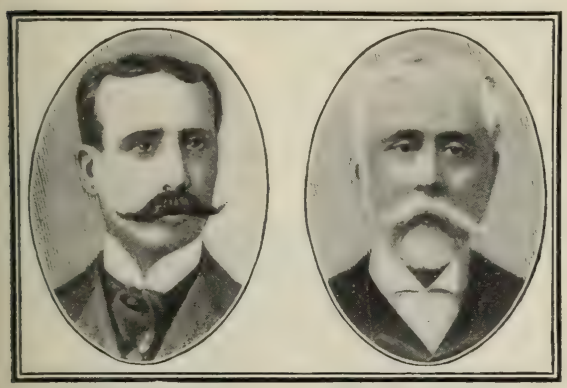
There is to-day, in Russia, a very active revolutionary party, entirely distinct from the Nihilists and bomb-throwers, which is working for this very constitutional monarchy. The managers of this party, living in Germany, Switzerland, and England, are in close alliance at home with what would be called labor organizations in this country, but their ranks include most of the scientific men, the authors, and students of Russia. In spite of the police, the literature of this party is smuggled across the border and into the hands of the people, spreading even throughout the army. The Czar's ministers do not lose sight of a possible uprising. This is shown by the fact that they have not yet sent their best troops to the front. Russia's strongest arm is kept at home. While the revolutionary party has not yet had any opportunity to arise, if Russia should send away her home guards, an outbreak in both Poland and Finland would, undoubtedly, soon follow. Thus, Russia's real problem is at home.

A Reactionary Type.

Much will depend on the Czar's choice of a successor to the late Minister von Plehve, who was assassinated on July 28, while on his way to Peterhof to report to his master. The late Russian minister of the interior was a typical bureaucrat, the logical product of the Russian autocracy, a sort of glorified chief of secret police. Two of his predecessors in office (Bogliopoff, in 1898, and Sipiaguine, in 1902) met death at the assassin's hands for less detestable deeds than his. Von Plehve was the finished product of the brutal reactionary party in Russia, its representative in politics, as Pobiedonostseff is in religious matters. These two types stand for the Russia which is looking backward. Serge de Witte, who was "kicked up stairs" to please the late minister of the interior, is one of the few leaders who are striving to turn the face of "Holy Russia" toward the future and progress. Von Plehve's assassin died without implicating any one else, and the Czar, it was reported, was not to be harmed by the malcontents. As chief of the famous "Third Section" of the Russian secret police, von Plehve suppressed all the newspapers so completely that he was regarded as the most "efficient" official of the empire. His record as secretary of state for Finland, and in putting down the aspirations of students and Jews, is given in an article which we quote on page 345. We have his own word for it that he had great plans for reform. He had actually introduced into the Imperial Council a law repealing the regulation which forbade the Jews to live within thirty miles of the frontier, and he had actually drafted a new peasant code, when popular vengeance overtook him. While undoubtedly a sincere man, his record, as characterized by our ex-ambassador to Russia, Andrew D. White, in a recent interview, is "blackened by several of the wickedest deeds in the history of the last two centuries."

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From July 21 to August 20, 1904.)



José Pardo Barrera. (Peru.) Manuel Quintana. (Argentina.)

NEW PRESIDENTS OF TWO SOUTH AMERICAN REPUBLICS.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

July 21.—Missouri Democrats nominate Joseph W. Folk for governor.

July 25.—Thomas Taggart, of Indiana, is chosen chairman of the Democratic National Committee (see page 289).

July 27.—President Roosevelt formally accepts the nomination for the Presidency made by the Republican National Convention....North Dakota Democrats nominate M. F. Hegge for governor.

July 28.—President Roosevelt returns to Washington from his summer home at Oyster Bay, N. Y.....The United States Treasury Department decides that the Panama Canal zone is not a part of the United States, but is under the sole control of the President until Congress provides a form of government for it.

August 2.—Chairman Cortelyou announces the membership of the executive campaign committee of the Republican National Committee (see page 294).... Washington (State) Democrats nominate ex-Senator George Turner for governor.

August 3.—Senator Charles W. Fairbanks is formally notified of his nomination for the Vice-Presidency by the Republican National Convention....Chairman Taggart, of the Democratic National Committee, announces the appointment of William F. Sheehan, of New York, as chairman of the executive committee, and George Foster Peabody, of New York, as treasurer of the national committee....Michigan Democrats nominate Woodbridge N. Ferris for governor....Indiana Democrats nominate John W. Kern for governor.

August 4.—Kansas Democrats and Populists nominate David M. Dale for governor....West Virginia Democrats nominate John Cornwell for governor.

August 5.—Chief Judge Parker resigns from the New York Court of Appeals....Idaho Republicans nominate Frank R. Gooding for governor.

August 8.—President Roosevelt refuses to commute a sentence of death imposed on a negro for assault.

August 9.—Delaware Republicans ("regular") nominate Dr. Joseph H. Chandler for governor.

August 10.—Judge Alton B. Parker, of New York, formally accepts the nomination for the Presidency made at St. Louis by the Democratic National Convention.

August 12.—Nebraska Democrats and Populists nominate George W. Berge (Pop.) for governor.

August 16.—Idaho Democrats nominate ex-United States Senator Henry Heitfeld for governor.

August 17.—Ex-Senator Henry G. Davis, of West Virginia, formally accepts the Democratic nomination for the Vice-Presidency.

August 18.—Thomas E. Watson, of Georgia, and Thomas Tibbles, of Nebraska, candidates of the Populist party for President and Vice-President respectively, are notified of their nominations at New York.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

July 22.—The New Zealand Government's financial policy is attacked by the opposition.

July 28.—M. Plehve, Russian minister of the interior, is assassinated at St. Petersburg (see page 345).... The Natal Parliament is prorogued....A motion of want of confidence in the South Australian Government is defeated.

August 1.—President Nord, of Haiti, accuses the foreign population of willfully raising the rate of exchange.

August 7.—British troops enter the city of Lassa, unopposed; the Dalai Lama flees to a monastery eighteen miles away....The Russian minister of railroads declines the offers of foreign companies to lay another line of rails on the Siberian line.

August 10.—The British Government announces in the House of Commons that no imperial conference will be called nor a commission appointed to examine the English fiscal condition.....The Canadian Parliament is prorogued.

August 15.—The British Parliament is prorogued.

August 20.—The truce between the insurgents in Paraguay and the government troops is extended.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

July 28.—Russia promises to make reparation to England for the capture of merchant vessels.

July 29.—The Vatican's reply to the French Government's note, demanding the recall of the letters summoning the bishops of Digon and Laval to Rome, is received at Paris, and necessitates the severing of diplomatic relations.

July 31.—Mgr. Lorenzelli, the Papal nuncio at Paris, leaves for Rome, the relations between France and the Vatican having been severed....The British minister at Caracas protests in the name of English bondholders against the seizure of asphalt property.

August 1.—The United States Government directs Minister Bowen to protest against the seizure of asphalt properties by the Venezuelan Government.

August 5.—The United States Government decides to keep a squadron of cruisers in the Mediterranean as long as the Porte delays giving a satisfactory answer to the

representations of our State Department regarding the rights of American citizens.

August 6.—The American squadron, under command of Rear-Admiral Jewell, is ordered to Smyrna to support Minister Leishman in his efforts to secure recognition of the rights of American citizens in Turkey.

August 8.—The British Government announces in the House of Commons that Germany, Austria, Italy, and Russia have given assent to the Egyptian clause of the Anglo-French convention.

August 14.—A settlement of the question pending between the United States and Turkey is announced, Turkey consenting to give American schools in that country equal rights with those under the protection of other powers.

August 16.—The Cretans send a petition from Italy asking for the removal of Prince George, of Greece, and threatening revolt if the request is not granted.

THE RUSSO-JAPANESE WAR.

July 21.—The *Malacca* leaves Port Saïd in charge of Russia.

July 22.—The Russian Government replies to the British protest regarding the seizure of the *Malacca* ....General Kuroki drives the Russians from a strong position near Hsihoyen after two days' fighting, having 400 casualties, while the Russians' are estimated at 1,000. The Russians retreat toward An-ping....The Vladivostok cruisers sink one small vessel and capture two others.

July 23.—A council held at St. Petersburg decides to waive the claim to search the *Malacca*.

July 24.—The Vladivostok squadron sinks the British steamer *Knight Commander* off the Japanese coast; cargo worth £50,000....The Russians evacuate Newchwang, setting fire to the Russian Government buildings before leaving.

July 25.—The Russian cruiser *Smolensk* seizes another Peninsular & Oriental steamer, *Formosa*, in the Red Sea, sister-ship to the *Minerva* bound for Yokohama; the *Malacca* arrives at Algiers....The Japanese enter Newchwang; a transport fleet is in sight of Port Newchwang.

July 26.—The steamers *Formosa* and *Holsatia* are released by Russia at Suez....A desperate battle proceeds at Tashichiao; the Japanese occupy all the positions, but the Russians are stubbornly resisting; eventually the Russians are driven out, and the Japanese capture both Tashichiao and Yingkow. The Japanese lose 1,000 and the Russians 2,000.

July 27.—The steamship *Malacca* is handed over to the British at Algiers, the *Formosa* is released at Suez, the German steamer *Holsatia* is also released at Suez.

July 28.—A Japanese administrator assumes control of Newchwang....Assault upon Port Arthur.

August 1.—The Japanese attack on the Russian position at Hai-Cheng and east of Liao-Yang is continued. ....Great Britain protests to Russia against the inclusion of foodstuffs in the list of contraband.

August 2.—The capture of Shan-Tai-Kow, one of the important defenses of Port Arthur, is achieved by the Japanese after three days of desperate fighting....The Russians retired northward from Hai-Cheng.

August 5.—The Japanese advance on General Kuropatkin's main position is continued.

August 10.—A Russian fleet of six battleships, four cruisers, and torpedo boats escapes from Port Arthur.

August 11.—A Japanese destroyer enters the neutral port of Chefu and takes possession of the dismantled Russian destroyer *Ryeshitelni*....A Russian commission is appointed to settle the status of the volunteer fleet.

August 14.—The Russian cruiser *Rurik* is sunk in action between the Japanese squadron of Admiral Kamimura and the Vladivostok fleet in the Strait of Korea; more than half of the crew were saved.



THE LATE MINISTER VON PLEHVE.

(For comment on the career of the Russian minister of the interior, who was assassinated by a Finn, on July 28, last, —see page 345.)

August 15.—The British Government declares the necessity that both belligerents observe the neutrality of China.

August 16.—The Russian ships make a sortie from Port Arthur....Russia issues war bonds for $75,000,000, to run for four years at three and six-tenths per cent. ....Great Britain formally protests to Russia against the inclusion of food as contraband.

August 17.—A Japanese demand for the surrender of Port Arthur, with an offer to remove the non-combatants, is refused by Lieutenant-General Stoessel, in command of that fortress....Japan officially informs Great Britain that she will not give up the Russian destroyer seized in the neutral port of Chefu.

August 19.—Japanese troops capture An-Shan-Chan, commanding the Russian line of defenses between Liao-Yang and Hai-Cheng; the Russians retreat northward.

August 20.—The Russian cruiser *Novik* is attacked

by the Japanese protected cruisers *Chitose* and *Tsushima* off Saghalien Island, and partially sunk.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

July 22.—The meat packers' strike is renewed at Chicago by order of President Donnelly, of the Meat Workers' Union, the workers alleging that the employing packers have discriminated against union men in employing hands to start the plant.

July 25.—All the men of the allied trade unions employed by the Chicago packers go on a strike, making the total number of men out about 13,000.

July 26.—Fire destroys a wire-cable factory at St. Petersburg, causing a loss estimated at $1,250,000.

July 28.—The executive board of the National Cotton Spinners' Association votes full support to the striking spinners in the Fall River mills.

July 29.—The meat strike has extended to New York City.

August 8.—Seventy-six persons were killed and many others injured in a train wreck caused by the collapse of a bridge at Dry Creek, Pueblo, Colo., on the Denver & Rio Grande Railroad.

August 16.—The mob at Statesboro, Ga., burns two negroes at the stake, after they had been convicted of murder and sentenced to death.

August 17.—The national encampment of the Grand Army of the Republic begins its sessions at Boston.

August 20.—May wheat goes up to $1.16¼ on the Chicago market.

OBITUARY.

July 20.—Associate Justice John M. Cochrane, of the North Dakota Supreme Court, 45.

July 22.—Wilson Barrett, the actor, 58....Frank Hill Smith, a Boston artist and decorator, 63....David Wolfe Brown, for more than forty years one of the official reporters of the House of Representatives, 69.

July 23.—Sir John Simon, K.C.B., former president of the Royal College of Surgeons and of the Royal Society, 88.

July 25.—Dr. Rudolph A. Philippi, of Chile, the eminent naturalist, 96.

July 26.—Rear-Admiral Henry Clay Taylor, U.S.N., 59....Col. Paul Francis de Gournay, a Confederate veteran, 78.

July 27.—William Davenport Adams, author, critic, and journalist, 53....John Rogers, sculptor and designer, 75....Ex-Congressman John A. Morrison, of Pennsylvania, 90.

July 28.—M. Plehve, Russian minister of the interior, 58.

July 29.—Frederick Goodall, the English artist, 82.

August 1.—Ex-Gov. Robert E. Pattison, of Pennsylvania, 54.

August 2.—Jacob Henry Studer, author of works on ornithology, 64....Mrs. Nelson A. Miles, 62.



Robert E. Pattison, of Pennsylvania. George E. Lounsbury, of Connecticut.

TWO WELL-KNOWN EX-GOVERNORS WHO DIED LAST MONTH.

August 4.—William O'Connor Morris, the well-known Irish judge, 80....Robert Crannell Minor, American landscape painter, 64....Ex-Gov. James T. Lewis, of Wisconsin, 83....Sir George Richard Dibbs, former premier of New South Wales, 70.

August 6.—Rev. E. Winchester Donald, D.D., rector of Trinity Church, Boston, 56.

August 7.—Dr. Eduard Hanslick, the Austrian musical critic, 79.

August 8.—Ex-Congressman Mark H. Dunnell, of Minnesota, 81....James Cox Aikens, former lieutenant-governor of Manitoba, 81.

August 9.—Ex-United States Senator George G. Vest, of Missouri, 74....Sir William M. Banks, the well-known English surgeon, 62....Friedrich Ratzel, the German anthropologist, 60.

August 10.—M. Waldeck-Rousseau, former premier of France, 48....Sir Frederic Bateman, M.D., 80.... Sherman M. Booth, a well-known anti-slavery editor in Wisconsin, 92.

August 11.—Ex-Judge Seymour Dwight Thompson, a well-known jurist and legal writer, 62.

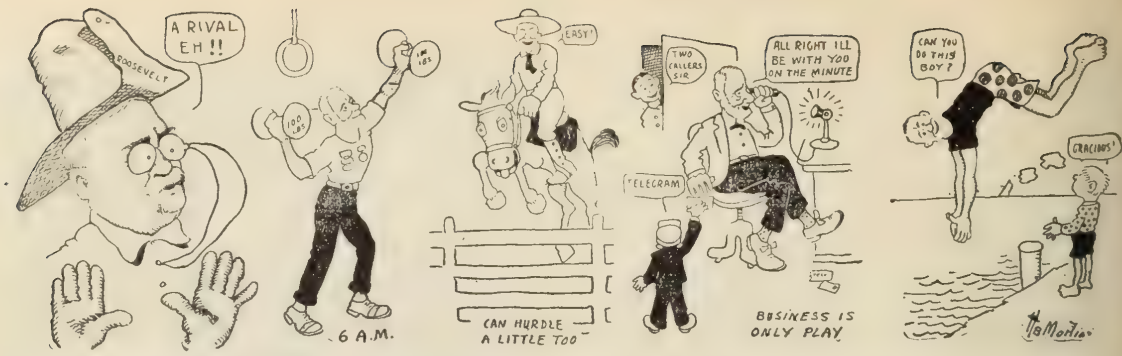
August 12.—Samuel P. Avery, a well-known art collector of New York City, 82....Ex-Congressman George Brickner, of Wisconsin, 70....Brig.-Gen. Gilbert S. Carpenter, U.S.A., retired, 69....George Clinton Gardner, engineer and boundary expert, 70.

August 15.—Ex-Gov. John H. Kinkead, of Nevada, the first governor of Alaska, 78.

August 16.—Ex. Gov. George E. Lounsbury, of Connecticut, 66.

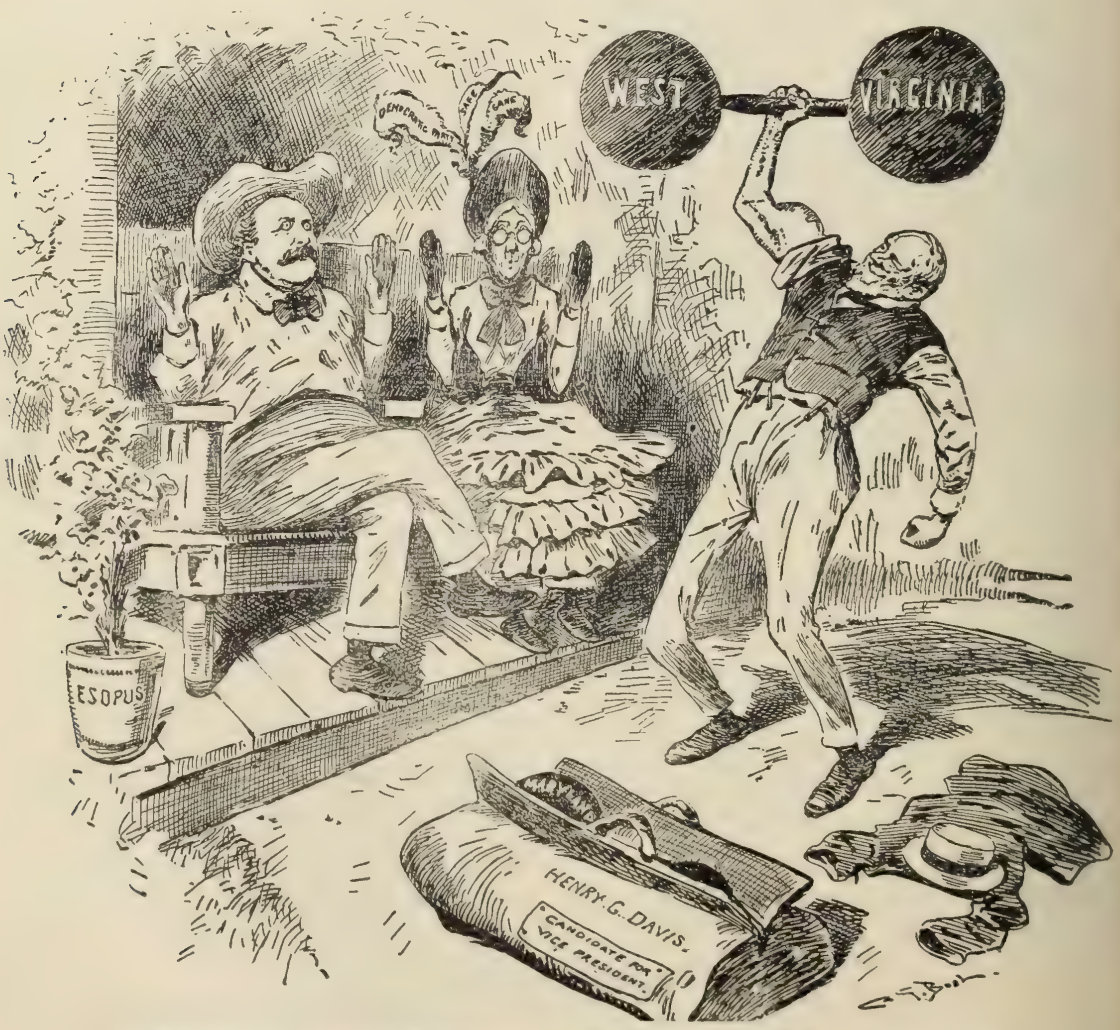
August 17.—Ex-Congressman Charles S. Randall, of Massachusetts, 80....Col. Prentiss Ingraham, the novel-writer, 60....S. Minot Curtis, the oldest lay member of the Protestant Episcopal General Convention, 85.

August 18.—Mrs. Melville W. Fuller, wife of the Chief Justice of the United States Supreme Court, 59.

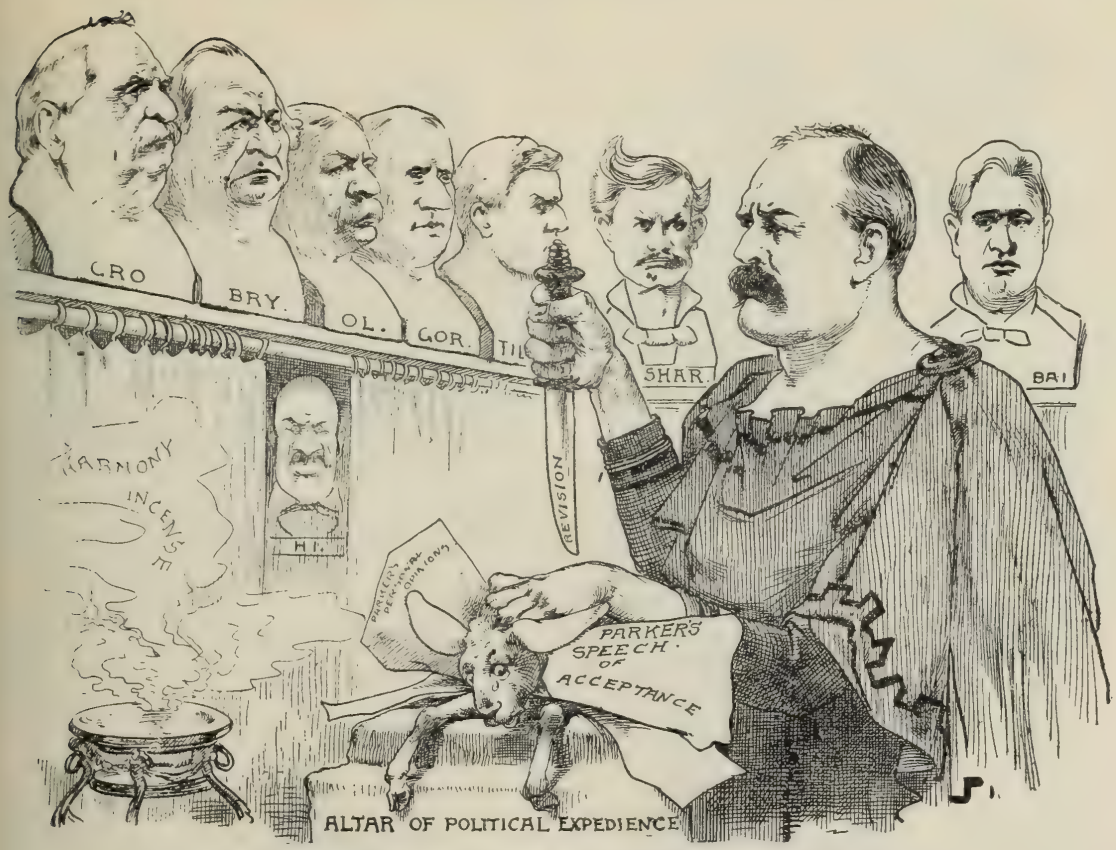


STRENUOUS VICE-PRESIDENTIAL CANDIDATE DAVIS AND WHAT A FRIEND CALLS "A FEW OF HIS STUNTS."
From the *American* (New York).

SOME AMERICAN CARTOONS OF THE MONTH.

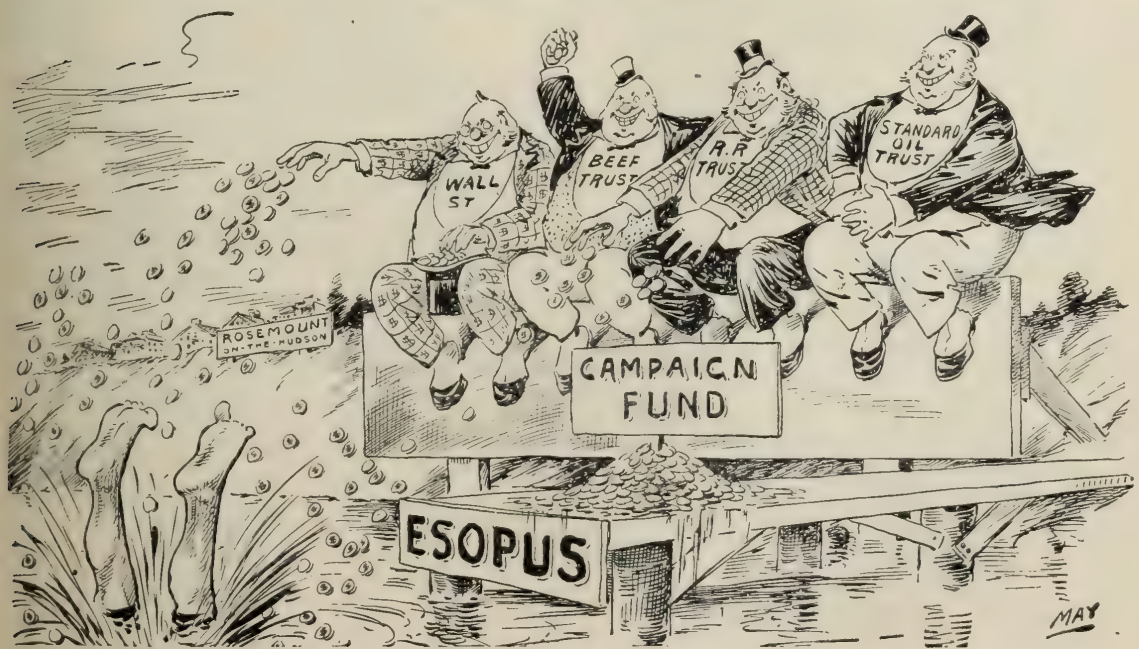


VICE-PRESIDENTIAL CANDIDATE DAVIS (to Mr. Parker and Dame Democracy): "Too old, am I?"
From the *World* (New York).



CONSULTING THE ORACLES IN THE TEMPLE OF ESOPUS.

(Mr. Parker ready to make an heroic sacrifice of his own personal opinions to satisfy the Democratic gods.)
From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).



THE TRUSTS MAKING THE DEMOCRATIC CANDIDATE DIVE FOR HIS CAMPAIGN FUNDS.—From the *Journal* (Detroit).



UNCLE SAM: "He's good enough for me."
From the *Mail* (New York).

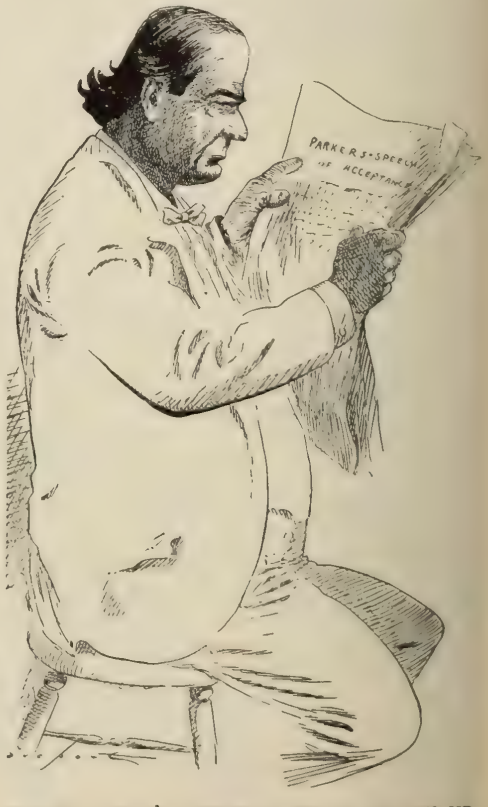


MESSRS. CLEVELAND, PARKER, AND BRYAN AS A HARMONY TRIO.—["From a photograph recently taken at Esopus (for campaign purposes)"].
From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).

Mr. Homer Davenport, in his new capacity as a fighting Republican cartoonist, finds congenial themes and is doing very noteworthy campaign work in the *Mail*, of New York. His Uncle Sam is fast becoming the best-known type of that much-pictured gentleman.



"HE MAY CHANGE HIS MIND WHEN HE FINDS HIMSELF GLIDING INTO THE SEAT."
From the *Pioneer Press* (St. Paul).



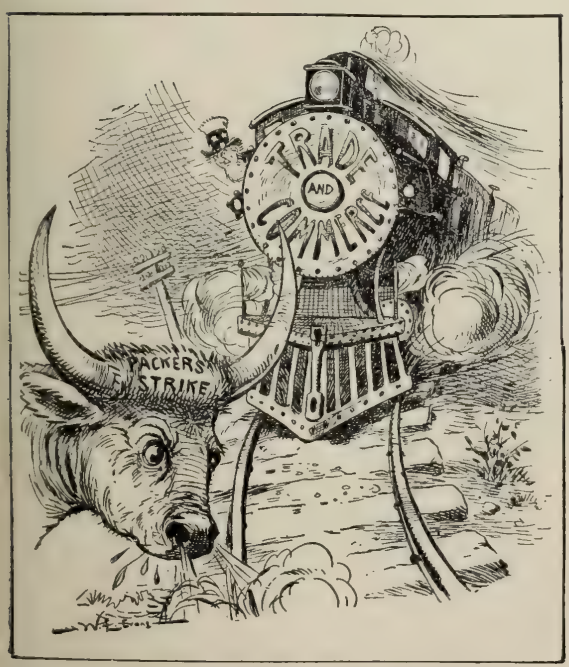
NOTE MR. BRYAN'S EXPRESSION WHILE READING MR. PARKER'S LETTER OF ACCEPTANCE.
From the *Mail* (New York).



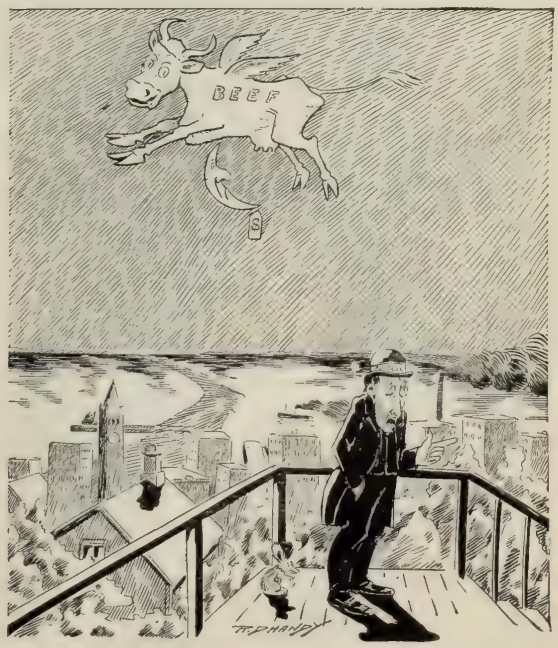
"LEST WE FORGET" WHAT HAPPENED IN 1893.—From the *Mail* (New York).

HARRISON'S WARNING.—"The Society of the Unemployed, now holding its frequent and threatening parades in the streets of foreign cities, should not be allowed to acquire an American domicile."—Extract from President Harrison's message to Congress after his defeat for reëlection—December, 1892.

CLEVELAND'S CONFESSION.—"The existence of an alarming and extraordinary business situation, involving the welfare and prosperity of all our people, has constrained me to call together in extra session the people's representatives in Congress."—Extract from Grover Cleveland's message calling Congress in extra session—August 7, 1893.



UNCLE SAM (as engineer): "Beware the bullgine."
From the *Leader* (Cleveland).



"AND THE COW JUMPED OVER THE MOON."
THE PUBLIC: "Whew, there it goes again!"
From the *News-Tribune* (Duluth).



"The newly born son of the Czar has been appointed the Commander-in-chief of all the Cossack forces of the Russian Army." (Cable dispatch.)—From the *North American* (Philadelphia).



THE WAR SITUATION IN THE FAR EAST.
From the *North American* (Philadelphia).



THE BRITISH LION: (to Russian Bear): "Keep your paws off my commerce!" (Germany and Turkey may be seen in the background.)

From the *Leader* (Cleveland).

CHAIRMAN TAGGART AND THE DEMOCRATIC CAMPAIGN.

BY JAMES P. HORNADAY.

(Of the Indianapolis *News*.)

THE general plan of the Democratic campaign, as Thomas Taggart, the new chairman of the national committee, has it in mind, takes into consideration, first of all, the necessity for the party to carry the State of New York. The chairman and his lieutenants, the members of the executive committee, realize that the loss of New York will mean the defeat of Parker and Davis. They appreciate the fact, too, that success in New York alone will not elect the Democratic ticket. But they believe the Empire State is the key to the situation, and so it is that no effort will be spared to secure the thirty-nine electoral votes in that State. The chairman reasons that if it is possible for the party to succeed in New York State, it will also be possible to win in Connecticut, Delaware, New Jersey, Maryland, and West Virginia. A victory of this sort in the East would, with the one hundred and fifty-one votes in the South, bring the party within twelve votes of a majority in the electoral college. Eastern Democrats have assured the new chairman that it is not only possible but probable that New York, New Jersey, Connecticut, Delaware, Maryland, and West Virginia will give their electoral votes to Parker and Davis.



CHAIRMAN TAGGART.
From the *Herald* (New York).

Proceeding on the assumption that the East will stand by the Democratic nominees, Chairman Taggart has attached three strings to his political bow. (1) He will make special effort to secure the fifteen electoral votes of his own State, Indiana, which, with the votes of the South and the Eastern group of States mentioned, would give Parker and Davis three votes in excess of the number required to elect. (2) He will use every effort to secure the thirteen votes in Wisconsin, which, with the South and the Eastern group, would bring success, with one vote to spare. (3) He will move to secure the fourteen electoral votes which Idaho, Colorado, Montana, and Nevada would contribute should they go Democratic, and which would, with the votes of the South and the Eastern States, give Parker and Davis a majority of two.



HON. THOMAS TAGGART, OF INDIANA.
(Chairman of the Democratic National Campaign Committee.)

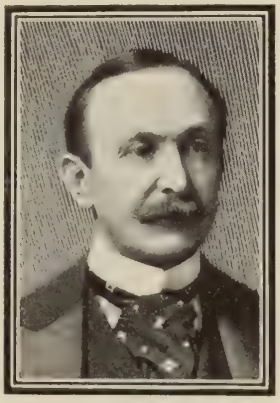
The inference should not be drawn that the new chairman proposes to abandon entirely Illinois, Minnesota, Michigan, and other States in which the Democrats feel that they have a "fighting chance" to win. What the chairman and his executive committee propose to do is to concentrate the fight in the Eastern and Southern group (if Maryland and West Virginia are to be regarded as Southern States), in Indiana, in Wisconsin, and in the so called mountain group, or silver States. The new chairman sees several combinations, any one of which would elect the Democratic ticket. He tells his friends, in speaking of the outlook west of the Alleghany moun-



SOME PROMINENT DEMOCRATS AT THE MEETING OF THE NATIONAL EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE, AT THE HOFFMAN HOUSE, NEW YORK.

(Sketched by cartoonist Martin, of the New York *American*.)

tains, that he will not be satisfied with Indiana alone, or with Wisconsin alone, or with the fourteen electoral votes the four mountain States can contribute. He wants the combined vote the four silver States and Indiana and Wisconsin can contribute; and he will be better satisfied still, if he can secure the electoral votes of Illinois, and of a few other States that are counted on to stay in the Republican column.



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MR. AUGUST BELMONT, OF NEW YORK.

It is worth while to be frank and say that the Democratic chairman's hope of carrying Idaho, Colorado, Montana, and Nevada is not large, but he believes there is a chance to win the four States, and he feels it is worth while to take that chance. As to Indiana and Wisconsin, he realizes that neither can be carried without a hard struggle. His party, he believes, has to-day an even chance with the Republicans in these two States. It is when the Democratic national chairman sits down with pencil and paper and demonstrates the various combinations that might successfully "work out" the problem that he becomes optimistic. But in the end he always comes back to New York. The Empire State, he points out, must set the pace. The problem before the new chairman is to work out in practice what appears easy in theory. A newcomer in the field of national politics, his every move will be closely watched by men in his own party and by the leaders of the opposition. If he shall win, he will be a big man in his party. If, on the other hand, Roosevelt and Fairbanks shall be elected, men there are within his own party who will say that it was a mistake to place him at the head of the national committee.



MR. DE LANCEY NICOLL. (Vice-Chairman.)

As the campaign develops it will be seen that Mr. Taggart is not disposed to hold the national political reins alone. He is what might be called a "home ruler" in politics. He believes it is wise for the organization in each State to do in large measure its own planning and its own

managing. He always adhered to this principle when active in State, county, and municipal politics in Indiana, and it brought results. When he was chairman of the Indiana Democratic State Committee, and a particular county organization seemed to be lagging, he did not send someone from the State committee to that county to take charge. What he did was to invite the local leaders up to headquarters and give them advice, the substance of which was: "I am holding you responsible for——— County. I am not satisfied with what you are doing. I shall expect better news from there. If it does not come, I shall send for you again."



MR. GEORGE FOSTER PEABODY.

(Treasurer of the Democratic National Campaign Committee.)—From the *North American* (Philadelphia).

In the management of the national campaign, Chairman Taggart will allow State organizations the fullest latitude, and he will look to these organizations for results. It is believed that his executive committee is in full sympathy with this idea. In the State of New York, for instance, the management of the campaign will be by the State organization, and when it is necessary for that organization to consult with the national organization, William F. Sheehan, chairman of the executive committee, and the other New Yorkers on that committee, will represent the national organization. Mr. Taggart is not the kind of man who would undertake to direct the New York campaign over the heads of local men who understand the situation thoroughly.

So it will be in the other Eastern States,—he will look to the State managers for results. It is his idea that Senator Arthur Pue Gorman is better prepared to manage the campaign in Maryland than any outsider, and he regards the candidate for Vice-President, the Hon. Henry G. Davis, as the man who should direct the campaign in West Virginia. Knowing, as he does, all the ins and outs of Indiana politics, the new national chairman may be counted on to direct the campaign in his native State. This will no doubt be agreeable to Judge Parker, who believes, with the chairman, that local men and local organizations are the chief factors in a successful campaign. When John W. Kern, Taggart's closest political associate, went to Esopus to talk about the national chairmanship with the nominee for President, Judge Parker opened the conversation by asking:

"Who is the best organizer in Indiana?"

"Taggart," responded Kern.

"Then we must have his services in that State this fall," said Judge Parker.



MR. UREY WOODSON, OF KENTUCKY.

(Secretary of the Democratic National Campaign Committee.)

In Wisconsin, Chairman Taggart's plans are approved by the executive committee. Timothy E. Ryan, the member of the national committee from that State, and also a member of the executive committee, will have supervision over the campaign. He was put on the executive committee because the chairman believed him to be well equipped to handle the Wisconsin situation. Mr. Taggart was following out his general policy of "home rule" when he suggested that a special committee be appointed to take charge of the campaign in the group of silver States which he would like to add to the Democratic column.



MR. JAMES SMITH, JR., OF NEW JERSEY.

The management of the Democratic campaign will not be a one-man affair, and the national chairman would not have it so if he could. Unselfishness is one of the chief characteristics of the new chairman. It is no secret that many of the most influential representatives of his party in the East were not in favor of electing him. It was remarked by a Western Democrat during the session of the national committee in New York, the last week in July: "Most everybody seems to be against Taggart except the men who are to elect the members of the national committee." Elected by the unanimous vote of the committee, Mr. Taggart might have assumed dictatorial powers. But persons who had been associated with the man for years knew he would



MR. JOHN R. M'LEAN, OF OHIO.



HON. WILLIAM F. SHEEHAN, OF NEW YORK.

not; and he did not. In appointing the executive committee he gave the places of honor and responsibility to the men who only a week before were doing their utmost to prevent him from becoming chairman. And then, when the executive committee met to plan for the campaign, he was willing to bow to the judgment of the members of the committee.

"This is an affair in which a man's individuality must be kept in the background," he said to one of his friends. "If we can elect Parker and Davis, there will be glory enough for all." Taggart displayed this spirit of unselfishness at the St. Louis convention. His State had indorsed him for chairman of the national committee, and many of the members of the committee had voluntarily pledged him their support. It was plain that the committee wanted him. The Eastern leaders wanted another, and were willing to give the Vice-Presidential nomination to Indiana if Taggart would abandon the idea of becoming chairman. The day before the convention was to name the candidate for Vice-President, he called his Indiana lieutenants together and announced to them that he had made up his mind to put aside his ambition to be national chairman. "John Kern can have the nomination for Vice-President if I will get out of his way, and I propose to get out," said he. "It is time for the Indiana delegation to meet and indorse Kern for second place." The delegation did meet, and unanimously voted not to present Kern's name. "We have pinned our faith to Taggart and we propose to stick to him," said the delegates.



MR. T. E. RYAN, OF WISCONSIN.

A good deal of misrepresentation of Mr. Taggart's attitude toward the chairmanship has gone forth. The day after the St. Louis convention adjourned, stories were printed to the effect that the Indianian had attempted to take "snap judgment" on the party leaders,—had, at a meeting of the national committee, held at 4 o'clock Sunday morning, attempted to have himself elected chairman, notwithstanding the convention had by resolution instructed the committee to meet in New York to organize. The truth is, that but for his own protest that meeting would have elected him. A motion to elect was made, and he stopped the proceedings by saying that he would not accept the place if election came under such circumstances.

The new chairman is not a man who will worry about issues except as they may be of service in securing votes. He was not in sympathy with the free-silver planks of his party's platform in 1896 and in 1900, but he did his utmost to help the party win in those two campaigns. His idea is that, after the national convention has made a platform, and the nominees of the convention have signified their willingness to stand on that platform, it is the duty of every Democrat to march under the party banner. His success in politics in his own State may be attributed largely to his personality. He is what in everyday parlance is called a "good fellow." If any person should address him in Indiana as "Mr. Taggart," he would turn to look for a face he had never seen before. It is "Tom," and nothing else. The Taggart smile, "the smile that will not wear off," became a part and parcel of Indiana politics years ago. The great good nature and the patience of the man have been unfailing helps in many a close political battle.

He was twice elected auditor of Marion County (the county in which Indianapolis is located), a county normally Republican by at least two thousand majority. In each of these five campaigns he re-



SENATOR THOMAS S. MARTIN, OF VIRGINIA.

ceived the support of many Republicans, who voted for him because they liked him. They liked him because he was a jovial, pushing Irishman who, through his own efforts, had made a place for himself in the Indiana capital. Most of them remembered him when he wore a waiter's apron, and, standing behind the restaurant in the old union station, at Indianapolis, passed out pies and doughnuts and coffee to the traveling public. They recalled that he was not satisfied to go through life handling a waiter's tray, and they remembered it was not many years after he entered the restaurant as a waiter that he was its manager. Later, he bought the eating-house, and with the money he made there he purchased the Grand Hotel, and made other investments. The Republicans liked him because he had shown a disposition to be up and on, and so it was that in five elections they did their full share toward putting him in office.



SENATOR GORMAN, OF MARYLAND.

From the *North American* (Philadelphia).

Mr. Taggart has been identified in some capacity with the management of every campaign in Indiana for the last twenty years. He was chairman of the State committee of his party in 1892 and 1894. The bare record of those chairmanships does not speak well for his ability as a campaign manager, but, when all the circumstances are considered, he did well. The State was in control of the Democrats when he was made chairman in 1892. Two years before, Claude Mathews had been elected governor by 19,500 plurality. The tide had turned from the Democrats when Taggart took the helm, but he succeeded in carrying the State by a little more than 6,000 plurality. By 1894, the party in Indiana, as elsewhere, had gone to pieces, and "Tom" Taggart lost the State by 44,000 plurality. Since that year he has been a member of the State committee most of the time, and in every national campaign a member of the executive committee. He is now treasurer of the State committee.

Under the plan of campaign mapped out by the executive committee, Taggart will devote his attention largely to perfecting the party organization in the so-called doubtful States. He will apply the "Indiana system" to several States. Under it the party organization is extended to the precinct in the country, and in cities and towns to the block. The result of such a system is that on election day every voter is on the list of some precinct or block committeeman, whose duty it is to see that the man votes and votes "right." Chairman Taggart is perfectly willing that in matters of policy and procedure the executive committee shall be the court of last resort, and it is also agreeable to him for the executive committee to assume the task of financing the campaign. He knows how to bring order out of chaos. He has the knack of infusing new life into any movement with which he is associated, and it will be a surprise and a disappointment to his friends if he does not prove his fitness for the task set before him by the national committee of his party.



COLONEL J. M. GUFFEY, OF PENNSYLVANIA.

On reflection, it must be obvious to Democrats everywhere that the national committee did well to take a central West man for chairman. New York having secured the nomination for President, West Virginia the nomination for Vice-President, and the East having dictated the platform, it would have been a serious blunder if an Eastern man had been made chairman. If the Democrats are to win in this campaign, the East must do its part; but the East cannot make Judge Parker President. There must be help from the West. That there is a gulf between the Democracy of the East and the Democracy of the West all must realize. In looking for a man to span this gulf, could the party have done better than it did in calling the Indianian? Surrounded as he is by such keen politicians and business men as De Lancey Nicoll, George Foster Peabody, William F. Sheehan, August Belmont, John R. McLean, Thomas S. Martin, James M. Guffey, James Smith, Timothy E. Ryan, and Arthur Pue Gorman, it seems certain that no vantage-ground in the East can be overlooked; and, in close touch with the party leaders in every State West, he is in position to get the best results possible.

CHAIRMAN CORTELYOU AND THE REPUBLICAN CAMPAIGN.

BY ALBERT HALSTEAD.

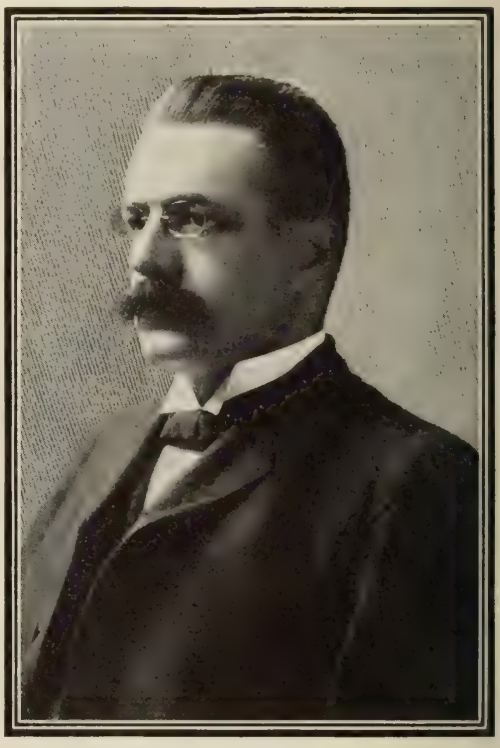
THE campaign for the election of Theodore Roosevelt to the Presidency will be conducted in harmony with the high ideals that have controlled his political career. The Presidency will not be mortgaged to any interest. No corrupt use of money to debauch the electorate, and no shady transactions to achieve success, will besmirch his record or belie his preachments. He would not accept the Presidency tainted with fraud. Chairman Cortelyou would not be a party to corrupt practices. The President and his manager are in full accord on this

It has been customary for the Republican nominee for President to select his own campaign manager, the national committee electing his choice to its chairmanship. When his nomination was assured, President Roosevelt sought a manager. Senator Marcus A. Hanna, who had outlived the calumnies that characterized the policy of the opposition in his two successful campaigns to elect William McKinley, was the President's original choice. He and the Ohio Senator discussed that matter before the latter's last illness. The President urged Mr. Hanna to accept, but he was unwilling, as he knew his impaired physical resources were unequal to the task. But had he lived, though he could not have commanded the Republican forces in action, M. A. Hanna would have been the chief adviser of his successor to the national chairmanship.



CHAIRMAN CORTELYOU.
From the *World* (New York).

Theodore Roosevelt was in no hurry to decide upon the man to whom he would intrust his political fortunes. He consulted with party leaders and patiently considered the merits of the several men mentioned. For various reasons, the name of every one whose political experience made him seem available was dismissed. But, finally, as if by inspiration, George B. Cortelyou was suggested. It was a ray of light on a vexatious problem. The President knew Cortelyou thoroughly, knew what he had been to Cleveland, and especially to McKinley. He had learned to value at their real worth his qualities and his capacity, — first, through the intimate association of President with secretary, and then as a cabinet officer. He knew Cortelyou had met every emergency and equaled every responsibility. Here was a man with the genius of organization, trained by hard experience, acquainted with every politician of prominence, in touch with political conditions in every section, who had



HON. GEORGE B. CORTELYOU.
(Chairman of the Republican National Committee.)

independence and moral courage. With all the qualities required of a national chairman, except that of experience in actual political management, he was not hampered by narrow views, but was resourceful, energetic, and wholly trustworthy.

Having seen Mr. Cortelyou tried in all conditions, knowing his faithfulness and appreciating in full measure his ability, the President chose him to conduct the campaign upon which hangs his own political future, and to a large degree the destiny of the nation. A great factor was the knowledge that Mr. Cortelyou would be chairman in reality, and not a figure-head to follow Presidential dictation, or to be controlled by any other influence. He understood that with George B. Cortelyou as national chairman his own part in the campaign would be confined almost wholly to his speech at the time of the formal notification of his nomination and to his letter of acceptance. President Roosevelt wanted to be free from the harassment and vexation of the campaign. He felt, though he has not enlarged on this view, that the proprieties required him to refrain from any part in the struggle, and to devote himself with undivided zeal to the heavy duties of the Presidency. But he wanted to feel that his interests were in safe hands. Hence Cortelyou.



MR. CHARLES F. BROOKER, OF CONNECTICUT.

Mr. Cortelyou is just forty-two,—four years younger than the President,—a native of New York City, a descendant of one of its prominent colonial and revolutionary families, and a graduate of the Hempstead (L. I.) Institute and of the Normal School, at Westfield, Mass. He studied music in the New England Conservatory of Music at Boston, and in New York, and at the same time perfected himself in shorthand. Later, he became assistant teacher in the stenographic school while he took the clinical course at the New York Hospital, improving his shorthand by reporting lectures. In 1884, he entered the Government service as stenographer and private secretary in the appraiser's office in New York. Resigning when Cleveland first became President, he engaged in general law reporting, as assistant to the official stenographer of the Superior Court, soon becoming an expert medical stenographer. In 1891, he began his career in Washington as private secretary to Fourth Assistant Postmaster-General Rathbone. The defeat of Harrison and the second incoming of Cleveland, in 1893, caused Mr. Cortelyou to tender his resignation. It was not accepted, and notwithstanding his Republicanism, Mr. Cortelyou was made acting chief clerk of the Fourth Assistant's office.



HON. CORNELIUS N. BLISS, OF NEW YORK.
(Treasurer of the Republican National Committee.)

At the White House are employed only the most expert of government clerks. It happened that in November, 1895, President Cleveland was in need of a competent stenographer. Mr. Cortelyou's work had been appreciated in the Post-Office Department, so he was recommended and appointed. So well did he profit by this opportunity that in three months he was promoted to executive clerk, with charge of the clerical work of the White House. Thirteen months later, Mr. McKinley was inaugurated, and Mr. Cleveland, who had come to value Mr. Cortelyou's qualities, commended him to his



MR. LOUIS A. COOLIDGE, OF MASSACHUSETTS.

(Director of literary and press bureaus.)



SENATOR NATHAN B. SCOTT, OF WEST VIRGINIA.



MR. FRANK O. LOWDEN, OF ILLINOIS.

successor's favorable notice. A little more than a year after the advent of President McKinley, an additional assistant secretaryship was created, and Mr. Cortelyou was appointed. He had earned President McKinley's confidence, who more and more came to rely upon him, Mr. Porter, the secretary, being in ill health. Mr. Porter retired in April, 1900, and Mr. Cortelyou was made secretary to the President — he had been the actual secretary for some months.



MR. WILLIAM L. WARD, OF NEW YORK.

As secretary, Mr. Cortelyou systematized the work of the executive offices, improved the force and its efficiency, and made it a model of executive accuracy. It was here that he notably displayed that capacity for organization, clear-headedness, sound judgment, keen perception, tact, understanding of men, and devotion to duty that made him the most successful of secretaries to the President, a most difficult position. He was President McKinley's devoted friend and adviser. President Roosevelt retained Cortelyou as secretary, and when the opportunity occurred advanced him to the cabinet, where he so admirably organized the new and powerful Department of Commerce and Labor. His success in confidential relations to three Presidents and as a cabinet officer marked him as best fitted to conduct the present campaign.

Four months is the extreme limit of a Presidential campaign. The first ten weeks must be devoted to organization and preparation alone, for no matter how important the issues, the people will not take keen interest during the heated term. The organization of the two parties has been completed. Mr. Cortelyou, in whose hands are the reins of control, is responsible for the conduct of the Republican fight. Consult he does, as any general, with his lieutenants, but his is the deciding voice as much as is that of the President in his cabinet. Now comes the strenuous seven or eight weeks of active campaigning. Each party has two headquarters, one in the East and the other in the West, that the managers may be in closer touch with the several battle-grounds. While the Republicans will not concede that any of the States that were carried by McKinley in 1900 are doubtful, they must accept the battle where the enemy gives it, and concentrate their energies on the States which the Democrats attack. In the East, the Democrats are attempting to capture New York, Connecticut, New Jersey, Delaware, Maryland, and West Virginia. To fight for these, though most of them are not regarded as doubtful, is the duty of the Eastern headquarters, located in New York City. In the West, Indiana, Illinois, Wisconsin, Nebraska, Colorado, Idaho, Montana, and Utah are receiving the most Democratic attention. For the conduct of the campaign in these States the Western headquarters at Chicago is held responsible. Each headquarters is in Chairman Cortelyou's direct control. He will divide his time between the two as the exigencies of the situation require, but will at all times be in intimate touch with both.

The actual conduct of the campaign, under Chairman Cortelyou's direction, is in charge of the executive committee, appointed by him. Assigned to the Eastern headquarters are Charles F. Brooker, of Connecticut; Senator Nathan B. Scott, of West Virginia; Gov. Franklin Murphy, of New Jersey; and William L. Ward, of New York. Each is a national committeeman. Each comes from a State in which the opposition will make the most desperate fight. In the States they represent the issue will be deter-



GOV. FRANKLIN MURPHY, OF NEW JERSEY.

mined. Mr. Brooker is a manufacturer, who stands high in his State, and has had previous experience in national politics. Senator Scott was one of Senator Hanna's right-hand men in his two campaigns and one of his devoted friends. Governor Murphy is a manufacturer and a trained manager, to whom the Republicanism of New Jersey is largely due. William L. Ward is a political expert, and fully conversant with the New York situation. On duty at the Western headquarters are Harry S. New, of Indiana; Frank O. Lowden, of Illinois; R. B. Schneider, of Nebraska; and David W. Mulvane, of Kansas. Each of these, except Mr. Schneider, is a national committeeman. Mr. New knows Indiana thoroughly, and is a trained manager. Colonel Lowden, also an expert in politics, is in close touch with Illinois, and is a State leader. Mr. Schneider understands Nebraska and the currents that run in the West. Mr. Mulvane, in addition to his knowledge of the Kansas situation, is fully conversant with that in Colorado and the other inter-mountain States.



MR. HARRY S. NEW, OF INDIANA.

At the Western headquarters, Elmer Dover, of Ohio, secretary of the national committee, is stationed. In Mr. Cortelyou's absence, he is in command. Though young, he has had the benefit of training under the late Senator Hanna, whose private secretary he was. He and Senator Scott represent the old Hanna *régime*. The responsibilities imposed on Mr. Dover are because of his proved and exceptional fitness. At the Eastern headquarters is Louis A. Coolidge, of Massachusetts, director of literary and press work, who has charge of the headquarters when Mr. Cortelyou is in the West. He has proved his executive talent in places of responsibility, and his experience as a Washington newspaper correspondent, with his wide acquaintance with public men and understanding of political conditions, prepared him particularly for his new activity. More than any one, except Mr. Cortelyou himself, is he the President's representative. Senator Scott is head of the speakers' bureau for the East, the same work he performed under Chairman M. Hanna, and Representative James A. Tawney, of Minnesota, is chief of the similar bureau in the West. Here is evidence of that coöperation between the national and Congressional committees that promises such good results, for Mr. Tawney is also in charge of speakers for the Congressional committee.



HON. JAMES A. TAWNEY, OF MINNESOTA.

No campaign can be run without money. It is needed to meet the many heavy expenses that are not only wholly legitimate, but absolutely necessary. Rent, printing, postage, stationery, traveling, canvassing, clerical hire, literature,—these are some of the items of expense. While some money comes unasked, — as for example, Mrs. Hanna's large contribution,—most of the necessary funds must be solicited. That means a most important committee,—that on finance. The members of this committee cannot be made known, as that would embarrass and hamper their activities. It must be understood that in the solicitation of money there are no promises and no pledges to corporations or others. It is popularly supposed that there is great carelessness in the expenditure of money by a national committee. That may be so, on occasions, but in the present campaign the Republicans have a most careful system of vouchers and auditing, which prevents the waste or misuse of its funds. Each expenditure is scrutinized as carefully as if the committee were conducting a great business house, and is as strictly accounted for.



MR. ELMER DOVER, OF OHIO.
(Secretary of the Republican National Committee.)

In addition to the sources of information at Chairman Cortelyou's disposal, he has a large advisory committee, composed of skilled politi-

cians from all sections. They never meet as a body, but communicate with the chairman by letter or in person, telling him of the progress of the fight in their several States. The value of this committee is immeasurable. It was selected with great care.

Speaker Cannon and Senator Frye, president *pro tem.* of the Senate, most especially represent the House and the Senate on the advisory committee. In addition are Representatives Bartholdt, Missouri; Dickson, Montana; Van Voorhis, Ohio; and Brownlow, Tennessee; and Senators Gallinger, New Hampshire; Dryden and Kean, New Jersey; Lodge, Massachusetts; Nelson, Minnesota; and Heyburn, Idaho. Other members are men of such character as H. H. Hanna, Indiana; J. W. Blythe, Iowa; Commander-in-chief Torrence, of the Grand Army of the Republic; Thomas Lowrie, Minnesota; ex-Senator Tom Carter, Montana; Edward Rosewater, Nebraska; C. S. Morril, Nebraska; Alex. McKenzie, North Dakota; Joseph Manley, Maine; ex-Representative Blackburn, North Carolina; ex-Senator Felton and George A. Knight, California, and ex-Gov. W. M. Crane, Massachusetts. The latter would have been on the executive committee had he consented, but he did not feel that he could accept the heavy responsibility. He will, however, be Chairman Cortelyou's chief adviser, his valued assistant, for his political acumen, judgment, and high character fit him for the highest responsibilities.

A campaign is organized on the plan of an army. Discipline is imperative. The conduct of each tactical unit affects the result as much as it does the fate of an army in battle. Chairman Cortelyou deals directly with the several State organizations, depending upon them for the execution of his plans. With them there is the most harmonious relation. As he relies on the State committees, so they act through their several city and county committees. He is informed of conditions in every State, and is in receipt of constant reports from all contested points. Where disaffection exists, there particular efforts are made to overcome it. Literature to enlighten voters and to destroy misconceptions is sent thither in great quantities, and speakers are dispatched to awaken the apathetic and arouse enthusiasm. As the campaign progresses new methods are developed to meet new situations. Constant vigilance is the order. While there is no hope of the Republicans carrying any Southern State, any more than the Democrats can expect to win in rock-ribbed Republican States in the North, this year Republican Congressional candidates will contest every Southern district. This will occupy Southern leaders more than usual, and tend to keep them from invading the North. Representative Babcock, of Wisconsin, who has won five consecutive campaigns for the House, is in charge of the Congressional canvass. He has the prestige of success and of experience.

Education of voters, next to organization, is most important. This is chiefly the duty of the literary bureau. It distributes documents and furnishes material, including editorial and news matter, for the country press. Much of this is distributed through the associations that provide "plate matter" to the small newspapers that cannot set up their general news. It also informs newspaper correspondents, stationed at headquarters, of each day's developments. The theory that governs its work is that the average voter will be impressed more by brief, striking statements of fact that explain Republican policies, show the benefits that have followed their enforcement, and puncture Democratic pretensions. In this it appeals especially to the busy city voter. The Congressional committee also distributes documents, chiefly Republican Congressional speeches and public reports, under Congressional franks. Before the campaign is ended many millions of these, weighing tons, will have been sent out from its distributing office in Washington. The Congressional literature appeals especially to the country voter. The literary bureau does not trench upon the distributing work of the Congressional committee. It seeks to make its news service attractive, to entertain while it educates. Statistics that talk, cartoons, and striking posters are some of its best methods

The speakers' bureaus provide "spellbinders" to gladden the hearts of cheering multitudes and awaken them to the pitch of enthusiasm that brings them to the polls. Probably more than five hundred speakers will be on the hustings under the direction of the national committee in addition to the thousands that State and local committees will dispatch into the political mission fields. A campaign book has been issued, which is an admirable history of Republican executive and legislative accomplishments in the eight years of its full control of the Government. It is not only a ready reference book for speakers, editors, and voters.

Each member of the executive committee has his own department, and is responsible to Chairman Cortelyou. Among their duties are the winning of first voters, club organization, naturalization and the prevention of naturalization frauds, registration, detection of tricks and fraud, correction of misrepresentation, and a thousand others.

PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT AS EUROPE SEES HIM.

BY LOUIS E. VAN NORMAN.

IT is a significant fact that the attitude of thoughtful Europeans toward the United States is now, for the first time, perhaps, one of vital concern and sympathetic understanding. This is, beyond a doubt, due chiefly to the personality and achievements in statesmanship of President Roosevelt. All over the Continent, and in Great Britain, the writer has heard the plainly outspoken opinion that the day of the local politician as President of the United States has passed, and that America has at last evolved a man of international weight and significance. He is, beyond a doubt, the most popular President in the eyes of the outside world who has ever held the office. British, French, German, Italian, Austrian, and Russian journals are quite frank in their expressions of esteem for Mr. Roosevelt, not only as a statesman, but as a writer, thinker, savant, and practical man of affairs. With the advent of the United States as a world-power, a man of the stamp of President Roosevelt became necessary, they declare. Europeans regard the President as a strong, dignified American. They believed in him as soon as his first public acts were accomplished. In the Kishineff matter, in the Panama Canal affair, and now in the crisis in the far East, the opinion among Europeans generally is that the present American President, while maintaining a strong, patriotic, and intensely American attitude, has nevertheless proved a helpful counselor in the family of civilized nations. It would seem that, while President McKinley was regarded as a strong, successful politician, Mr. Roosevelt is looked upon as a statesman, a thinker, a strenuous American who may cause trouble to Europe, but, nevertheless, the dignified head of a great nation. He is sometimes compared to the German Kaiser, but generally regarded as more serious than that monarch. In the words of an English statesman: "It took William II. ten years to live down the uneasiness caused by his accession. It has taken Theodore Roosevelt just one year." His utterances on "race suicide" are praised, because Europe is also thinking on this subject. His books have been translated into a number of European languages, and are read widely. They are a little too obvious, perhaps, in their philosophy, Europe thinks, but sound and healthy. Europe took Mr. Roosevelt's nomination at Chicago for granted, and European journals, when they comment on it, express, in general, satisfaction.

OPINIONS IN ENGLAND.

Theodore Roosevelt has always appealed strongly to Englishmen. They love his decisiveness, his fondness for sport, his vigor. English sympathy has not generally been with the Republican party. It remained for the personality of Theodore Roosevelt to make his party better known to England. For himself, Englishmen have great sympathy. They feel, said a London gentleman to the writer, that, if he had been an Englishman, he would have done most of the things that appeal to Englishmen. The clean-cut personality of the President they can understand, and, in general, it may be said, Englishmen applaud his firm but conciliatory policy. An anonymous character-sketch in the English *Review of Reviews*, at the time of his accession to office, said: "Take Mr. Gladstone, Mr. Rhodes, Lord Charles Beresford, and John Burns, boil them down, until you get the residual essence, into an American Dutchman, and you have something like the new President of the United States." The *St. James Gazette* puts it in rhyme like this:

> "Smack of Lord Cromer,
> Jeff Davis, a touch of him;
> A little of Lincoln,
> But not very much of him;
> Kitchener, Bismarck, and Germany's Will,
> Jupiter, Chamberlain, Buffalo Bill."

English opinion, of course, has its *Saturday Review*, which condemned the first message of President Roosevelt as showing him to be writing "in the shadow of the second term, and too obviously sacrificing the strenuous to the safe." But the British press is generally in accord with the editorial in the *Fortnightly Review* which, on Mr. Roosevelt's assumption to high office, said: "The new President becomes, at the age of forty-three, the central figure of the Anglo-Saxon world, and every accent has already shown that the words of Theodore Roosevelt are the words of a man," or, as W. Laird Clowes puts it (in the *Nineteenth Century and After*): "I believe that he will lead well and wisely, and that, when his days of power are past, there will be many millions of Americans who will honor the name of Theodore Roosevelt as that

of the greatest of Presidents since Washington." The *Westminster Gazette* (London) calls Mr. Roosevelt "a remarkable example of a man who has reached the highest place without losing any of his youthful enthusiasms." Sydney Brooks, in the *Monthly Review* (London), discussing "One Year of Roosevelt," declares that in ordinary times the American form of administration is a conspiracy for doing nothing,—but Roosevelt is strenuous, and all through his career he has shown the instinct for command innate in him."

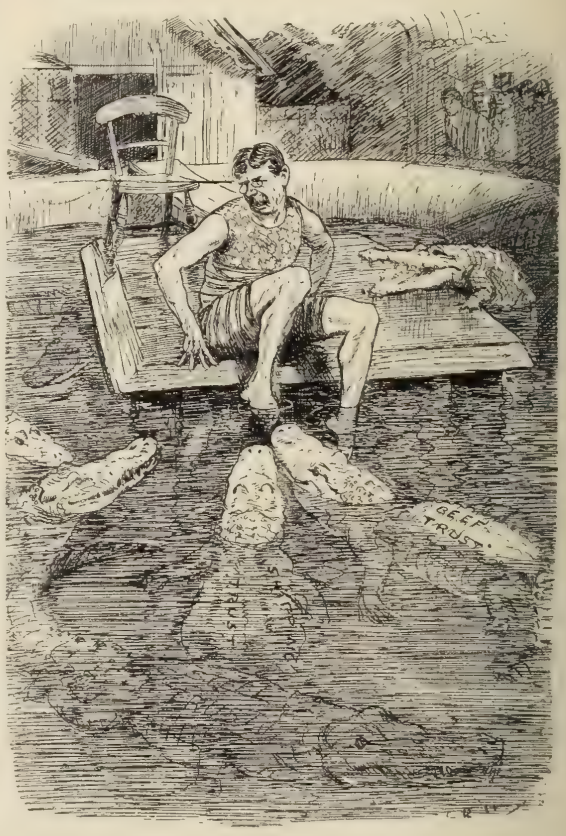
He is in all essentials one of the most balanced and conservative of Americans. So long as President Roosevelt remains at the White House, and possibly for much longer, the sinister league between party politics and the civil service that debased and demoralized both is dissolved. His own temperament, though quickly and easily stirred, is essentially Whiggish, content to advance a step at a time, inexorable on vital points, but never tempted to extremes. One could hazard the man from his books or his books from the man. His prose has a hard, confident, metallic texture, with little light or shade playing about it, yet strong in its rush and resonance—the prose of a man of action, blunt and utterly straightforward, clean-cut and sincere. Style and matter alike bespeak the man's mind. It is, if I may say so, a bludgeon of a mind healthily unoriginal and non-creative, of wide range and the closest of grips, and with a dogmatic turn for the common sense of things, a sane but hardly a deep mind, and used like a bludgeon for criticism, exhortation, attack. A man in many ways after Carlyle's own heart, who has "swallowed formulas," is transparently incapable of anything mean, underhand, or equivocal, preaches and practises the gospel of work, and flinches before nothing.

A month or so ago (in *Harper's Weekly*), Mr. Brooks declared that, "by education, birth, and tastes, Mr. Roosevelt belongs to the type that Englishmen like most to represent them in the national legislature."

If he were an Englishman, people feel that he would have explored every inch in the empire, shot all the big game to be found in it, won his Blue at Oxford or Cambridge, kept a pack of hounds, written some slashing books on Wellington and Nelson and the heroes of the Indian mutiny, captured De Wet, annexed an empire or two, and made his mark in Parliament as a progressive Conservative. . . . His other qualities,—his breezy and invigorating self-confidence, his great political courage, his buoyant, eager, somewhat slapdash temperament, and his entire adequacy to the practical duties of whatever office he happens to be holding,—these irresistibly compel the sympathy and admiration of the English people.

In the course of a review of Jacob Riis' book, "Theodore Roosevelt, the Man and the Citizen," the *Athenæum* (London) says:

In England, where his books are not especially esteemed, he has a high reputation as an organizer and as a strong and just man. . . . No doubt his style is of an exasperatingly "copy-book" character, as he invariably prefers platitude to paradox, and seems to write over the top of every page "I am a good boy," "The American people are good boys." But then there is no denying the fact that he is a good boy, and that the American people are good boys—as nations go; and it must be noted to his credit that there is not the least suspicion of hypocrisy or even cant about him.



A STRENUOUS PERFORMANCE.

PROFESSOR ROOSEVELT (in his great trust act): "Ladies and gentlemen: In order to demonstrate the possibility of controlling these powerful creatures, not all of them equally tractable, I will now descend into their midst." (Proceeds to get out of his depth.)—From *Punch* (London).

The *Speaker* (London), however, believes that "such a man has his dangerous side, especially in America." Mr. Roosevelt, it continues, "in his ardent expansiveness, his dogmatic impatience, and the violent aggressiveness of his militarism, represents in all its nakedness the extreme type of the reaction against many of the soundest and most genuinely conservative tendencies of the American policy and character."

British comment on Mr. Roosevelt's first message to Congress was favorable, and, when he had been in office a year, the *Spectator* observed: "President Roosevelt has shown that he is a leader, and not a follower. He has not watched

popular opinion crystallize into belief, and proceed from conviction to action; he has tried to mold public thought to his own notions. He has not been content to be a figurehead; he is a steersman." Again, in reviewing a compilation of the President's addresses, messages, and letters, this English journal says:

At this moment, President Roosevelt is probably the most interesting political figure in the world. He is one of the protagonists in what is certainly the foremost of constitutional combats; but he is also the inaugurator of a new era in American public life, a revolutionary who has dared to face the apathy of the cultivated classes and the ingrained corruption of party politics, and by the sheer force of a masterful personality has compelled the majority of his countrymen,—many, no doubt, against their will,—to think with him. Whether he succeeds or fails, things can never be quite the same again. America's eyes have been opened to the chances in her destiny, old catchwords have been discredited, old abuses exposed. A thrill of electric energy has gone through classes which at one time saw in the political life only a sordid career without honor or ideals. Like Mirabeau, he has been a "swallower of formulas," and he has forced his people to discard the veil of cant and rhetoric, and look facts simply in the face.

In commenting upon Mr. Roosevelt's nomination for the Presidency, the *Spectator* admits that the selfish interests of their own country would incline Englishmen to wish for the success of the Democratic candidate, but—

the success of Mr. Roosevelt would be very pleasing to them, because he is an English-speaking man of whom they have a right to be proud—a man who is carrying on the great political tradition, a tradition which, though often obscured both here and on the other side of the Atlantic, has never died out. . . . That he speaks in loud and firm tones, nay, shouts—that he holds on like a bulldog, is doubtless true; but he does not hold on to the extreme things, but to the sensible and moderate things.

Fred. A. McKenzie prophesied (in the *Daily News*, in 1901) that the Republican party could have only one possible candidate in 1904—Theodore Roosevelt.

For generations, Americans have thought that the one way to political power was to compromise, to conciliate, to trim. Here is a man whose whole career has been a protest against trimming and compromising. Ever a sworn foe to evil, ever ready to make foes for the right, he has yet, despite all, reached the highest office his nation can give.

The staid old *Times* has again and again paid its tribute to the American President. He possesses, says the *Times*,

the elements that make a great man, and he will leave a strong impress for good or for ill on the history of his country. His advantages are his transparent honesty of purpose, his "Bismarckian" frankness, his keen insight into the heart of things, his impatience of irrelevant and insignificant details, and his generosity in acknowledging mistakes. . . . Since he became President not a rash nor provocative word has fallen from his lips.

A LIVELY INTEREST IN FRANCE.

French people are not much given to expressing interest in foreign personalities. But Mr. Roosevelt, President and statesman, is a very frequent topic of conversation among the politicians of the Quai d'Orsay; and Theodore Roosevelt, the man and the writer, comes in for a good deal of comment in the press,—not always favorable, it must be admitted, but generally couched in respectful and admiring terms. "The Strenuous Life" was translated into French, under the title "La Vie Intense." Later, "American Ideals" and others were translated, and it is these French versions which have been talked about, and written about, all over the Continent. France is vitally concerned in the problem of a decreasing birth-rate, and Mr. Roosevelt's opinions on "race suicide" have been received with approving comment in the French press. His foreign policy, however, is generally regarded as militating against the ambitions of France's ally—Russia—and is, accordingly, condemned. That Nestor of French opinion, the Paris *Temps*, has always considered the President a superior but "somewhat spectacular person."

His friends cannot forget his constant jingo dithyrambs. No one since General Jackson has more complacently given free rein to the American eagle,—that is to say, indulged in the spreadeagleism which the



THE NEW HERCULES.
From *Nebelspalter* (Zurich).

more sober tradition of Washington, Jefferson, and Lincoln had systematically avoided.

The critic of *La Revue*, also, in reviewing the "American Ideals," declares that the American people have begun to misuse their prodigious energy. Their ambitions threaten their future. "And they have found in the man who is at their head one who formulates, in principles and maxims, their own instincts of domination." Edouard Rod, also, in the *Correspondant* (Paris), insists that his "strenuous" ideas will make Mr. Roosevelt a formidable, even a dangerous, figure in the Presidential chair. The *Petit Parisien* believes that President Roosevelt certainly is "one of the most remarkable men of our age, not only because of his exalted position, but even more on account of his own powerful personality." Ivan Strannik, in the *Revue Bleue* (Paris), reviewing "The Rough Riders," declares that Mr. Roosevelt's "excessive individuality is an excellent quality when rightly exercised, and a most dangerous one when not under proper restraint." He believes that "it will be well-braked in." Robert de Caix (in the *Journal des Debâts*) calls Mr. Roosevelt a fine, sterling, honest American gentleman, who is animated by the kindliest sentiments toward France; and Pierre Leroy Beaulieu, the celebrated French economist (in the *Economist Français*), believes that he will be a safe President, "because, though a pronounced jingo, he has much of that fine Anglo-Saxon characteristic, common sense." French comment on the first message was generally adverse. The *Journal des Debâts* declared that the message revealed "an unscrupulous imperialism." The *Temps* called it a personal, not an official, document, and believed that the trusts would draw a breath of relief.

French opinion of the book, "American Ideals," differs. The *Temps* had one of its best writers, Gaston Deschamps, review the work. Says M. Deschamps:

> Mr. Roosevelt has made superb use of his privilege of sending a message, which the American Constitution confers upon the President of the United States. He does not content himself with informing his fellow-citizens of what he thinks or suggests on political affairs, but desires that his Presidential words shall have the world for their field.

France had always thought that the "American ideal" was the dollar; but Mr. Roosevelt has announced otherwise. And he has a right to speak. The *Salute Public* (Lyons) does not like Mr. Roosevelt's references to the French woman. Its critic, Pierre Jay, thinks that Mr. Roosevelt should not have taunted the French woman with an aversion to maternity, when he himself has found it necessary to speak to his own countrymen so strongly on the subject of "race suicide," and when certain other social conditions which prevent home-making are so pronounced in the United States.

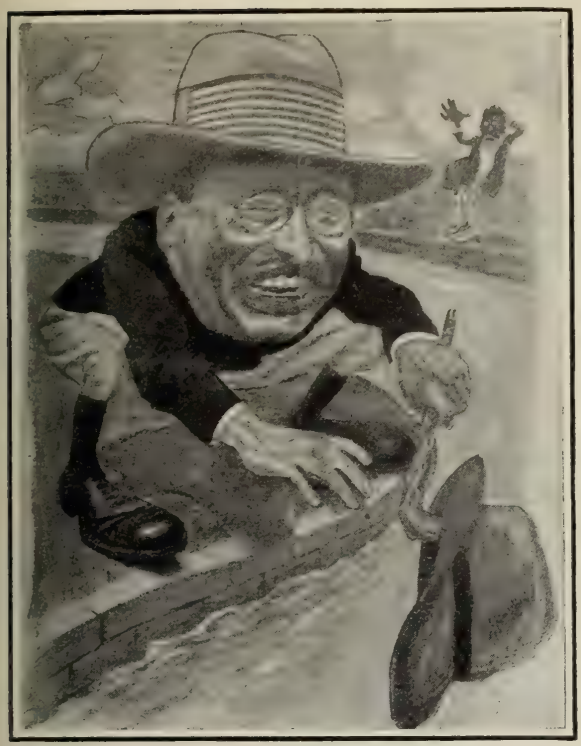


PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT AND OLD EUROPE.
From *Le Rire* (Paris).

RUSSIAN OPINION DIFFERS.

In Russia, despite the popular feeling against our State Department for what Russians call unwarranted "meddling" in the far East, and the general anti-American opinion throughout the empire, President Roosevelt's neutrality proclamation is commended for its honesty, and the personality of the President is admired. The editor of the *Journal de St. Petersbourg* has nothing but admiration for "American Ideals." It is not, he says, the study of a subject narrowly comprehended. "It is the picture of a state of mind common to Americans of the United States . . . . traced with an alert pen, with a frankness that is rather rough, and with a veritable originality." This journal, originally a subsidized publication in French, is now becoming the organ of the Department of Foreign Affairs, from which the popular press is permitted to copy without hindrance. It therefore represents, to a certain extent, the attitude of the government. It continues, in complimentary vein:

> Without oratorical precautions and diplomatic underbreaths, . . . everywhere there is the passionate de-



THE PRESIDENT OF COLOMBIA: "My hat, my hat!"
ROOSEVELT: "Don't yell so, my old friend. I'll fish it out for myself directly."—From *Lustige Blätter* (Stuttgart).

sire to raise the level of humanity, which is, indeed, the honor of America. Yet this ideal aim does not make the author lose his foothold. His practical sense turns generous intentions into efficacious acts. In spite of ardent patriotism and decided optimism, he does not hesitate to lay bare the social sores of his country. . . . "American Ideals" is the book of the man of action, doubled in the man of thought.

The *Novosti* (St. Petersburg), in an article on the political situation in the United States, says: "There is no doubt that President Roosevelt has gained the confidence and sympathy of the whole Republican party by his strength of character and his fearlessness in conflict with all kinds of abuses in the shady side of American life. As a leader of imperialism, however, Mr. Roosevelt sometimes goes to extremes." The *Novosti* then cites President Roosevelt's letter regarding Cuba, and says: "This letter completely alters the political programme, creating 'the Roosevelt doctrine.'"

When the "American ideal" works out in the hands of the State Department, Russian opinion is not so enthusiastic. An English journal quotes from the *Revue Russe* (probably the *Russkaye Mysl*, of St. Petersburg) an article on Russo-American relations. In reviewing the book "American Ideals," the writer regards Mr. Roosevelt's foreign policy as unreasonable. He says:

Which, the Slav or the Yankee, will be the master of the Pacific, of this new Mediterranean, where the future of the world is preparing? . . . To forestall the possible occupation of the Pacific, the Americans, putting in practice the theories of their President Roosevelt, take all the positions judged indispensable. Hawaii, Samoa, and the Philippines led them across the Pacific to Yokohama, Shanghai, Hongkong, Melbourne, and Singapore; and the approaching completion of the Panama Canal will make the Americans masters of the two great oceans. . . . But the greed of the Americans blinds them to the consequence of their pro-Japanese policy. Messrs. Roosevelt and Hay will soon see Japan install, in the midst of the miserable ants' nests of China, all the industries that compete with America.

GERMANS ADMIRE, BUT FEAR.

In Berlin there is great popular interest in the President of the United States. The *Deutsche Tages-Zeitung* (Berlin), in speaking of his nomination at Chicago, declared: "The American President is by far the most interesting personage in all the world of the present day." Germans are fond of comparing him with the Kaiser, and there is great curiosity about him in all ranks. Germans talk a great deal about American trusts and American Teutophobia, and are apt to identify Mr. Roosevelt as much with adherence to the latter as with opposition to the former. A number of prominent Germans, however (let Prof. Hugo Münsterberg, of Harvard University, speak for them), believe that Mr. Roosevelt is anything but a jingo, and that his influence is in the direction of a *rapprochement* with Germany. The press, however, is not unanimous in commendation. In Germany it has always been believed that President Roosevelt's "strenuous" ideas would make trouble for Europe, particularly in the matter of the Monroe Doctrine. A number of representative journals, in fact, now always speak, not of the Monroe Doctrine, but of the Roosevelt Doctrine. The *Hamburger Nachrichten* (Hamburg) calls him "bumptious." The *Kreuz-Zeitung* (Berlin), which is usually anti-American, has long beheld in American jingoism "a void and formless infinite upon which Theodore Roosevelt seeks to stamp the image of himself." Yet this conservative organ highly praises him for his "efficiency in action," and heartily admires him for his energy in building a large and powerful navy, although, as it admits, such a navy bodes no particular good to Germany. His Kishineff policy, it claims, was very selfish. The explanation of President Roosevelt's attitude on many international questions, this Berlin journal believes, is found in the fact that—

he is an idealist who considers that he and his country are commissioned by the Almighty to bring about "freedom and equality" for as much of mankind as possible. Notwithstanding his praises of the Jews, it would be simplicity to deem him a philosemite. He champions, in like manner, all who, for any reason, are kept down. . . . He has taken occasion to praise Germans and Catholics, including Jesuits.

The *Bremer Tageblatt* (Bremen) reads the United States a sharp lesson on lynching horrors, and warns President Roosevelt that he has not been clean-cut and careful himself in his opinions on this subject. Germans are much interested in Mr. Roosevelt's prowess as a huntsman, and the *Berliner Börsen Zeitung* is glad that he wrote his books of Western adventure. They give Europeans, this journal declares, a new and more pleasing conception of the American type of manhood. There is now another ideal than the dollar, says the *Hamburger Fremdenblatt*. "Theodore Roosevelt is the type of this ideal."

ITALY DEEPLY INTERESTED.

Besides their interest in President Roosevelt's attitude on the immigration question, which is such a vital one to their country, Italians are reading "The Strenuous Life" and "American Ideals." The *Tribuna*, the dignified daily of Rome, says that the American President lives out his ideals.

His intelligence is as true as a mathematical theorem, and as straight as a moral truth. To this may be added—something which is never useless or superfluous in political life—the combination in himself of the common sense and virtue of his own country. No matter whether he speaks or writes, he never doubts or hesitates, but always judges and passes sentence. . . . His speeches and his written articles are actions. He is American in every corpuscle of his blood, in every fiber of his brain. He is American by nature, and not by legend. . . . Everything is strenuous in him, the idea as well as the expression, the form as well as the substance, because everything is natural, as in ancient nations whom we call barbarian; but everything is also pure, like the heart of the earth, which no one has ever touched. Vigor, honesty, and common sense are the leaders of his principles.

The *Corriere di Romagna*, of Ravenna, is enthusiastic over "American Ideals," of which it says:

It is marvelous how, in this rapid, active career, full of feverish and multiform work, he has penetrated to all the secrets of society and has recognized all its disadvantages and defects. . . . In reading his book, one fancies he can hear the powerful, healthy, and warm vibrations from a sound, manly pulse.

The *Corriere della Sera* (Milan) declares that "a memory of Greco-Roman times clings to this singular man, this sagacious writer of books. This clever football player is also invested with the supreme rights of the American Constitution." The *Perseveranza*, also of Milan, believes Mr. Roosevelt sure of reëlection. It says:

There are many advantages that Mr. Roosevelt has in comparison with any possible opponent: an elevated mind, a generous character, dignity of life, services rendered in the Cuban war, a record in administrative integrity, and successes in foreign politics. . . . Since Lincoln and Grant, no Presidential candidate has combined in his own personality so many elements of success.

SOME AUSTRIAN OPINION.

A number of Austrian journals commend Mr. Roosevelt's neutrality proclamation. The *Neues Wiener Tageblatt* (Vienna) prints the proclamation, and says it believes that the President will enforce it rigidly—which he ought to do because of the duty imposed by the Monroe Doctrine.

Hungarian comment has not been extensive. The *Est i Ujsag* (Budapest), however, praises the President's impartiality and justice in the recent postal scandal, emphasizing the fact that his action in delivering the guilty parties to the judges and lawyers, who were not of the Republican party, shows that he does not give consideration to his own party when corruption and wrongdoing is concerned.

Austrian comment on the messages to Congress was generally unfavorable, and the *Morge*



GREAT UNANIMITY IN GROVELING.
From *Der Wahre Jacob* (Berlin).

Zeitung (Vienna) declared them to be a sign that "democracy proclaims it has adopted imperialism as its standard."

THE POLES LIKE HIS BOOKS.

A lofty conception of duty and action especially appeals to the Poles, with their idealistic temperament. Despite their "artistic preoccupation," Mr. Roosevelt's "Strenuous Life," somehow, evokes much favorable comment from the Polish press. In the *Czas*, the leading daily of Cracow (Austrian Poland), there recently appeared a lengthy review and appreciation of "The Strenuous Life." The writer indorses the President's philosophy, and says:

Every sentence of the book is pregnant with meaning and extremely thought-provoking. As President, he has remained true to his first beliefs and convictions.



LORD OF THE NEW WORLD.

ROOSEVELT: "Take that statue of Frederick the Great away, until a statue of Monroe has been set up in Berlin."
From *Der Floh* (Vienna).

This harmony of words with actions, this consistency of principles, which he not only has not repudiated, but defends to-day as he did formerly, with regard to political ideals—all this adds to the book unusual significance and weight. Everything he has done and said in his life demonstrates, by his unfailing strength and willpower, what, no doubt, he will always do on every occasion. The idealism of his views of life, the deep ethical meaning of his suggestions, and the great weight he attaches to spiritual forces in the life of nations—these are not the theorizing of a learned schoolman. They are the lessons and tests that have passed through the fires of life's trials. If they were not consumed by the fire, if they have remained untouched, and in all their strength, we can still trust in them. . . . The spirit of wholesome idealism pervades the simple and sincere pages, holding the attention by the force of their convictions, which are based upon experience and thought. There is a sort of health-giving atmosphere embodied in the many words of the American President, affirming the social order which Christianity has built up.

The *Dziennik Polski*, of Lemberg (Austrian Poland), declares that he [President Roosevelt] has a conviction and a feeling on the subject of war and peace of which a Roman during the time of Augustus need not be ashamed.

We have been taught for so long to believe that the United States is a country devoted entirely and exclusively to business life, and that the Americans think of nothing else but making dollars. But it would be difficult to deny that the Americans have an ideal now that he who is at the head of American democracy, the successor of Washington, Monroe, Lincoln, Grant, Cleveland, and McKinley, is actually trying to give this ideal a concrete form. . . . So we perceive that the "American ideal," as presented by the most noted of Americans, scarcely differs from the ideal which the Greeks and Romans represented as citizens of the ancient world. To defend the blessed soil of one's ancestors against all attacks; to be capable of any public service; to prepare youths to fulfill all duties toward the state; to equip every citizen with those virtues which form themselves into a harmony of civic strength and militant courage,—such are the principles of President Roosevelt, and such were those to which Thucydides and many others of the ancient worthies subscribed.

Belgian opinion is rather adversely critical,—that is, as it is found reflected in the newspapers. That conservative world journal, the *Independance Belge* (Brussels), is, on the whole, an admirer of President Roosevelt, but it believes him to be "dangerous, because the whole policy of imperialism is dangerous to the peace of the country." The *Metropole* (Antwerp), in discussing the Presidential campaign, believes that the President will be reëlected, but rather inclines to the opinion that "it is time for another spirit to manifest itself in public affairs." One remembers, it says, that "it was Cleveland who prevented the Spanish-American war, and that it was only upon the accession of President McKinley that the present imperialistic policy of Theodore Roosevelt was inaugurated." Europe, it concludes, would be happy over the reëlection of Cleveland.

The Spanish press has a good word to say for the present American Chief Magistrate. The leading Spanish daily, *Epoca* (Madrid), was relieved at Mr. Roosevelt's accession. It said: "Now there will be no uncertainty. You could never be quite sure of McKinley, but you can put your finger on Theodore Roosevelt every time."

THE NEW YORK RAPID TRANSIT SUBWAY.

HOW IT WILL AFFECT THE CITY'S LIFE AND BUSINESS.

BY HERBERT CROLY.

THE people of New York do well to celebrate with trumpets and drums the opening of the subway for travel. The event begins the emancipation of the larger part of the city's population from an excessively cramped and uncomfortable manner of living. The emancipation will not be finally effected without many years of additional labor and the construction of other tunnels than the one now about completed. Nevertheless, the opening of the subway is an event of great importance in the history of the city, because for the first time a machinery of transit has been provided which promises to be adequate in the quality, if not the quantity, of its service. The insular position of Manhattan Island, and its great length compared to its breadth, compels its inhabitants to travel tedious distances along one or two parallel lines, and develops a peculiar density of traffic throughout this territory. The subway provides for these conditions by means of an express service such as no other city has required. Had full provision been made for a similar service on the elevated roads when they were planned, almost a generation ago, New Yorkers would have been spared many discomforts and a good deal of money; but the elevated structures did not have the capacity properly to handle the traffic which they created. In a few years the subway will doubtless be as crowded as the elevated roads are now; but the crowds who use it will be compensated for the discomforts of travel by the advantage of being able to reach comparatively cheap land without giving more than half an hour to the journey.

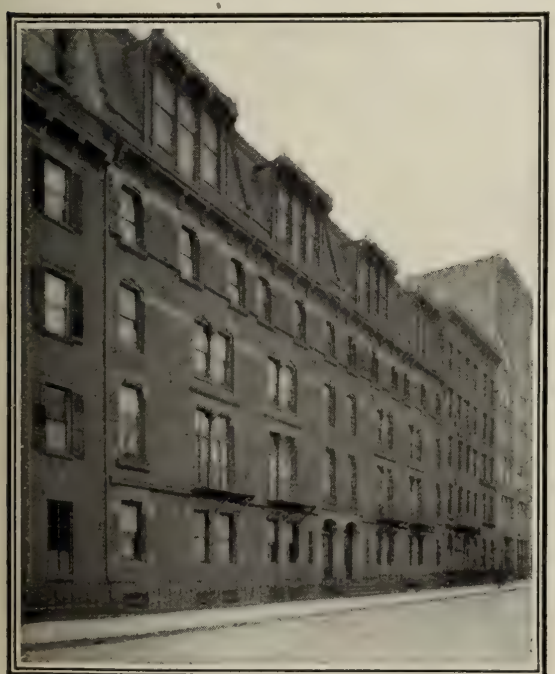
In effect, the service of the elevated roads broke down fifteen years ago. During that whole period, New Yorkers have been slowly and painfully adjusting themselves to a longer average of inconvenient traveling and a smaller average of inhabited space than the population of any other city in the world. With the discomforts of traveling we are all familiar; and so, also, are we familiar, if not in our own persons, at least in those of our friends, with the dark, cramped little flats in which so many New Yorkers live. But we are not so familiar with the process whereby the population of a city of whom Cooper wrote, in 1830, that "no one who is at all comfortable in life would think of sharing his house with another person" have been obliged to adapt themselves to some kind of a multiple dwelling. Inasmuch as the first apartment-house for well-to-do people was built in 1869,—the Stuyvesant, on East Eighteenth Street,—this transformation has taken place practically during the life of one generation; and it differs from the process



TRAFFIC CONDITIONS IN NEW YORK CITY—CROWDING ON A TRAIN AT THE NEW YORK END OF THE BROOKLYN BRIDGE.

whereby Paris has taken the flat for its typical habitation in that the Paris apartment has prevailed because it was preferred, whereas the New York flat has prevailed because it could not be helped. The whole transformation has been due to the gradual increase in the price of accessible land in Manhattan, until at the present time a corner frontage of twenty-five feet in a tenement-house district of Manhattan will sell for more than a site on a fashionable avenue in a city of four hundred thousand inhabitants.

Without, however, going into the history of real-estate values in the residential neighborhoods of Manhattan, the transformation will be sufficiently described by showing the alteration which has taken place in the character of the residential building,—by showing, that is, how the building of tenement and apartment houses has increased, and how they have gradually become higher and higher, and deeper and deeper, and by showing, also, how the building of private residences has diminished, and how those which have been built have become narrower, higher, and deeper. The year 1869 is a convenient date of departure for this story, because it was at about that year when the need for rapid transit was beginning to be acutely felt, and when the first modern apartment-house was built. Not, of course, that before that date the evidence of overcrowding was not visible. Tenements were already being erected, and New York had been the possessor of a "tenement-house problem" for twenty years. Furthermore, the three-story brick residence measuring twenty-five by forty feet, which was the original type of speculative private dwelling erected in New York, had already been generally superseded by the twenty, or even the fifteen-by-fifty, brownstone dwelling, which was frequently four stories high, and which was one of the worst types of residence ever erected in large numbers in this country. Nevertheless, well-to-do people had not as yet begun to feel to any considerable extent the pinch of costly land, and the building of that date indicates very well the manner in which the New Yorker could then afford to live.



THE STUYVESANT APARTMENT-HOUSE.

(The first building of its type to be erected in New York City.)



THE SUBWAY STATION AT THE CORNER OF TWENTY-THIRD STREET AND FOURTH AVENUE.

(This station is in the shopping district, and has direct tunnel communication with retail stores.)

In 1870, plans were filed at the Building Department for 1,016 private dwellings and for 817 tenements. About one-third of these dwellings were four stories high, and very few were over twenty feet wide. Of the tenements, 450 were four stories high or under, while 367 were five stories high. There were no buildings given up to residential purposes more than five stories high, except an hotel or two. The elevator apartment-house was unknown. It was only poor people who occupied anything but private dwellings,—barring, of course, the large boarding population, which has always existed in New York. The figures respecting the cost of these dwellings are not available; but the average residence required about ten thousand dollars to erect, and sold for prices that varied from fifteen to twenty thousand dollars. At this date, the bulk of the building was being carried on in the "forties," "fifties," and "sixties," and there were

no means of transit quicker than horse-cars and Broadway "'buses." They were, if anything, packed tighter than the elevated cars are at the present time. "Rapid transit" was as eagerly discussed then as now; but the only transit improvement actually in process of construction was the Ninth Avenue Elevated Railroad, which for many years availed little.

Ten years later, in 1879 and 1880, conditions had changed, not radically, but at least significantly. The number of dwellings to be erected in Manhattan for which plans were filed was 1,017 in 1879 and 1,033 in 1880, against 1,016 in 1870. In view of the fact that population had increased over one-third during the decade, and that wealth had grown in even larger proportion, the fact that the building of private dwellings remained stationary plainly indicated that a larger percentage of the well-to-do population were seeking Brooklyn or the suburbs, or else were securing some other kind of residence in Manhattan. What this kind of residence was is suggested by the fact that during 1880 eight apartment-houses were erected, from six to eight stories in height, all of which contained elevators. The number is not particularly impressive; but these eight buildings were the forerunners of a host. They constitute the beginning of the modern elevator apartment-house, erected in Manhattan as a regular speculative building enterprise. Ten years before, no flat for which plans had been filed was more than five stories high. It is true that the total number of tenements for which plans were filed in 1880,—viz., 767,—was, owing to general conditions, somewhat smaller than the total number for which plans were filed in 1870,—viz., 817; and it is true also that in 1880 the multiple dwelling was still intended chiefly for poor people, four and five story tenements being the prevailing types. Nevertheless, a significant beginning had been made in the transformation of Manhattan from a city in which the middle class lived in private houses into a city in which they lived mostly in apartments.



THE VIADUCT OVER MANHATTAN VALLEY.

(Trains leave the subway at One Hundred and Twenty-second Street and Broadway, and run on an elevated structure to One Hundred and Thirty-fourth Street, where they again enter the subway.)



THE CITY HALL STATION, LOOKING NORTH.

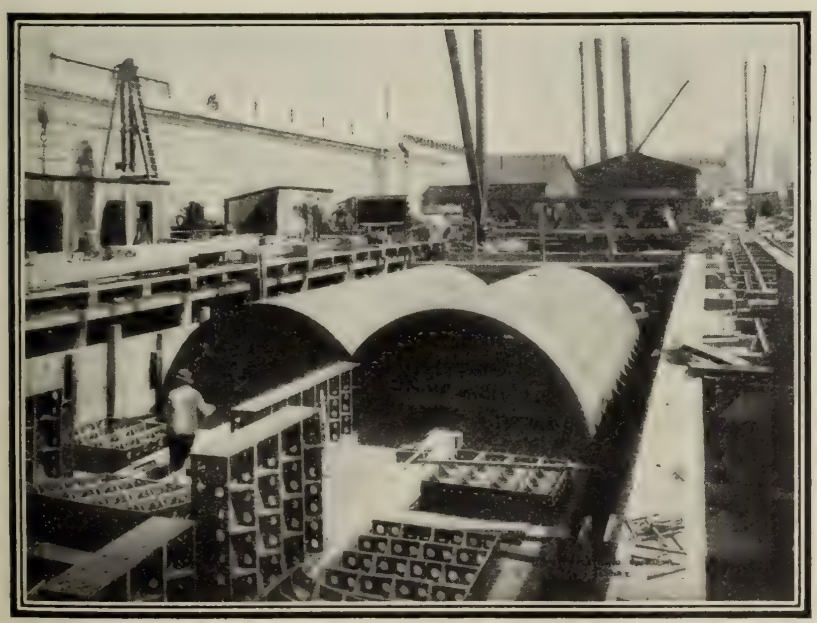
During the next decade, between 1880 and 1890, this transformation made rapid strides. The momentum was somewhat retarded by the elevated roads, which came into full operation late in the seventies; but the delay was not very serious, because the elevated structures, not being provided with room for any sufficient express service, did not do more than relieve existing congestion. Of course, the elevated transit enormously stimulated building to the east and west of Central Park; but it no sooner encouraged people to settle between Fifty-ninth and

One Hundred and Twenty-fifth streets than it proved totally inadequate to furnish them with tolerable traveling accommodations. The consequence was that almost contemporaneous with what is known as the "West Side movement," which set in with a rush about 1885, huge apartment-houses intended for comparatively rich people, such as the Navarro Flats and the Osborne, were projected into the architectural landscape immediately south of the park. On the whole, however, this West Side movement gave for a few years a new life to the small private dwellings in Manhattan, and from 1885 on a great many houses costing their owners, with the land, from fifteen thousand dollars to thirty thousand dollars were erected. In 1886, for instance, plans were filed for 1,315 private dwellings, which is a larger number than for any year which has yet been considered. The number of flats and tenements projected during the same year was also heavy, amounting to 1,151, the great majority being five stories high. The old four-story tenement, so popular during the preceding decade, almost disappeared as a type, while the modern type of six-story tenement without an elevator began to be erected on the lower East Side.

The year 1886, however, was an exceptional year; and thereafter the number of private dwellings erected in Manhattan decreased steadily. The value of vacant land on the West Side soon approximated to the value of land in corresponding situations farther south, and the congested condition of the elevated roads prevented much further expansion. Between 1889 and 1895, the number of dwellings for which plans were filed fluctuated between five hundred and eight hundred, the average cost per dwelling being about seventeen thousand dollars, and the expense to the purchaser rarely less than twenty-five thousand dollars, and generally more. Such prices as these severely restricted the market for private residences, and correspondingly increased the demand for apartments, as may be inferred from the fact that while only eight hundred and thirty-five dwellings were projected in 1890, plans were filed for twelve hundred and nine tenement and apartment houses, a comparatively large proportion of them being elevator buildings.



TYPICAL THREE-STORY BROWNSTONE PRIVATE RESIDENCES, TWENTY-FOOT FRONT.



THE TWIN-TUBES FOR THE TUNNEL UNDER THE HARLEM RIVER.

(The tubes are fastened together overground, and then sunk.)

It was late in the nineties, however, that the process which I have been describing culminated. During this whole decade, nothing was done to improve the transit machinery

of Manhattan except the substitution of electrical for horse power on the surface roads; and this improvement did not vitally affect the traffic for long distances. The people who preferred the inconveniences of city to the inconveniences of suburban life were forced to crowd in ever larger numbers into practically the same area. From 1895 to 1899, an average of about three



A ROW OF TYPICAL MODERN RESIDENCES ON THE WEST SIDE OF NEW YORK.

hundred and fifty private dwellings were erected each year; but the cost of land was constantly increasing, and was making more expensive the grade of residence which must be erected in order to make profitable a speculative building enterprise in that class of property. In 1899, for instance, the cost of building the average dwelling erected in Manhattan had reached $24,000. Then came the surprising disclosure. In 1900, this average cost suddenly jumped to $35,000; in 1901, it became $59,800, and in 1902, $62,160. In 1903, the figure dropped back to $51,400, but this decrease is not significant for our present purpose. The important fact was established in these years that the only land on which it paid to put up new private dwellings was the extremely expensive land along the line of Fifth Avenue, which none but rich men could afford; and, of course, along with this limitation came an equally emphatic diminution in the number of new dwellings erected. In 1899, this number was 338; in 1900, only 112; in 1901, just 100; in 1902, 130; in 1903, as few as 56; and in the first six months of 1904, no more than 30, with the probability of an increase to 40 by the end of the year. In eighteen years, the number of new private houses which the residents of Manhattan could afford to build or appropriate in one year diminished from over 1,300 to about 40, and during the same period the character of these buildings radically altered. They became often as much as eighty feet deep, and generally at least five stories high. One of them is actually seven stories high, and almost all of them contain elevators.

In the meantime, apartment-houses were being built to accommodate people who under earlier conditions would have occupied private dwellings. Throughout the whole of the nineties, an average of about thirty million dollars a year was invested in large flats and tenements; and toward the end of this decade, when the decrease in the building of residences became so extremely marked, fully half of this sum was annually invested in elevator apartment-houses built for people who paid eight hundred dollars a year rent and over. The building of such houses, seven stories high, received an immense impetus in 1897, when the cost of the elevator service was reduced, because of the opportunity which had been afforded to obtain electric power from



AN EIGHTEEN-STORY APARTMENT HOTEL—THE TALLEST IN NEW YORK.

(At Fifty-fifth Street and Fifth Avenue.)

the street conduits, the consequence being that in three years nearly fifty million dollars was spent upon these seven-story buildings alone. During the same period, the old five-story tenement very generally gave place to a type of six-story building, which since the new tenement-house law was passed has averaged about forty feet in width and has been a great improvement upon the old twenty-five-foot house.

During the first three years of the new century, the great mass of the new building has been erected for business and miscellaneous purposes. Dwellings of all kinds have been, comparatively speaking, neglected, because there was an overproduction of flats and tenements in the years immediately preceding, and because the whole movement issued from the growth of New York as a financial and commercial center. Yet, although there was an underproduction of house-room throughout these years, this period of big building projects and advancing real-estate values witnessed an enormous increase in the popularity of one particularly metropolitan class of residence,—viz., the apartment, or family, hotel. Hotels of this type, which may be described as a sort of twentieth-century boarding-house, had long been built at the rate, perhaps, of two or three a year ; but all of a sudden they jumped into favor, and in three years plans were filed for a hundred of them, to cost in the neighborhood of seventy-five million dollars. This sud den popularity was brought about by the great increase in demand for house-room in a convenient location, and intended for the accommodation of people who wanted to live in every way with as little bother as possible. It was probably the culminating result of the gradual demoralization of domestic life among well-to-do people in New York, which has been caused partly by the difficulty of finding economical, pleasant, and convenient habitations. Apartment hotels have succeeded because they enabled a childless family to put up a good appearance in two rooms and bath. They are the final word which the ingenious builder can speak in the way of selling the smallest amount of living-space at the highest possible price, while at the same time sweetening his homeopathic dose of room with a coating of apparent privacy, flunkeys, "chefs," and similar seductive vanities.

The existing situation, then, in regard to living-accommodations in Manhattan may be summarized as follows : New private residences are being erected only for rich people. A great many families with fair incomes continue to live in them ; but this number is actually, as well as relatively, decreasing, because of the constant displacement of the existing stock of residences by apartment-houses and business buildings. Had no relief been afforded, the result would undoubtedly be the complete destruction of private residences in Manhattan, except for very rich people, and the substitution in their place of huge apartment-houses and family hotels.

The subway, which is now being opened, will, however, afford some relief, because its express tracks will make an unoccupied area like Washington Heights almost as accessible from the financial district as the lower West Side now is. Under the impulse afforded by these better accommodations, there will be a revival of the building of small residences on Manhattan Island, and during the next five years Washington Heights will be the scene of a speculative building movement of a greater volume and momentum than that which took place on the West Side in the middle years of the eighties. There is no doubt, however, that the existing subway will, like the elevated roads, create more traffic than it can satisfactorily accommodate, and unless supplementary tunnels are added, there will be a renewal, in a few years, of the congestion from which the city is now suffering. Within another six years, however, other subways will surely be opened ; and they, together with the new bridges and the tunnels under the East and North rivers, will permit New York to expand more freely than it has done for a generation—with the result, undoubtedly, of increasing both its industrial efficiency and its general wholesomeness of life. They will restore cheap land to a large part of the inhabitants of the city, reduce the cost of living, and encourage on the one hand the distribution of population, and on the other the concentration of business. But just because this immense invigoration of the city's power of circulation will centralize business as well as distribute population, it will merely postpone the day when those only will occupy a private residence in Manhattan who are rich enough to afford a large price, and any man who lives anywhere or anyhow in Manhattan will have to pay in one way or another, —if not in money, then in space, light, air, and comfort.

TILLING THE "TULES" OF CALIFORNIA.

BY A. J. WELLS.

IN geologic ages, science tells us, the Golden Gate was a "fissure" in the coast range of mountains, and through it the interior waters of the great inland sea, now the valley of central California, were drained off, leaving the bay of San Francisco as a reminder of what was. The great central valley is about 350 miles long by from 40 to 60 miles wide, and is formed by the Sierra Nevada and the coast ranges. Doubtless, it was once a vast inland sea.

The waters of San Francisco Bay extend north and south of the city about forty miles each way, the upper extremity narrowing at the Straits of Carquinez, then widening into Suisun Bay, and reaching well into the valley. Here the great valley, level as a floor throughout, sags a little, and in this slight depression the bay meets the rivers which drain the valley.

The Sacramento flows from the north, and just before it merges in the head of the bay it receives the waters of the San Joaquin, flowing from the south. One in topography and climate, the valley is called by two names, after its principal rivers, and these rivers, with their tributaries, drain a watershed that approximates sixty thousand square miles.

The low, swampy region of the delta was long looked upon as waste lands. Engineers classed much of what is now among the most fertile lands in the world as "swamps of low outfall," the elevation being from five to eighteen feet above low tide in the bay.

Locally, the fresh-water swamp lands of California are known as the "Tules," or the "Tule Lands." Tule is the Indian name of a certain flag, or reed, and here refers to the round tule (*Scirpus lacustris*), which grows in dense ranks in places constantly or intermittently covered with water. It is essentially an aquatic plant, forming a thick mat of roots, and not easily killed. It dies down every year and springs up again from its own roots, and this process of growth and decay, going on for unreckoned generations, has built up a vast network of roots, and overlaid them with dead stalks, while the winter floods spread over all the alluvium carried seaward by the streams. The swollen rivers, laden with vegetable matter from the Sierras, met the tides from the sea, and under the contending waters, and among the fibrous roots and green ranks of tules and water grass, built up a soil of unfathomed depth.

At first the work of reclaiming these lands was discouraging. The steam dredger had not been invented, and work with the "tule knife," the spade, and the wheelbarrow was slow and expensive. Everything had to be learned, and mistakes are often costly. Walls of peat were built up on the edge of the channel, with a narrow base and an almost vertical face, and the wash of the waves made them insecure. The peaty soil, too, sank somewhat under the weight of the levee, the material being taken from the inside, which made the levee itself an



THE DREDGE, "GOLDEN GATE," BUILDING A LEVEE ON THE DELTA LANDS, SAN JOAQUIN VALLEY, CALIFORNIA.

elongated island, with water on both sides.

The invention of the steam dredger changed the methods of levee construction. The kind in use here is known as the "clamshell," and its ponderous jaws cut into the peat without difficulty, or lift a ton of muck and sand from the bed of the stream. But it took years of experience to learn how to build the protecting wall back from the edge of the channel. The best dikes are now begun from 40 to 50 feet from the shore line, and run up with a very sloping surface and a base of 100 feet or more. The height varies from 14 to 20 feet, the aim being to build about 6 feet above the highest water.



MAP OF THE DELTA LANDS, CENTRAL CALIFORNIA, SHOWING THE PRINCIPAL ISLANDS.

The levees of the Middle River Navigation Company have a base 175 feet wide, with a crown of 30 feet, and a slope of about 5 to 1. These levees are set back 200 feet from the river bank, and all points cut off, so that, when completed, the nearest approach of the levee to the river is about 100 feet. It requires two or three years to settle and compact the levee and compress the soil below. New levees will settle and shrink about 33 per cent., and it is necessary to go over old levees every three or four years, leveling up low places and making such additions or repairs as seem necessary. The cost of leveeing is unequal, but runs from $15 to $20 per acre.

Reclamation districts are organized, and boards elected according to law, all costs of reclamation being assessed *pro rata*. Powerful pumps free the inclosed land from water where necessary. For winter drainage they are always necessary. Where water is high and the pressure is heavy there is some seepage through the levee, although the wide levees now being built reduce the amount of seepage.

The land is prepared for cultivation by burning off the tules, or, if the acreage be large, by rolling them flat. If burned, it must be done with some care, so as not to "burn the ground." The early practice was to burn out the roots, and in the seventies the smoke of burning tules was often in the air for months.

The ash heap was then seeded, and sheep driven over it. This was called "sheeping in." This deep-burning has long been abandoned as wasteful, however, and the surface is now fired and the roots plowed under, the stubble being sometimes rolled first. Breaking is done with a single plow drawn by from four to eight horses. This plow (known as a "tule plow") has a twenty-inch share, and a narrow moldboard, fully five feet long, curved to turn the tough sod completely over.

The virgin soil presents a mass of fibrous roots, and looks rough and unpromising the first



HAULING HAY TO THE MARKET, STOCKTON, CAL.

year. But the exposed roots rapidly decompose, and after the first plowing the land rapidly improves in the ease with which it is tilled, the first crop being usually barley. The cost of rolling and plowing is from five dollars to six dollars an acre.

Later on, over large tracts, the traction engine does the work of many horses, drawing gang-plows and harrowing and seeding at the same time. These reclaimed lands are always moist a little way down, but, for the growth of vegetation during the summer, the surface must be kept moist. The methods of irrigation are very simple. Most of the surface is below the tide. On some of the islands it is below low tide; on others, lower than the rise of high tide. A gate is set in the dike at the upper or highest point on the island, or a pipe is solidly built into the dike. The opening of the gate, or the pipe, floods the main ditch inside, and is then distributed through slight furrows and allowed to percolate. On small tracts a siphon is thrown over the dike, the air withdrawn by mechanical means, and water is lifted over by simple pressure. The use of this device, however, is limited. Winter drainage is provided for by means of pumping machinery. For other seasons, if water is in excess, it is let out at the lowest point through a pipe. A pipe at high tide irrigates, a pipe at low tide drains. The charge for both, and the care of the levee besides, is from fifty cents to seventy-five cents per acre.

These lands produce all kinds of grain and vegetables, and a great variety of fruit. Corn,



A VIEW OF THE CHICORY FACTORY FROM THE SAN JOAQUIN RIVER.

—not a prominent crop in California, and confined to localities,—luxuriates in the rich soil, the abundant moisture, and the long summer of this region. Certain special crops are here produced better than on any other soil. Among these, perhaps, asparagus is chief. It is increasing in acreage. The demand for the canned product is very great, and it is marketed quite largely in Europe. Celery is also entirely at home on the peat lands. In southern California, where it has been grown for some years, the peat lands pay a good percentage on a valuation of six hundred dollars an acre.

Potatoes produce enormously, and are of fine quality. The returns last year from a single field of 800 acres, averaging 160 sacks to the acre, netted the fortunate investor nearly $50,000. On one ranch, at one time, 1,100 men were harvesting the potato crop. On the same company's land the cannery took care of 80 acres of tomatoes. The largest onion fields in the State are here in the delta, as are also fields of chicory, seed farms and bean farms, with much wheat, corn, and barley, and, where the water table is far enough below the surface, considerable alfalfa.

As pasture and meadow land, it excels. The delta is an ideal dairy region. Blue grass grows as luxuriantly here as in Kentucky, and it is described as "loving rich lands, and apt to find out where they lie." Mixed with a little rye grass, alsike, and red and white clover, it makes a pasture for the herd quite unexcelled. The writer has seen it green and succulent in mid-



A CORNFIELD ON THE "TULES."

January, and fine Holsteins cropping the thick mat in great content. A twenty-acre field had sufficed for thirty-four cows for four months, and the grazing was still ample. The mixture employed here makes an admirable pasture, and the variety of food it furnishes is a factor in dairying.

The success of the Holstein-Friesian dairy herd on one of these islands has been quite remarkable, the cows finding an environment like that under which they have been developed,



CUTTING ASPARAGUS.



JULIANA DE KOL.

(Holder of the world's record. At two and one-half years of age, she returned 92 pounds 7 ounces of butter in 30 days. In 100 days, she gave 5 times her own weight in milk.)

plus the sunshine of California. Prof. Leroy Anderson, director of the new State Polytechnic School, at San Luis Obispo, an authority on all that pertains to the dairy, says: "If the Holstein thrives so admirably here, it goes without saying that the shorthorn does equally well in its way. Both these breeds like a range where they can get a full meal in a circle prescribed by the length of their bodies, and here they can fulfill their natural desire. The valley of the Tees, county of Durham, England, where the shorthorn originated, cannot be a more favored spot to produce a fine quality of beef or a milk-giving shorthorn than are these California lands. The two breeds of cattle named are the better



A HOUSE BUILT ON PEAT LANDS.

adapted to the region because of its similarity to their native habitation." The Riverside Premier Dairy, established on Rough-and-Ready Island less than four years ago, has attracted wide attention, the records of the world in three classes having been broken. This speaks of careful breeding, but also of good natural feed.

These delta lands are not all reclaimed, but those ready for cultivation are held at a cash rental of from $8 to $15 per acre, and a selling price of from $75 to $150 per acre. As in Hol-



A MAMMOTH PUMPKIN.

land, these lands won from the marsh will shortly be unpurchasable. The rapid increase of population, and the exhaustion of large areas of arable land from bad methods of farming, as in the South, or because originally the soil was thin, as in much of New England, tend to make virgin soil so rich and deep and lasting as this almost beyond price. The wise farmer wants rich lands. Marshes in England, drained at immense cost, have paid for the outlay in a few years. The polders of the Low Country, redeemed from the sea, have helped to make Holland rich; and long before, the Romans had drained the marshes of the Tiber, and from them fed the armies that ruled the world.

It is one story in England, in Russia, in China, in Egypt,—the call for rich lands. And this delta of the California rivers is rich as nature

could make it; it is brooded by a climate that is kind to the limitations of men and animals,



IN THE CREAMERY SEPARATING ROOM.

and which stimulates plant life to the utmost; it is in the midst of a prosperous community, provided with railway and river transportation,

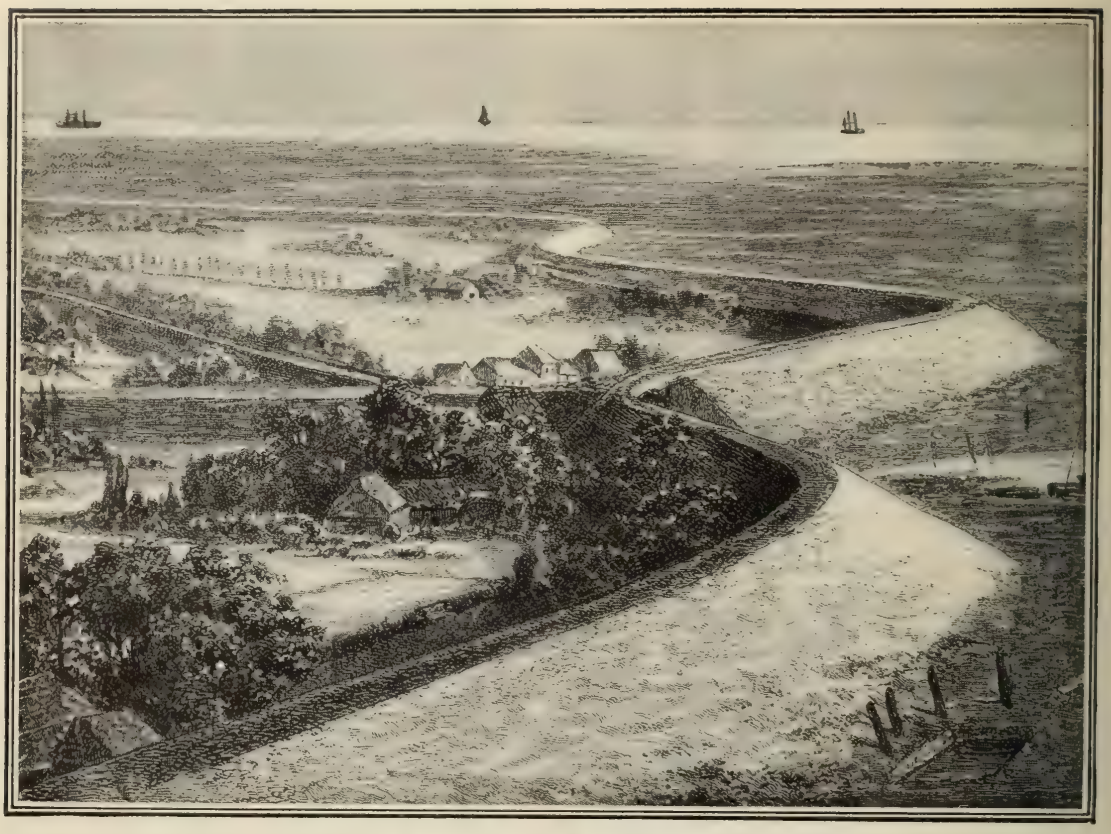


A CLUSTER OF SILVER PRUNES.

close to local markets, and on that rim of the continent which faces the populous Orient, with its doors opening to traffic. All the conditions point to a time when "California's Netherlands" will be the richest and most productive section of the West.



PICKING PRUNES IN SAN JOAQUIN VALLEY, CALIFORNIA.



THE HELDER DIKE OF NORTH HOLLAND.

(One of the important, typical dikes.)

HOW THE DUTCH HAVE TAKEN HOLLAND.

BY FRANK D. HILL.

(American consul at Amsterdam.)

LET the reader turn to the map (and, without a map spread before him, let no one ever study the Netherlands, else he will miss the entire significance of description respecting things Dutch) and, beginning at Den Helder, the northernmost tip of the province of North Holland, draw a line that shall trace the boundaries of Friesland and Groningen to the Ems River, thence marking the eastern shores of the Zuyder Zee as far as Naarden ; from there to Gorkum, where the waters of the Waal and the Maas meet to flow to the sea, extend the line so as to embrace Zealand, half sea and half water, and the district so circumscribed, together with the coast line of the North Sea, forms a part of the Netherlands quite distinct from the remaining portion of the country lying to the north and east. This part is below Amsterdamsche Peil,—A. P. as it is marked on the boards that one sees on all Dutch waterways, and which means the average flood level of the Y at Amsterdam. It is also the "tourist" area and the Netherlands with which history is most concerned, since Amsterdam, The Hague, Haarlem, Leyden, Utrecht, Rotterdam, and Dordrecht are included in its area. The remainder of the country is above A. P., is continental, not maritime, and need not concern us.

This western half of Queen Wilhelmina's kingdom owes its existence to alluvial deposits washed down by the Rhine, the Maas, and the Scheldt, the sediment being formed by the action of wind and wave into sand banks, sand bars, and, finally, sand hills along the coast. This chain of sand hills, or dunes,—in width from 400 yards

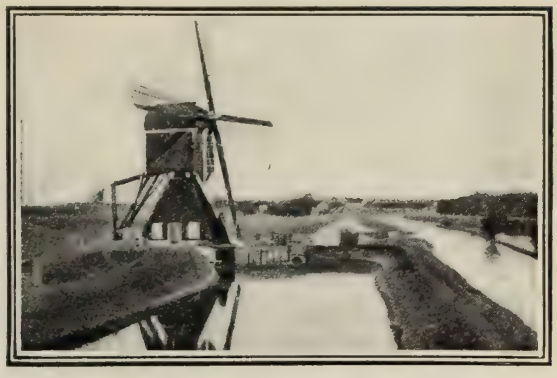
to 3 miles, and from 60 to 200 feet above sea level,—stretches along the North Sea for a distance of 200 miles. Of the entire area of the Netherlands, 38 per cent. is below A. P. and 62 per cent. above that water level.

Shut off partially from the sea by the dunes, heavy deposits of clay gathered in its quiet waters, and later, as the "haff" grew more shallow and aquatic vegetation became luxurious, extensive marshes came into existence, and the great peat beds which cover so large a part of the area of Holland at the present day were formed. The struggle of the blind forces of nature went on continually, the sea breaking through and occasionally destroying what the rivers were always building up. "A country which draws fifty feet of water, in which man lives as in the hold of nature," arose on the borders of the sea. *Luctor et emergo* is very properly the motto of the Netherlands.

When Cæsar's conquering legions reached these outer marches of the world, and Holland first appears in history, it is a low land, a nether land, a hollow land, a marshy, spongy, heavily timbered region of morasses and lagoons threatened constantly by overflow from the great continental rivers that embouch here, and by inundations from the sea. The waters had then, nevertheless, under normal conditions, found their way to the sea, leaving, as is shown in all early maps, a single body of water in the middle of the country, called by the Romans Lake Flevo, and answering roughly to the Haarlemmer Meer of recent days.

It has been estimated that the dunes have been driven landward from two to seven miles during the Christian era, but this recession has been arrested finally by planting on the side of the dunes, giving to the ocean a kind of grass called locally "helm." Besides the gradual shifting of the dunes, startling changes have been made in the land itself by great storms in the years 693, 782, 839, 1170, 1230, 1237, 1250, 1287, and 1295. In this last-named year, an area of about fifteen hundred square miles was submerged, and the Zuyder Zee formed in nearly its present shape by the beginning of the fifteenth century.

The drainage of the country has always been a work partly of land reclamation and partly of defense against the hereditary, inexorable enemy, the ever-threatening ocean, constantly pounding against the natural and artificial barriers raised to stop its progress. Diking and land reclamation, going hand in hand, began to be developed on a huge scale from the beginning of the seventeenth century. The method employed is as follows :



A TYPICAL DUTCH CANAL.—MAKING A POLDER.

An encircling dike, cutting off the land to be drained, is built, then windmills, now steam engines, are set to work to pump up the water so shut off, which is then expelled into a system of arteries connected the one with the other, and constituting collectively what is known as a "bosom," which discharges the accumulated waters into the sea.

Sand, gravel, and clay are the materials used in the construction of dikes as a rule, although the great sea wall at Helder is buttressed with Norwegian granite, the Netherlands possessing neither building stone nor timber. A technical writer has said that, compared with similar structures elsewhere, the Dutch dikes are noteworthy for their great width, the river dikes being built with a crown usually from fifteen to twenty feet wide, while the ordinary type of Mississippi levee has a crown width of only eight feet, the height being about the same. The slopes have a grade of three and one-half to one on the water side and two to one on the land side. A characteristic feature is the "banquette," or enlargement, of the dike, from ten to thirty feet at its base, where the pressure is most felt.

The greatest dikes are those at Helder and Westcapelle, on the west coast of the island of Walcheren. The Helder dike is five miles in length, twelve feet in width, and slopes downward to the sea, at an angle of 40°, a distance of two hundred feet. Of the revenues of the Waterstaat, about 6,000,000 florins ($2,412,000) is expended yearly in the maintenance of the dikes.

Leaving now the outer waters, let us turn to the inner waters, which must be expelled, or else, since part of the country we are considering is below sea level, these dammed-up waters would, if not drained off, rise and flood the entire land. The innumerable canals, then, which cut up different farms like country roads in the United States, serve not only as avenues for transporta-

tion and lines of demarcation, but primarily as drains, the waters so collected and restrained in fixed courses, as well as that of the rivers, being pumped up and thrown out, through the elaborate mechanism under the control of the ministry of waterways, into the ocean. In 1879, there were about three thousand miles of navigable water and about two thousand miles of canals in the Netherlands.

The ordinary Dutch canals are 60 feet in width and 6 feet in depth, though the depth varies from 3 feet to 33 feet, and the bed is frequently above the level of the countryside, as all tourists know. The rivers are canalized, are in most cases above the level of the surrounding country, and have no flow or current. Protected on the sea side by the dunes and dikes, and partitioned off in the interior by an endless array of dikes which skirt the water courses and canals, surround polders, and also serve as embankments to railroads and highways, Holland partakes much of the nature of a huge ship with water-tight compartments.

The plan of building a canal to reach the North Sea dates from the seventeenth century, but it was not finally undertaken until 1818, and was finished five years later, at a cost of about $3,000,000. This canal, called the Noord Hollandsche Canal, united Amsterdam and Nieuwediep near Helder, at the northern extremity of North Holland.

Besides the natural difficulties encountered, twenty-four hours were consumed in bringing ships through the canal to Amsterdam. Ships had frequently to be towed at an expense of 500 florins ($201), and ice broken in the winter, sometimes at an expense of $6,000, so that, in spite of the canal, during the greater part of the nineteenth century Amsterdam remained imperfectly maritime. In the meantime the transition from sail to steam had taken place, and the position of Helder as an international trade route had become hopelessly eccentric.

The North Sea Canal is a direct route from Amsterdam to the North Sea, the distance from Amsterdam to Ymuiden being fifteen miles. The Y in front of Amsterdam was partly dredged and filled in, and the narrow neck of land stretching from the Y to the place where the fishing village of Ymuiden has since sprung up was cut. The eastern end of the canal had to be closed against the Pampus, the marshy part of the Zuyder Zee at its southwestern extremity, the part of Amsterdam improved so as to receive the largest ocean-going steamships, and direct canal communication with the Rhine—the Rhine-Merwede Canal—built.

The Amsterdam Canal Company was organized in 1863, and work on the canal begun in March, 1865. The canal was opened to the public by King William III., November 1, 1876. The canal company was liquidated June 1, 1883, and the state took over the administration at that date. The canal has cost in round numbers $16,500,000. The 5,500 hectares (13,200 acres) of reclaimed land is a very fertile district, the crops produced thereon selling for about 1,000,000 guilders ($402,000) annually.

The ministry of the Waterstaat, which was consolidated with trade and industry and made into a new department in 1877, had allotted to it last year over thirteen million dollars out of a total governmental expenditure for the support of the country of sixty-six million dollars. This was the largest item in the budget, and testifies to the importance of waterways in the Netherlands.

The engineering problem here is to keep out the outer waters,—that is, those of the ocean and the rivers,—and expel the inner waters caused by overflow or rainfall, and which have settled in the morasses, marshy pools, and soft fens. Half of Holland is below the level of the outer waters, from which it is guarded by the dunes and dikes, and it is through these protecting



THE SAND DUNES ON THE SHORE OF THE NORTH SEA.

walls that the inner waters, after being raised by pumping, must be carried out.

The principal polders are the Zype, the Beemster, the Purmer, the Heer Hugowaard—all drained in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries—the Schermer, the Haarlem, and the recently reclaimed Y, the area reclaimed from 1440 to 1855 in the provinces of North and South Holland, amounting to 107,000 hectares (256,800 acres). A writer has said that a polder is any basin made dry, and the greatest polder of all is the whole lowland of Holland.

Besides the land reclaimed in the interior of the country, land reclamation goes on continually on the coasts of Zealand, Friesland, and Groningen by impoldering from the ocean itself. The "slikken," or sea clay, becomes covered with sea coral and sea grasses, becoming "kwelders," which are surrounded by sea dikes, and "made land" results. It is worthy of note that the area, which was 8,768 square miles in 1833, had become, by systematic reclamation from sea and river, 12,731 square miles in 1877, and this process of accretion on the ocean side and polder-making within goes on continually, 38 square miles having been added since 1877.



MAP SHOWING THE LAND WHICH WOULD BE RECLAIMED BY THE DRAINING OF THE ZUYDER ZEE.—(From official sources.)

The most extensive single reclamation of land that has ever been made in the Netherlands was the drainage, in the years 1848–52, of the Haarlemmer Meer, or Haarlem Lake, by which 42,000 acres were added to the area of the country. In 1531, the lake covered 6,340 acres, while the Leyden Lake, Spiering Meer, and the Old Lake adjacent covered an additional 7,600 acres. From 1643, plans to curb the ravages of the constantly encroaching monster, which had by 1830 become three times its original size, as above, and then threatened the safety of the whole country, had been discussed.

A canal forty miles in length was thrown around the lake, the soil thus freed being used for the surrounding dike on the inner side, canal and dike costing about $800,000, thus inclosing an area of over seventy square miles. Three English-built engines, costing $1,000,000, one of them capable of discharging 1,000,000 tons of water every twenty-four hours, were put at the task of raising and throwing out the 1,000 tons of imprisoned water. Work was begun in May, 1848, and completed in July, 1852. To keep the land free, the engines must now raise 54,000,000 tons of water 16 feet annually. The two largest traverse canals are each 84 feet wide, the polder is crossed by 136 miles of roads, and the canals have from 60 to 70 bridges. Meldrum's "Holland and the Hollanders" is authority for the statement that the work cost about $4,000,000, and that it has been fully repaid. The price realized from the sale of the reclaimed land was $120 per acre.

The project of draining the Zuyder Zee, and reclaiming a portion of the land submerged in the inundations that took place at intervals up to the fifteenth century (one flood alone having drowned 40,000 acres and destroyed 3,000 villages), has engaged the thought of various optimistic people of long views here for an extended period, and the matter has of late years been

agitated systematically through the work of the Zuyder Zee Vereeniging, or Union, which was formed in 1886. Upon the submission by this organization of a report on the financial, social, and economic features of the scheme to the government in 1892, the Queen Regent, in September, 1892, named a state commission to investigate the subject. That commission consisted of the minister of waterways, trade, and industry as chairman, and twenty-nine members, representing waterways, finance, agriculture, hygiene, trade, fisheries, economics, defense, and administration, with two secretaries, one to investigate the technical features involved, the other charged to weigh the economic considerations. The report, made on April 14, 1894, was almost unanimously in favor of the State undertaking the work.

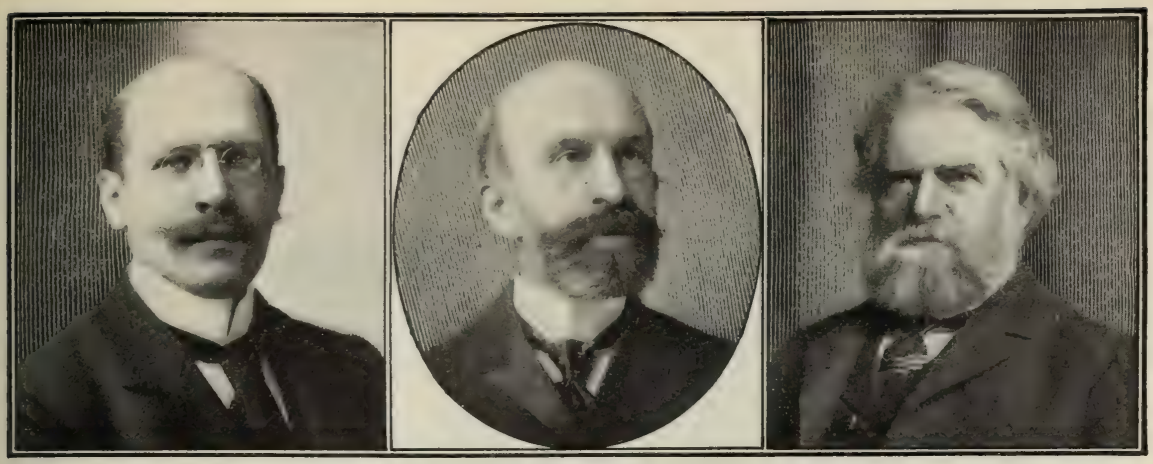
An authoritative work on the project was published by the secretaries, H. C. van der Houven van Oordt and Mr. G. Vissering, in 1901. According to these writers' elaborate calculations (for which there is no space here), there would thus be added to the superficies of the Netherlands a twelfth province, to be called Wilhelmina, eleven times the size of Haarlemmer Meer, larger than either Drenthe, Utrecht, or Zealand, of seven hundred and eighty-seven English square miles, or more than one-sixteenth of the present area of the kingdom. The value—not the selling price, for the state proposes to sell it at cost—of the land of the added domain to the kingdom has been put down as $500,000,000. The estimated cost of the entire work is 189,000,000 florins ($76,000,000), of which $16,000,000 is for the dike and $60,000,000 for all the other work, while the net number of hectares of reclaimed arable land will be 194,410 hectares (479,687 acres), and the work will occupy thirty-three years.

The defense of the country through its water system is a point constantly borne in mind. The piercing of the dikes at Capelle and the opening of the sluice gates at Schiedam and Rotterdam by William of Orange in 1574, in order, as a military measure, to expel the Spaniard, and the flooding again by the descendants of these people, a century later, to drive the Frenchman out, form stirring passages in the little country's bible of heroism.

Out of the 194,410 hectares (466,584 acres) to be reclaimed there will remain for sale, after deducting ground for the public buildings of the communes,—schoolhouses, churches, etc.,—192,500 hectares (462,000 acres). The commission figures that the state must advance $130.65 per hectare, or $25,150,125,—to be spread over a period of thirty-three years, making $762,125.67,—of annual state subsidy. Deducting the receipts of the state from the product of the sales of lands from the seventeenth to the thirty-sixth year from the amount which the state will have received at the end of the thirty-six years, or three years after the completion of the project.—say, $47,244,648 from $148,867,032,—and $101,622,464 remains to be covered. Reckoning interest at the rate of 3 per cent., the land must therefore, to make the state whole, be sold at $381.90 per hectare, and that is the price fixed. The reclaimed land, at the rate of 10,000 hectares (24,000 acres) per year, at $381.90 per hectare, would yield the state annually after the seventeenth year $3,819,000; this, multiplied by nineteen years, covering the cost of the enterprise. That the figure $381.90 per hectare, at which the reclaimed land must be sold to indemnify the state, is not placed too high, is proved by the present price level of agricultural lands, which are: in Friesland $531.84, Zealand $542.70, and North Holland $745.71 per hectare (2.47 acres).

With respect to inhabitants, the drained Haarlemmer Meer now supports 16,560 on about 40,800 acres. Reckoning upon this basis, the commission concludes that the land, cut up into farms of from 40 to 50 hectares (96–120 acres), will support 200,000 dwellers, of whom one-fifth, or 40,000, will be agriculturists from twenty to sixty years of age. These people are to be divided into eight communes and forty villages, and are to occupy 4,000 farms. The additional cost to the state for administration of the new province is estimated at $322,404, while the increase in the revenues is stated at $459,486, leaving a surplus annually of $137,393.95. Paying for the land, the farmer would become the owner in forty-five years.

The project of draining the Zuyder Zee is at present in abeyance and forms no part of the present government's programme. For several years, the Dutch budget has shown steady deficits, rendering it impracticable to undertake a more or less speculative venture not imperiously demanded, which would, as favorably interpreted by a majority of the commission, pledge the state to an expenditure probably amounting to $2,500,000 a year for a period of sixteen years before returns, even as estimated by friendly arithmeticians, could bring a dollar to the credit side of the ledger. And yet who can say that the Zuyder Zee will not one day be drained?



Professor Hugo Münsterberg. Professor Albion W. Small. Professor Simon Newcomb.

MEMBERS OF THE ORGANIZING COMMITTEE OF THE ST. LOUIS CONGRESS.

EDUCATIONAL WORTH OF THE ST. LOUIS EXPOSITION.

BY NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER.

(President of Columbia University and a member of the administrative board of the International Congress of Arts and Sciences.)

THAT great international expositions are too numerous and too frequent is a complaint often heard. Much may reasonably be urged in favor of such a view. The enormous cost of these undertakings, the tendency to multiply them for purely local purposes, the difficulty of securing trained exposition administrators to manage their details, and the heavy burden of oft-recurring participation by the same nations, states, corporations, and individuals, all make it desirable that international expositions on a great scale be not organized oftener than once in a decade or two. On the other hand, it must be borne in mind that a very small number of persons ever see two of these expositions. Each one has an attendance that is largely its own, and each one, therefore, is a broadening and educating influence for hundreds of thousands, even millions, of men, women, and children who have never seen its like and who never will again.

An international exposition on a large scale is an educational influence of great value. Not only is the imagination stirred and the taste refined by its architecture, its sculpture, and its landscape-gardening, but living knowledge is imparted by its closely classified and carefully arranged exhibits of industry and commerce, art and education. The newest discoveries in science and the latest and most skillful and striking applications of science in art are shown comprehensively and effectively. In recent years, moreover, education itself,—its organization, its processes, its methods, and its results,—has become an exhibition subject, and at St. Louis it not only heads the classification adopted, but, for the first time, has a building of its own, instead of being tucked away in the gallery of a building devoted chiefly to other things.

The Louisiana Purchase Exposition, at St. Louis, has good reason for existence. To begin with, it commemorates the first great step in that expansion of the American spirit and its governmental forms which, great as it is, has but just begun. While there are those who would have it otherwise, and those who, in Kipling's striking phrase,

> ". . . Half a league behind pursue
> The accomplished fact with flouts and flings,"

it is beyond dispute that the great mass of the American people believe so firmly in the security of the foundations on which their institutions rest that they welcome every extension of their influence, and hold as fortunate those peoples and nations who are, or yet may be, put to civilization's school under American auspices. All this is at once suggested by the existence of an international exposition to mark the centenary of the Louisiana Purchase, out of which

fourteen great States have since been carved. It is fortunate that this exposition comes soon enough after the liberation of Cuba, the acquisition of Porto Rico and the Philippine Islands, and the annexation of Hawaii to put those significant events in their proper relation to the Louisiana Purchase. This is political education on the large scale which history habitually uses.

It is a commonplace of philosophy and common sense alike, that it is the relations of things which make things significant. It is vital, therefore, that an exposition that is to be in the highest sense educational should be scientifically classified and arranged and dominated by the concept of unity for an ideal, as well as for a practical, purpose. That this has been accomplished at St. Louis is due to the knowledge gained by studying the expositions at Chicago in 1893 and at Paris in 1900, and to the insight and genius of the director of exhibits at St. Louis, Mr. F. J. V. Skiff, supported by the broad-minded and vigorous exposition administration. Mr. Skiff's great natural ability, his practical wisdom, and his long experience in dealing with men and things make him the best possible incumbent of the important post he holds. Not only is education at the head of the classification, but the entire classification is itself carefully worked out and correlated. Many visitors at St. Louis will learn for the first time, by the order and arrangement of exhibits, how things with which they have been familiar all their lives are related to one another. This is educative in the highest degree.



MR. HOWARD J. ROGERS.
(Director of Education, Director of Social Economics, and also Director of Congresses.)

But the exposition management has gone still further, and has planned in the International Congress of Arts and Sciences, to open on September 19, as impressive a demonstration of the high educational purpose of the exposition as can well be imagined. This congress is not such a series of gatherings as took place at Chicago and at Paris, but is rather a carefully elaborated plan to educate public opinion, and the world of scholarship itself, to an appreciation of the underlying unity of knowledge and the necessary interdependence of the host of specialties that have sprung up during the past century. The specialization of knowledge, and of interests based on knowledge, has been carried so far that the phrase "a liberal education" has now hardly any meaning. Highly specialized knowledge is begetting on every side intolerance and narrowness of vision and of spirit. We are to-day surrounded by hosts of uneducated scholars. They are men who know almost everything about something, but little or nothing about the real significance of that something and its place in the scheme of things. To get a broader foundation under the modern scholar, and to give him that catholic intellectual sympathy that he now so largely lacks, will not be a short or an easy task. To its accomplishment every influence which touches public opinion should bend itself.



MR. FREDERICK J. V. SKIFF.
(Director of Exhibits, Louisiana Purchase Exposition.)

This high conception of the influence and opportunity of the Louisiana Purchase Exposition is held by its administrative officers, and from it the International Congress of Arts and Sciences has sprung. For participation in this congress there will assemble a large body of the world's greatest scholars. They will come from all parts of the world to contribute surveys of their several departments of knowledge, planning those surveys so as to emphasize the mutual relations of all the separate arts and sciences.

The plan adopted for the congress is the result of much study and discussion. It is very simple, and, like the classification of the exposition exhibits, it tells its story and exercises its influence by its form as well as by its content. It is confidently expected that the published volumes containing the proceedings of the congress will be an invaluable work of reference and a striking monument to the exposition and its educational influence.

For the purposes of this congress, the field of knowledge has been marked off into seven divisions, which in turn are subdivided into twenty-four departments. The departments are again subdivided into sections,—one hundred and thirty in all. The seven divisions are: Normative Science, including philosophy and mathematics; Historical Science; Physical Science; Mental Science; Utilitarian Sciences;



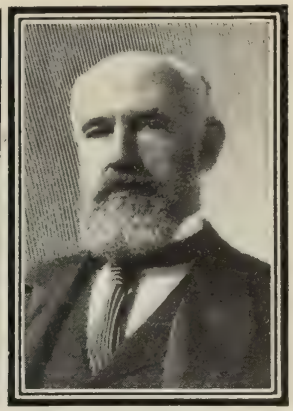
DR. DAVID STARR JORDAN.



DR. WOODROW WILSON.



DR. WILLIAM T. HARRIS.



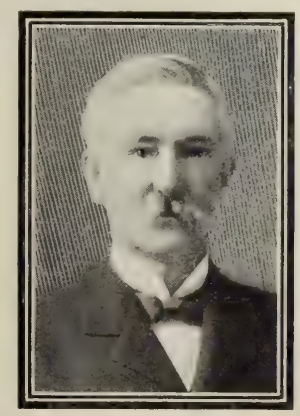
DR. G. STANLEY HALL.

Social Regulation ; and Social Culture, including education and religion. In each division one address will be delivered by an American scholar, dealing with the unification of the several branches of knowledge included in the division

The divisional speakers chosen are Prof. Josiah Royce, of Harvard University, for Normative Science ; President Woodrow Wilson, of Princeton University, for Historical Science ; Prof. Robert S. Woodward, of Columbia University, for Physical Science ; President G. Stanley Hall, of Clark University, for Mental Science ; President David Starr Jordan, of Stanford University, for the Utilitarian Sciences ; Prof. A. Lawrence Lowell, of Harvard University, for Social Regulation ; and Dr. William T. Harris, United States commissioner of education, for Social Culture.

Following the divisional addresses will come two addresses on each of the twenty-four departments of knowledge. One of these addresses will set forth the fundamental conceptions and methods of the sciences included in the department, and the other will outline the progress made in them during the past hundred years. All of these departmental addresses, like the divisional ones, will be delivered by Americans. For example, Political and Economic History will be treated by Professors Sloane and Robinson, of Columbia University, under the chairmanship of the Hon. Andrew D. White. The History of Literature will be treated by Professor Gildersleeve, of Johns Hopkins University, and Professor Harrison, of the University of Virginia, under the chairmanship of Mr. Hamilton W. Mabie ; the Sciences of the Earth, by Professor Davis, of Harvard University, and Professor Chamberlin, of the University of Chicago ; Sociology, by Professor Vincent, of the University of Chicago, and Professor Giddings, of Columbia University ; Education, by Bishop Spalding, of Peoria, and President Hadley, of Yale University ; and so on through the long list.

In the sectional meetings, the visiting scholars from abroad will take a large part. About one hundred and twenty-five of the leading scholars of England, France, Germany, Holland, Scandinavia, Austria, Italy, and Japan have accepted invitations to come to St. Louis, as the guests of the exposition, in order to take part in the congress. The great university centers of the old world will all be well represented. Oxford sends Morfill, Macdonnell, and Turner ; Cambridge sends Sorley, Bury, Haddon, Ward, and Allbutt ; Dublin sends Mahaffy ; Edinburgh sends Nicholson and Sir John Murray ; Paris sends Picard, Darboux, Poincaré, Cordier, Rambaud, Lévi, Meyer, Boyer, Brunetière, Enlart, Michel, Moissan, Réville, Giard, Delage, Manouvrier, Pierre Janet, Tarde, Richelot, Lévy, and Baron d'Estournelles de Constant. From Berlin come Pfleiderer, Dessoir, Kohler, Delitzsch, Har-



PROF. R. S. WOODWARD.



PROF. JOSIAH ROYCE.

nack, van t'Hoff, Hertwig, Waldeyer, Seler, von den Steinen, Orth, Liebreich, and Ziehen; from Leipsic, Ostwald, Lamprecht, Brugmann, Sievers, Zirkel, Marchand, Wach, and Binding; from Copenhagen, Jespersen, Höffding, and Westergaard; from Amsterdam, de Vries; from Budapest, Vambéry and Goldziher; from Tokio, Kozumi and Kitasato; and many more almost equally well known and distinguished.

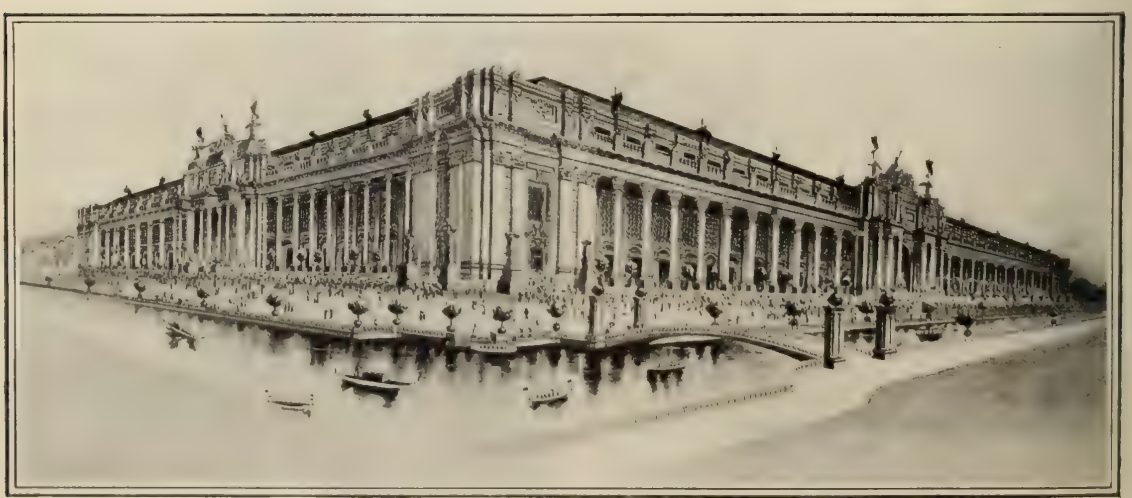
It is entirely probable that never before has so large and so representative a body of scholars been brought together; it is quite certain that never before has such a body of scholars assembled for so specific and so lofty a purpose.

The responsibility for this congress was intrusted to an administrative board of seven men, one of whom—Frederick W. Holls, of New York—died shortly after the work began. The administrative board early designated an organizing committee of three to manage the details of the work, and to visit Europe in order to familiarize foreign scholars with the plan and scope of the undertaking. This organizing committee has been diligently at work for nearly two years past. Its members are Prof. Simon Newcomb, of Washington, who is to preside over the congress, and Prof. Hugo Münsterberg, of Harvard University, and Prof. Albion W. Small, of the University of Chicago, who are to be the vice-presidents.

It is fair to presume that the eyes of the world of science and letters will be upon St. Louis during the third week of September, and that the addresses then delivered there will be the subject of close study and discussion for some time to come. The sessions will be open, and it is certain that very many American teachers and scholars will avail themselves of this unexampled opportunity to hear and to meet the leaders of the world's learning.

Apart from the general educational significance of the St. Louis Exposition and the International Congress of Arts and Sciences, the specific educational exhibits are of great value. Never before, to my knowledge, has education been so well exhibited. The German contributions are *facile princeps* at St. Louis, and will well repay the closest study. Among the most interesting developments shown there is that of the newer plan for secondary education in Germany, many of the facts concerning which are still quite unfamiliar in this country. The major portion of the German educational exhibit is devoted to the applications of science in one or another form. Medical and technological instruction are beautifully illustrated.

The larger portion of the educational exhibit is American, and the tens of thousands of persons who visit it daily prove its attractiveness and its value. The growing efficiency of the American elementary and secondary school is amply demonstrated, and there is on every hand conclusive refutation of the charge, not infrequently made, that the schools of to-day are neglecting the fundamentals of education for the fads and the frills. Nothing could be farther from the truth, and the school work gathered at St. Louis from every quarter of the country shows that the contrary is the case. The best-known universities, the school systems of two-thirds of the States and those of four selected cities,—New York, Chicago, St. Louis, and Cleveland,—have extensive exhibits that are instructive in high degree.



PALACE OF EDUCATION OF THE LOUISIANA PURCHASE EXPOSITION.

A UNIQUE INVESTIGATION.

METHODS OF THE GENERAL EDUCATION BOARD.

BY W. H. HECK.

IN describing the methods of the General Education Board, emphasis should be placed upon the attitude of the citizen, as distinguished from that of the technical specialist, in matters of education. This board was organized in February, 1902, and chartered by Congress in January, 1903. Its purpose was "to act as a clearing-house for educational statistics and data," and to coöperate financially in the development of schools so far as its resources allowed. The heroic efforts being made by the Southern States to improve their schools led the board to make the South its first field for study and coöperation. An office was opened in New York; and the executive secretary, with technical and clerical assistance, immediately put himself in touch with educational leaders in the South, especially with those interested in the Southern Education Board and the Annual Conference for Education in the South.

Inflated newspaper accounts of the board's wealth and plans brought to the office, by letter or by visit, a bewildering number of applications for aid. These applications gave an opportunity to collect first-hand information regarding schools of all types in the different States. The secretary spent most of his time in the South, visiting schools and consulting men and women of influence; an experienced teacher was employed to make thorough studies of special schools; and the office force was engaged in collecting and filing official reports, catalogues, statistics, etc. The kindness of Southern teachers and officials in furnishing information contributed largely to the board's success.

Conferences of county superintendents were held in seven States, where informal discussions of school needs not only added enthusiasm to the educational movement, but also gave the representatives of the board an acquaintance with local officials and with public opinion, without which its investigation would have been impossible. Stenographical reports of these discussions have been edited and filed in the board's office. Each superintendent was furnished with a blank, asking a number of questions about the buildings and grounds, teachers, pupils, patrons, superintendence, and finances of the schools in his county. This blank was filled out at the



DR. WALLACE BUTTRICK.
(Secretary of the General Education Board.)

conference; another exactly like it was filled out after the superintendent had returned home and consulted his office records. The contrast is instructive. Such a thorough knowledge as the blanks required had not generally been demanded of superintendents, and the answers on the blanks are, therefore, suggestive rather than exact.

After a year and a half of such work, the board had collected more material about Southern schools than could be found elsewhere, and had appropriated two hundred and fifty thousand dollars to schools of both races, a considerably larger conditional sum having been raised by local taxation or subscription. The gifts were in reality experimental features of the study. Aid was given to summer schools, normal schools, model county schools, and industrial and domestic science departments. In two North

Carolina counties, district subscriptions for improvement of schoolhouses were duplicated in part by the board, after the districts had voted in favor of a local tax for schools; in two Georgia counties, the board coöperated with the districts in lengthening the school term for two months. Most of the schools benefited in all the gifts were parts of the public-school system.

In the fall of 1903, the board decided that its work had advanced sufficiently for it to begin more or less conclusive studies of educational conditions in the Southern States, taking each State separately for thorough study. Details and technical criticisms were to be subordinated in a general study, with suggestions as to the best methods of coöperating with local forces. Such a report has been made in regard to one State, and two more will be ready this fall. The completed report first deals with the State school system of elementary schools, analyzing the school laws and the finances, giving a number of miscellaneous and comparative statistics, and discussing the progressive forces now at work. The report then treats of city systems, public and private secondary schools, colleges for men, the higher education of women, and normal, mechanical, and agricultural institutions. The education of the negro above the State elementary system is discussed separately and somewhat in the same order. Then follow conclusions and suggestions. This outline will be used in later reports, although the Southern States differ so widely one from another that some changes will be necessary.

The scope and thoroughness required in this work are in some ways unique, and the board has been unable to rely wholly upon methods of investigation used elsewhere. The collection of so much detail material requires exactness in filing and cataloguing, especially as all available information about any school may be needed at a moment's notice. The office methods are now so well organized that only two men are required to keep the material in proper condition, but suggestions are constantly being made by others in the office. This material can be divided into two main divisions:

1. A small library on general education; and reports, books, pamphlets, and clippings in regard to the Southern States, individually or collectively, with special reference to education. This library contains about three thousand books and pamphlets, which are card-catalogued by subject and by author, a simple use of letters and figures being preferred to any of the library systems. The material is so grouped on the shelves that the guidance of the catalogue is seldom required.

2. Material in regard to individual schools, filed and card-catalogued alphabetically by State and place. School catalogues and other publications are put in separate envelopes or boxes and arranged on shelves; the correspondence is kept in separate folders in drawers; and blanks, sent from this office to thousands of Southern schools, are filed in drawers as part of the material about the different counties. This division seems necessary; but the card-catalogue directs one at a glance to all the available information about any school, and only two minutes are required to collect it from the shelves and drawers.

Another feature of the work is the making of school maps. The United States Post-Route maps are covered with pasters, representing the location, color, grade, etc., of the schools in each State above the elementary system. Such a "picture" of the schools is valuable in studying the distribution of educational opportunities in a State. In the same connection, analyses are being made of the residence of students in colleges, so as to show the sections least affected by higher education.

There are also on file comparative synopses of State school laws and of college curricula, in addition to two hundred or more reports on special schools by representatives of the board. In the near future we will purchase sets of elementary text-books in so far as they are prescribed in several Southern States by uniform text-book laws. A negro educator, who aids in the study of negro schools, is planning an investigation of the various attempts to teach racial history and inculcate racial pride. He will also study at first hand the negro rural schools throughout typical counties in different States.

The results of the investigation as carried on by the board are not only for its own use, but are at the service of all desiring information. It is the ideal of the board to get at the facts of the situation, national as well as sectional in their significance, and by these facts to give an opportunity for mutual understanding and coöperation to all interested.

TWO FRENCH APOSTLES OF COURAGE IN AMERICA.

BY ALVAN F. SANBORN.

EXPOSITION year sends to America two Frenchmen whose connection with the intellectual and moral development of their country is intimate and important. These are Charles Wagner, author of "The Simple Life," whose books are immensely popular with Americans, and who has been invited by President Roosevelt to make a lecture tour of the States, and Paul Adam, commissioned by the French Government to prepare a report on "the æsthetic evolution of the present time" as illustrated by the St. Louis Exposition.

Charles Wagner is a leader of the French "liberal Protestant" movement, which is one of the many phases of the present remarkable revival of religious interest in France. This liberal Protestantism is nothing more or less than American "new theology" in a French setting. It discards all the principal dogmas of historical Christianity in claiming to retain the essence of Christianity. M. Wagner, for instance, characterizes himself as a "piously heretical spirit," and deploys a vast amount of ingenuity in trying to differentiate liberal Protestantism from free-thinking. It is hard to believe that this hybrid system of thought is destined to a brilliant future in France, because of the uncompromising logic of the French people, who are temperamentally incapable of comprehending and sympathizing with attempts to put new wine into old bottles. While this is the *rôle* in which M. Wagner takes himself most seriously, it is by no means the *rôle* in which he appears at his best. It is not to him, but to more thoroughgoing and logical thinkers in the camps of out-and-out religion and out-and-out irreligion that the serious-minded youth of France are likely to turn for intellectual guidance in their moments of spiritual stress.

In the *rôle* of an advocate of simple living, M. Wagner counts for very much less in staid, economical France than in nervous, extravagant America, probably because the need of this message there is less crying. His "Vie Simple" is relatively little read in his own country, and has created, so far as I know, no appreciable current of any sort.

It is in his third *rôle*, as an apostle of aggressive optimism, that he has his strongest hold upon his own people. His "Jeunesse" (Youth) and "Vaillance" (Courage), which inculcate the duty and proclaim the beauty of cheerful courage in the face of individual and national reverses, are far and away the most popular of his ten volumes. M. Wagner is a splendid disseminator of wholesome animal spirits. On this point his influence is considerable, and had he only a little more distinction of style, it would be enormous.



CHARLES WAGNER.
(Who lectures in this country during September and October.)

PAUL ADAM'S GOSPEL OF ACTION.

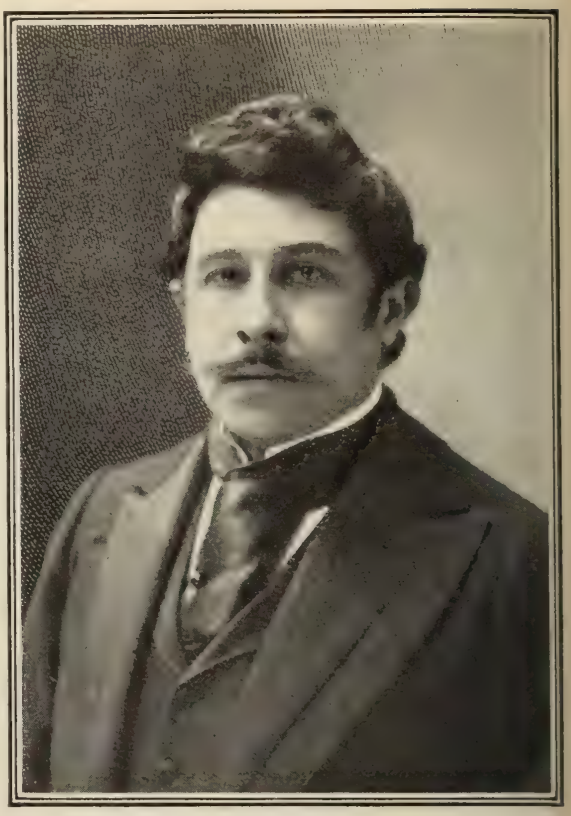
Paul Adam is primarily a literary artist,—in fact, one of the foremost literary artists of his time. At forty-two, his literary baggage consists of thirty novels, of several volumes of history, literary, æsthetic, social, and philosophical studies, dramas and short stories, and of innu-

merable magazine and review articles and *chroniques* for the daily press. This fecundity, furthermore, is not accompanied by flabbiness or futility, as is too often the case. Every one of the novels has its special note of interest; his histories, essays, dramas, and short stories are of a high order of merit, and his magazine and newspaper articles, though mostly uncollected, have a solidity of matter and charm of manner that entitle them to a permanent form. He is master of a pure French style at once flexible and robust; indeed, in the making of beautiful phrases and the rounding out of sonorous periods, he has few superiors. With his style, which calls for an article by itself, I can have nothing to do here further than to call attention to the fact that it is distinguished,—a circumstance of vital moment to his influence, since it insures him a far more general hearing than he could otherwise obtain, such is the cult of form in France. Thousands of cultivated Frenchmen read Paul Adam for his style who would pay no attention whatever to his lucubrations were they presented in an uncouth or commonplace fashion.

Paul Adam is the most suggestive of contemporary French writers. As a stirrer of thought he is absolutely peerless among the *chroniqueurs* of the Paris press, and he has few equals in this respect among his fellow-essayists and novelists. He is an *impresario* of ideas, so to speak. His forte is the evocation and the exhibition of unhackneyed ideas, and his efficiency in this function borders on the superhuman. "He works like a whole hive," says M. Remy de Gourmont, "and at the slightest touch of sunshine his ideas buzz forth like bees and disperse themselves over the meadows of life. Paul Adam is a magnificent spectacle."

His ideas come so fast at times that they tumble over one another as do the parti-colored leaves of autumn speeding before the wind. He handles a dozen subjects, raises a dozen questions, and states a dozen problems in the space of a single three-column *chronique*, and that in such a masterful way as to reveal their respective relations to the interplay of the world-forces of his time and of all times. One of his *chroniques* contains ideas enough for a volume, and one of his volumes ideas enough for a library. Indeed, in universality of intellect (I should not think for a moment of forcing the comparison further) he resembles Zola, Hugo, and Balzac, especially Balzac.

True, his writing, by reason of its very superabundance of ideas, contains irrelevancies, like a torrent which, by reason of its very strength, catches up and sweeps along with it all sorts of foreign substances. It even happens sometimes



PAUL ADAM.
(Who is visiting the St. Louis Exposition.)

that the foreign substances in the torrent of his thought are so numerous as to dam it, make it overflow its banks, and compel it to seek a new channel. The defect is, at least, not of the petty sort. His opinions (which are in reality more moods than opinions, so predominant is the artistic faculty in him) are often disjointed and contradictory. It does not matter. He is too big to be disconcerted thereby, and it does not trouble you. He makes you feel as you feel with Browning, that it is because life itself is disordered and contradictory.

He does not presume to reduce life to a system. He belongs to no recognized school of philosophical thought. He is neither radical in tendency nor conservative; he defies classification. Now he exalts tradition with a Bourget or a Brunetière, and now he ridicules it with an Anatole France or a Mirabeau. He resembles no one, least of all himself. He may flout today what he will commend to-morrow, and *vice versa*. He changes color with the facility of the chameleon and form with the rapidity of Proteus.

In contradistinction to M. Wagner, who sees

the life with which he is not immediately surrounded from the angle and through the eyes of the country preacher (for this burly, unimaginative Alsatian has never become truly sophisticated), M. Adam sees the particular facts of no matter what sphere of activity in their relation to the whole of life. Both pride themselves on being thoroughly modern; M. Adam alone is really so, M. Wagner's modernism being practically limited to the single department of theology.

ADAM A STIRRER OF IDEAS.

In the special field of ethics, as in the general field, Paul Adam is rather a stirrer of ideas than the exponent of a system. He is indefatigable in posing the terms of moral problems, but he does not claim to have discovered a coherent moral philosophy.

M. Wagner clings dutifully to all the religious ethics (in forsaking the religion) of the fathers. He takes for granted the traditional moral code, and the institutions of society founded thereon are sacred to him—barring an occasional unimportant detail. His writings are so conventional and colorless in this particular that they do not run the slightest risk of troubling the innocence of the proverbial young girl, exciting the laborer, or impairing the appetite or digestion of the capitalist.

Paul Adam's moral code, if he has any, has never been formulated in his writings. In his fiction, he is well-nigh as un-moral as De Maupassant. He narrates the acts and expounds the motives of the criminal and the courtesan with the same frankness and impartiality as those of his most reputable characters, and he treats as debatable questions (without pronouncing himself finally thereon) all the articles of the current code of morality and the principles of the existing social system. In comparison with this comprehensive liberty of discussion, the restricted liberty M. Wagner allows himself seems of the bib-and-tucker order.

Paul Adam has saved many young men from pessimism or doubt. For all his air of complete detachment from dogma, he has his hobby as well as another, his idol even. Like the Carlyle of "Heroes and Hero-Worship," he has a limitless veneration for force; for force in all its physical and intellectual manifestations, whatever its source and whatever its results.

This sentiment informs all his work. It underlies and colors his appreciations of men and things, of art and letters. It accounts for a love of up-to-date machinery amounting almost to a mania that enables him to lavish lyricism on an automobile as another would on a sunset. It appears in all his fiction, and is the avowed inspiration of his two cyclic works,—the trilogy of "Les Volontés Merveilleuses" (The Marvelous Wills) (1888-90) and the tetralogy, "Le Temps et la Vie" (The Times and Life) (1899-1903), which he has called also "L'Epopée de la Force" (The Epic of Force).

In his *chroniques*, this adoration of force (less reasoned than temperamental with him) takes the form of a veritable missionary message, of a direct fervent appeal to action, to strenuous living. And it is thus that Paul Adam, the amateur of ideas, takes his place definitely among the "Professors of Energy," so called, who, by their persistent efforts, are gradually remolding French character and transforming French civilization. With Edmond Demolins, with (the late) Père Didon, with Pierre Baudin, Gabriel Bouvalot, Max Leclerc, Hughes Leroux, Jules Lemaître, and a score of other enlightened spirits, Paul Adam has long been repeating to the rising generation this virile exhortation:

> Quit your desks and your books! Cease aspiring for professorships, snug clerkships, and government berths! A fig for your grades, your diplomas, your promotions! Stop whining over the scarcity of public employment and the overcrowded condition of the learned professions! Above all, go to the colonies; become explorers, pioneers, and start life anew! Do as the young Americans do! Make your fortunes, carve out for yourselves careers! Throw yourselves body and soul into the industrial and commercial conflict of the hour. Become captains of industry, Napoleons of finance, builders of nations!

KINDRED INFLUENCES OF ADAM AND WAGNER.

Thus, Charles Wagner and Paul Adam come by very different routes to the same goal,—to the conclusion, namely, that the thing to do in this world is to front life with courage, because life is an end in itself. The simple pastor and the complex citizen of the world are at one as regards this matter. In their respective fashions, with very different words and for very different reasons, they are both preaching courage, are both administering tonics, so to speak, to the young men of a disillusionized, disheartened, somewhat anemic generation. Paul Adam, as the possessor of the more extended experience, the broader culture, the surer intuition, the more active imagination, the superior literary art, and the more intense modernism, has the larger and the more brilliant audience. But the less obtrusive audience of Charles Wagner is by no means to be ignored. In spite of dissimilarities of outlook and method, these two men are exerting a similar bracing influence on the life of their nation.



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A JAPANESE TELEPHONE STATION IN THE FIELD.

HOW THE JAPANESE COMMUNICATE IN BATTLE.

BY M. C. SULLIVAN.

(Member Veteran Corps, First Signal Company, N. G. N. Y.)

IT is not the courage and the nerve of the Japanese officers and men,—unquestioned as is their possession of these requisites,—that is placing Japan on a par with the so-called mightier powers.

To military science, better applied by the Japanese than by the Russian, the victories of the former can, to a very great extent, be attributed. The means and methods used by the Japanese military signaling department, notably the application of electricity on sea and land, bring forcibly to mind that Japan's destiny is not in the hands of her admirals and generals alone, but in the hands of her electrical engineers as well.

As a result of the insistent demands of the active and progressive generals for the highest perfection in all departments of their army, at the present time, Japan has in Manchuria the largest, most scientifically equipped, and best officered and manned signal corps that has ever appeared on a battlefield. Its efficiency, and consequently its success, are largely due to the fidelity with which the Mikado's organizers have copied the methods of the United States Army Signal Corps and adapted lessons from its experiences in Cuba and the Philippines.

The radical innovation in military tactics and strategy introduced by the Japanese is adapted to fit conditions existing to-day. The destructiveness of long-range guns and rifles using smokeless powder, which are now being tested on a large scale for the first time, necessitates the disposition of an army on the battlefield in small bodies, each being prepared to act independently or in unison as the occasion may require, and all being directed from one commanding head. This, in turn, requires a constant and reliable means of communication between the various divisions of which an army is composed.

When we recall the innumerable instances in history of available and much-needed reënforcements having been kept idle for hours through lack of prompt means of communication, waiting for orders, while other divisions of the same army were being cut to pieces, we begin to realize the very great importance of a highly effi-

cient means of intercommunication on the battle field.

While valor and bravery are appreciated as much as ever by the Japanese military leaders, it is their strategists upon whom they chiefly depend in both offensive and defensive operations. Strategy, which to a great extent consists in deceiving or disconcerting the enemy, is the keynote of the present operations of the Japanese army, and is rightly considered to be of far greater effective force than the physical courage and constant readiness of the Japanese soldiers.



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A JAPANESE TELEPHONE STATION IN A KOREAN HUT ALONG THE LINE OF MARCH.

The difficulties incident to maintaining communication on the battlefield to-day are many and varied. In establishing telephone lines the topography of the country has to be considered, and in the case of the Japanese advance through Korea, difficulties of great magnitude had to be overcome. Yet, with it all, the telephone department frequently completed its line in advance of the troops, even under forced marching. In order to accomplish such results men of remarkable skill are required, and they must be thoroughly trained to be ready for any emergency that may arise. In fact, they are so trained by profession. The entire Japanese Signal Corps is composed of men whose civil avocation is along the lines required by their military service. Electrical engineers, telephone and telegraph operators and linemen,—there is probably not a man in the entire organization who is not well schooled in at least the rudiments of electrical science.

Probably the chief reason for the wonderful efficiency of the Mikado's army is the remarkable faculty which the Japanese possess for copying and adapting. They have carefully and effectually studied the military text-books of every nation, and have accepted and incorporated all that is best from each one. When the allies made their memorable march to Peking, the splendid preparedness and efficiency of the Japs was a source of wonder and astonishment to all other nations. In his 1900 report to the Secretary of War, General Greely, chief signal officer of the United States army, pays the Japanese the highest encomiums upon the efficiency of their signal service.

When the Mikado's soldiers effected their crossing of the Yalu, early in May,—in the face of what had been pronounced by military experts insurmountable obstacles,—all the world wondered. But the Japanese did not. They had not recklessly attempted a feat seemingly impossible to accomplish. Each foot of ground had been carefully gone over, and when their left flank was advancing on the Russian right, it was apparently marching into the fire of its own batteries. But this was not the case, for, through its signal corps, the Japanese artillery was always in perfect touch with the movements of the infantry, and, when the infantry advance was made, the artillery fire was instantaneously shifted so as not to conflict with the maneuver.

It was in this engagement that the unique spectacle of infantry capturing a light battery was witnessed, and it was owing to the splendid line of communication established by the Japanese that this was possible. Again, at the heights of Nanshan, which has been one of the most spectacular operations on land to date, the unmasking of the Russian position was absolutely imperative to Japanese success. This could only be accomplished through simultaneous skirmish attacks. Owing to the fact that the Japanese skirmishers were constantly in touch with the main body in the rear and at all points of attack, the exact position of the Russians was well known, and it was in large measure due to this that the final Japanese charge proved such a splendid success.

In even a greater degree does the excellent Japanese signal service contribute to the success of their artillery action. One of the great advantages of the method of their artillery control is that the distance of the batteries from the station where the effect of the fire is noted often has a tendency to increase the accuracy and speed with which information may be transmitted.

This is due to the fact that the observing stations can be located at points from which the effects of the fire can be best observed. The power thus given to an artillery commander is necessarily extraordinary. Upon his skill, to the greatest extent ever known in warfare, depends the success or failure of the battle.

While the Japanese are greatly skilled in the visual system of communication,—the time-honored "wigwag" and heliograph,—yet in the present conflict they have clearly demonstrated the superiority of the telephone and the telegraph as a means of transmitting information from point to point. Unlike the heliograph and flag systems, the electrical means of communication operates irrespective of weather, distance, and topographical conditions. It has the further advantage of being absolutely and entirely concealed from the enemy. It is shrouded in mystery, and there is no chance for the enemy to gain an advantage by reading signals, as has often happened in the past.

The character of the country in which operations are being conducted has no effect upon present military maneuvers. Where bullock carts cannot penetrate the Japanese have discovered that it is very easy to transport wire by having men carry it coiled upon their shoulders. These men advance the line at a rate of three miles or more an hour. The telephones are constructed of parts similar to those of commercial instruments, but are housed in boxes, which make them more easily portable.

It might be well to draw the attention of the reader to a point of interest in the illustration on page 333 that might not make itself evident. The picture shows a telephone station in a Korean hut, and three men apparently engaged in receiving and transmitting messages. One of these men acts as a transmitter, another listens to the commands as they are received and checks the messages both ways; in this manner accuracy is obtained and the reports and commands are successfully transmitted.

It must, of course, be remembered that in the rapid work of construction which is imperative under military conditions, the equipment is necessarily crude and incomplete. But it answers every purpose, and has the great advantage of extreme mobility.

It would seem that the Japanese have rendered wholly obsolete the old romantic picture of the mud-smeared and disheveled horseman falling from his jaded mount as he hands his dispatch to his general.

Every outpost is connected with its camp and every encampment with headquarters, so that the commanding officer is enabled to talk with all parts of his army, although it may consist of tens of thousands scattered over miles of ground. Hence there can be no excuse for orders going astray or being misinterpreted, and absolutely no chance of surprise. No Japanese soldiers are being uselessly sacrificed because of lack of means for obtaining information or confirming seemingly ambiguous orders.



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MEMBERS OF A JAPANESE SIGNAL CORPS "WIGWAGGING" FROM AN OUTPOST.

KUROKI, LEADER OF THE JAPANESE ADVANCE.

BY HIRATA TATSUO.

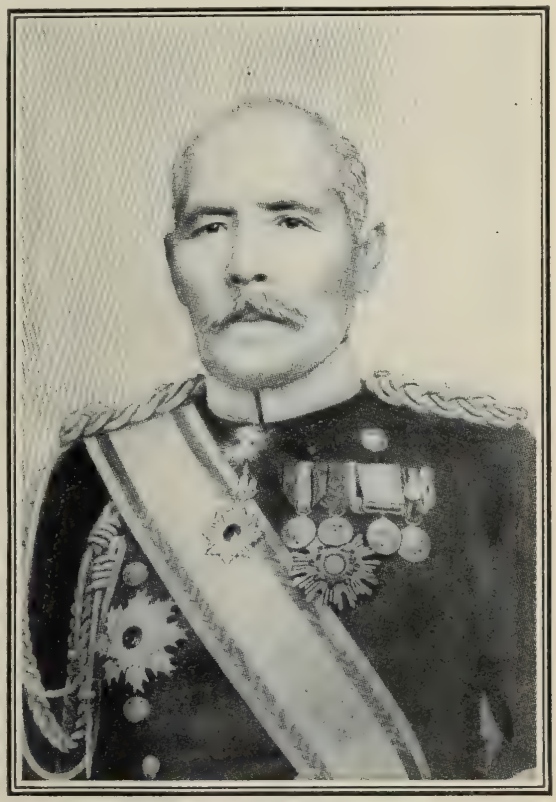
AT the break of day of the first of May, 1904, the entire battery of the Third Division of the First Japanese army opened fire upon the Russians across the Yalu River.

On a hilltop on the Korean side you could see a man. Upon his head was the snow of sixty winters. By the way the field-glasses in his hand were directed, his interest seemed to be as wide as the battlefield before him. He had seen many wars. Many times his country had called to him. Since his eighteenth year she has never found him wanting. Always above his head waved the imperial flag of Nippon. He was over her cradle in the stormy days of the Restoration, when the New Nippon was born. In the war of the Satsuma rebellion, at the capture of Weihaiwei, he held his place; and again, in the autumn of his life, came the call to the flag. Once again the men of the First Army Corps were happy to see at their head the ever-young, elderly commander of many other heroic days.

Only the gods could tell you what were General Kuroki's emotions as he looked over the battlefield of the Yalu. That was the first battle on which the fate of the Nippon army depended. Can an Oriental race stand against a white one? This also was the question which this battle was to decide, once for all. That was the first battle, as well, in which this veteran commander was asked to strike one great blow for the very life of his beloved Nippon. Who shall say that there was no prayer within the heart of General Kuroki? He must have prayed to the gods that this might be the last battle in which he would be compelled to witness the sacrifice of so many thousands of Nippon's brave sons for the defense of their country. He had shared with his soldier boys the hardships of camp. Side by side with them he had fought for his country. He had run the race of life, always for the defense and honor of his country. He must have then felt that he was in the last arena of his life, and certainly the old commander might be permitted to pray to the gods that, after this last heroic effort in behalf of his country, he might be permitted to go back to his simple home-life; that the future of his country might be smooth; that strife might cease. The men who saw the commander on that morning were moved to tears, they tell us.

What profits it for a man of sixty to share the rations of a private, of coarse rice and dried fish, to brave the Korean winter and the Korean road, which is worse, that he might have glory, that he might have wealth?

"The military," says Tolstoy, "trained for murder, having passed years in a school of inhumanity, coarseness, and idleness, rejoice—poor men—because, besides an increase of their salary,



GENERAL BARON KUROKI TAMESADA.

(General Kuroki is of pure Samurai blood, of an old Japanese family, and not of half Polish origin, as has been reported in the newspapers.)

the slaughter of superiors opens vacancies for their promotion." Here is one of them:

In the first year of Koka,—that is to say, 1844,—in the city of Kogoshima, in a quiet street, was born a child to whom the elders gave the name of Shichizaemon. This city was a famous spot. There were born Field Marshal Marquis Oyama, Admiral Togo, and the greatest of all Nipponese military leaders, Saigo Nanshu.

Young Shichizaemon was in the vigor of his

youth when the New Nippon was entangling herself in her baby speeches and gestures. The civil war,—the Ojishin, or great earth-shakings, as we called it.—which brought about the restoration of actual powers of government into the hands of his majesty the Emperor, and translated the power and prestige of the Shogun government into gentle furniture in the hall of history, was led principally by the two most powerful clans of the time, Satsuma and Choshu. Prince Shimazu was the lord of Satsuma clan. At the head of the Satsuma samurai, Saigo Nanshu led the brocade banner of his majesty all victorious over the Shogun's forces. And under this famous commander you could see our young man, rather silent, and always calm, who seemed to take life seriously, and who was known among his comrades as Kuroki Tamesada (for as he grew in years Kuroki changed the name of his youth to Tamesada). Excellent conduct secured young Kuroki promotion to be the chief of a sub-company. At the head of this unpretentious band of Satsuma samurai he saw the famous battles of Fushima and of Yodo ; and he was also at the memorable death-struggles of the Shogun's forces at Aizu and at Yakamatsu.

It was in the second moon of the following year that he was promoted to the command of a sub-company of the first company. Promotions then came rapidly to him, and in the seventh moon of the fourth year of Meiji, we find him a captain, and at the head of a sub-company of the bodyguard of the Emperor. Later, he was promoted to the rank of major, and then he was made lieutenant-colonel.

Then came the tenth year of Meiji. In that year the samurai ideals of the Elder Nippon met in battle the dreams and aspirations of the New. In this Waterloo of the Old Nippon the best fighting blood of the nation was shed,—Satsuma men against Satsuma, and Choshu against Choshu ; the superior resources of the imperial army against the genius of Saigo and his fellow-captains ! Such was the stage which called upon the then Lieutenant-Colonel Kuroki and bade him show to the world what make of man he was. For one hundred and eighty days on a stretch, Kuroki was in the thick of the fight.

Then came the historic year of 1894. In the opening days of the year, he was ordered to take a trip of investigation through the forts at Fukuoka, Kokura, Akamagaseki, Tsushima, and Okinawa. Now these are the principal points of defense in southern Nippon. Already the more than first signs of the gathering storm of war were above the far-Eastern horizon. The poet of the time has said that "the peace of the far East was as secure as an egg at the end of a cobweb thread." On the twenty-fifth day of July, 1894, was issued the order for mobilization. General Kuroki looked after the concentration of reserves at different points of embarkation. Referring to this period of the Chino-Nippon war, he simply remarked that in comparison the days he spent in China commanding his division were an agreeable stretch of vacation. The only time he worked at all was in the opening days of the war, when the rapid concentration of the reserves taxed his wits.

It was close to midnight of January 29, 1895,—to be precise, 11.55 P.M. To General Kuroki, who was at the head of the Sixth Division, came a messenger from Field Marshal Oyama. The Sixth Division was back of the hill ranges of Weihaiwei. The message which came to General Kuroki was simple. It said to attack and take Weihaiwei,—that was all. Facing him, and screening the bay of Weihaiwei, were twelve massive forts that had sixty-four Krupp and Armstrong guns of twenty-four-centimeter caliber. These forts defended a stretch of six hundred and fifty meters. Behind this screen, on the peaceful bay of Weihaiwei, was the remnant of the Peiyang squadron. From where he stood in the early light of January 30, 1895, General Kuroki, through his field-glasses, could see his men climbing over the frozen rocks and over snow to the attack of the forts. The combined fire of the twelve forts and of the Chinese vessels in the bay enveloped his men in a mantle of fire and smoke. At eleven in the morning, when the fury of the battle cleared away somewhat, the Sun flag was seen floating from eleven out of the twelve of the forts. General Kuroki had just seen a superhuman feat of human courage. The scene, however, did not seem to move him in the least. Watching him, one would have supposed that he was looking upon a bit of every-day activity,—tilling a field, for example. The taking of the last fort of the twelve was more furious than any incident in connection with the capture of Weihaiwei. The Nippon soldiers, with their stubborn and almost mechanical steadiness, made for it. Now, all the guns of the Chinese vessels had no other object at this time than to push back this final attack of the Nippon soldiers on the last fort. They concentrated their fire, therefore, against this reckless advance. The ground was plowed, and the cloud of dust hung thick around the men who marched over the blood and bodies of their comrades. Still the commander of the Sixth Division looked untouched upon the gallantry of his men. At last the last fort was rushed, and the Chinese were scattered down the frozen precipices ! The Sun

flag floated from the last of the land defenses of Weihaiwei. General Kuroki looked upon the scene as if he had expected to see nothing less. As soon as the forts were in the hands of the Nippon soldiers, they turned the captured guns upon the Chinese vessels which had been bombarding them. Suddenly there came a messenger to General Kuroki. He said, "Major-General Odera was struck by a shell, which caused his instant death." General Kuroki turned around and looked at the messenger, and said, "What did you say?"

In the eyes of the messenger, and also in his voice, which repeated the black news, there were tears. Major-General Odera had held the proud record of being the bravest man in the entire Nippon army. That meant something. The general was silent. What he said at last was: "Odera dead? He died well."

Surely that was simple. What impressed the men about General Kuroki was the tone of his voice, the attitude of the general. General Kuroki, who could look upon thousands of his brave soldiers placed upon the altar of his country's honor and watch them baptize with their blood the frozen precipices, down Motien forts, in perfect peace, was stirred almost to a stormy point of emotional excitement at the news of the death of his comrade, Major General Odera. The men who happened to be present at this scene declare that they had never seen the general, or any man for that matter, so affected in all their lives.

General Kuroki has the reputation of being cold by nature. It is wrong to pronounce the Mississippi shallow because it does not make as much noise as a mountain rill every moment of its life.

A CHINAMAN ON THE "YELLOW PERIL."

BY CHANG YOW TONG.

[Mr. Chang (formerly secretary of the Chinese World's Fair Commission) is a young Chinaman of means, who is devoting himself to the self-imposed task of making China understood by the Western world. He comes of a high-class family, was educated in this country (although he has not become Americanized), and has traveled extensively. He has just published a small volume of poems descriptive of the Louisiana Purchase Exposition, which is really a fine tribute to American influence on China.]

THE phrase, the "Yellow Peril," which originally meant danger from the Chinese race, was coined by the European newspapers in the far East during the Boxer uprising of 1900 in northern China.

When Germany demanded Kiao-Chau Bay; France, Kwong-Chau Bay; and Russia, Port Arthur; while innumerable concessions and privileges were demanded in quick succession by three or four other nations in 1897 and 1898, it seemed even to the drowsy Chinese that the partition of China had at last arrived. This idea was strengthened by the tone of the local foreign press, which openly discussed the subject while the foreign powers were at the same time marking out their particular spheres of influence. It was no wonder, therefore, that the Chinese thought the European nations had decided to carry out the nefarious plan. To counteract such a scheme, the Boxers resolved to drive out of China all foreigners, and even native sympathizers with foreigners.

It was thought at the time by Europeans that this Boxer movement would spread all over China, and they predicted that there would be much future trouble. Strongly convinced that the whole of China would rise in arms against all aliens, the foreign cry was "Yellow Peril," and yellow journalism was widely circulated, cursing the Chinese for defending their own country, which Russia, Germany, and France were eager to seize. And seize it they did. I expressly single out these because they are the ones who contemplate territorial aggrandizement. They had already hatched their plan of spoliation and robbery when they coerced Japan into the retrocession of the Liao-tung Peninsula in 1895, in order to reserve the Asiatic mainland for themselves.

AN ABSURDITY, AN IMPOSSIBILITY.

Peril and danger from the Chinese! What absurdity! What danger could there be from a nation whose policy is peace at any price, and who went to war only when forced to do so? What could an agricultural and trading people do to endanger the safety of nations which are armed to the teeth, whose glory is militarism, whose pride is arms, and whose thirst is territory?

Who does not know the march of Russia across the Asiatic continent? Who can be blind to the aspirations of France, which, after the defeat of 1870, turned her attention to colonial expansion (or land-stealing) in Asia, Africa, and other parts of the world? What person can be so ignorant as not to see that Germany has appropriated vast regions in Africa, snatched seaports in Asia, islands in the Pacific, and attempted to gain a foothold in South America? When the rightful owner of the land makes some resistance, they instantly cry out "peril." Surely it has been peril to those who resisted, not peril to those who robbed. It is the highwayman's cry. The "Yellow Peril" should be interpreted: peril *to* and not *from* the yellow race.

The Germans are doing all they can to blind the world and make Europe and America believe that there actually is a "Yellow Peril." They are trying to rouse the Occidental nations to an imaginary danger and to goad the Caucasian race on to the subjugation of Asia. They are doing their utmost to create a racial prejudice to further their own ends. They like to see Russia, backed up by the great Western powers, win over Japan, and thereby gain something for themselves. With Russia's victory they expect the speedy partition of China, a large slice of which will surely come to Germany, Russia's friend, sympathizer, and partner. For was it not for Asiatic land-robbing that Germany joined Russia and France in the coercion of Japan in 1895? Russia's victory in the present war would mean that the Muscovites' policy would be concentrated in the development of her far-Eastern possessions, which would so absorb her attention and strain her resources that Germany would be able to sleep quietly for years with no concern as to her frontiers contiguous to the Bear. If Russia loses, then Germany must be forever apprehensive of her possession of Kiao-Chau Bay. It will be within striking distance of Japan, the conqueror of Russia. Russia will no more stand between her and Japan to divert Japanese attention to Manchuria and leave Kiao-Chau to be strengthened and developed at leisure. With Russia defeated, Germany must stand alone in northern China.

Why is France crying "Yellow Peril?" Because Russia is her ally, and she has loaned her vast sums. Because Russian defeat means the delaying of the partition of China. Because Russia's failure to expand in the East means that Russia must expand in Europe, in which case she will crowd Germany, and Germany may crowd France. Such an event may not seem possible, but it is the logical outcome of the "Yellow Peril" theory. France has charged the Japanese with the breaking of international law in the first naval attack on Port Arthur. I wish to remind France that she attacked the Chinese fleet at Foo-Chow in 1884 with the same "treachery" before war was officially declared. France taught this lesson to Japan.

Russia is reaping the "Yellow Peril" because she has had the "yellow fever,"—the fever of conquering and ruling the yellow race.

NO PERIL TO ENGLAND AND AMERICA.

Why is it that England and America do not see the "Yellow Peril?" Because they know that the invasion of Europe and America will never come. Because England and America have so shaped their courses in their Asiatic possessions that the natives cannot and will not be driven to think of revolt, much less invasion. The liberty, freedom, fair play, and privileges granted by England and America to their colonies insure contentment and stability among the natives. Any one who compares the condition of the Straits Settlements and Annam will be immediately convinced of their respective conditions and corresponding prosperity. The troubles in German Africa are the outcome of cruelty; the flourishing condition of the Sandwich Islands is the fruit of impartiality. The "Yellow Peril" of the Mongols under Genghis Khan is a thing of the past,—dead six centuries ago. Asia then suffered far more than Europe, only the eastern border of which was visited by the Tartars. Nearly every nation on the Asiatic mainland was conquered, and the Chinese suffered most terribly from their invasion.

The "Yellow Peril" will never come again. If it comes at all, it will be at the time when European civilization has retrograded and Europeans return to a condition of savagery far below that of their ancestors before the days of Cæsar. The "Yellow Peril" is only possible when the Asiatics are superior to the Europeans in culture, science, art, and general civilization, just as the Europeans, superior to the Asiatics in these respects, now dominate Asia. It will come when Europe and America, weakened by incessant wars, are so helpless that not only the Asiatics, but even the Eskimos and Laplanders will be able to dictate terms. When the Asiatics are able to overrun Europe and America it will not be the day of a "Yellow Peril," but the day of a "golden era." If that day ever comes, it will mean that the Asiatics are so superior that they deserve the conquest of the world.



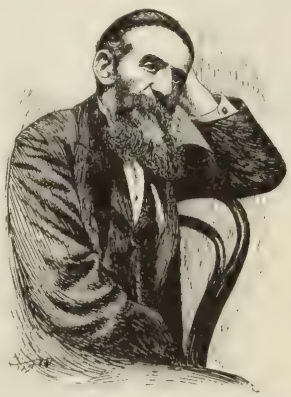
SOME PROMINENT ITALIAN PERIODICALS.

WHAT THE PEOPLE READ IN ITALY.

THE Italians, while one of the oldest races, form one of the newest nations on the continent of Europe. Their periodical press is perhaps the youngest, and Italy has no such modern periodical literature as we find in other countries. It is only thirty-four years since what is now the kingdom of Italy numbered many different small states and governments, and in most of these political liberty was very much restricted by absolutism. Political discussion especially was dangerous, and in Lombardy, which was then under Austrian rule, even historical writing was forbidden. The writing of philosophical works was absolutely prohibited under the Papal government up to 1871. Gradually, periodicals began to appear, and to-day, while there is a free press, it is young and comparatively limited in number. Besides these conditions, the Italians seem naturally to take more to books than to periodicals. The educated people read literature in book form rather than articles in reviews, and the masses are not at all concerned with questions of politics. The higher classes read French books, and the common people read scarcely anything. The periodical literary press is not what might be called popular, and it is patronized almost exclusively by the cultivated classes. It publishes literature and controversial matter of a scientific nature, which can interest only serious and studious people. By reason of this very seriousness of character, the Italian magazines are seldom illustrated.

The leader of the Italian reviews, the best known and most ably conducted, is the *Nuova Antologia* (New Anthology), of Rome, which is a high-class monthly review, publishing articles of a literary, scientific, and philosophic character, contributed chiefly by university professors. The *Nuova Antologia* is about thirty years old, and is edited by Maggiorino Ferraris, an ex-member of the Italian cabinet. The *Rassegna Nazionale* (National Review), published in Florence, is of the same general character as the *Nuova Antologia*, but often more serious. It is similar in form, and has high standing. The *Rivista Moderna* (Modern Review) and the *Italia*

Moderna (Modern Italy), of Rome, are new magazines, slightly more popular in tone than the two already mentioned; and the *Revue d'Italie* (Italian Review) is published in French for the benefit of foreigners. The Radicals have two monthlies: the *Rivista Italiana di Sociologia* (Italian Sociological Review), of Rome; and the *Riforma Sociale* (Social Review), of Turin, both of which are Republican and Socialistic in their sympathies. The *Riforma* is six or seven years old. It is an important review, being an authority on politics and social economics, and is edited by Signor Colaianni, a Republican leader, a professor in the University of Naples, and one of the members of the House of Deputies. *Minerva*, of Rome, is a sort of weekly *Review of Reviews*. Some of these reviews,—such as *Natura ed Arte* (Nature and Art), of Milan; the *Secolo XX.* (Twentieth Century), of Milan; the *Emporium* (Emporium), of Bergamo,—have a wide range, are very well illustrated, and somewhat similar in style to the American reviews. The *Civiltà Cattolica* (Catholic Civilization), of Rome, is a monthly review published by one of the daily newspapers, and is devoted to the interests of the Church, particularly of the priests.



PROF. ANGELO DE GUBERNATIS.

(Editor of *Cronache della Civiltà Elleno-Latina*, one of the ablest and best known of Italian editors. He was formerly director of the *Minerva*, the Italian *Review of Reviews*, and is still professor of Italian literature in the University of Rome, and a member of the House of Deputies. In the early part of the present year, he made a lecture tour of the United States.)

There are in Italy several reviews of an exclusively technical nature, such as the *Cronache della Civiltà Elleno-Latina* (Chronicles of the Greco-Latin Civilization), edited by Professor de Gubernatis. The object of the journal is to study the development of all the neo-Latin races—French, Italian, and Spanish. The *Bollettino delle Finanze Ferrovie e Lavori Pubblici* (Bulletin of Finances, Railroads, and Public Works), is a government publication; the *Bollettino della Societa Geografica Italiana* (Bulletin of the Italian Geographical Society) is devoted to geographical studies in general; the *Monitore Tecnico* (Technical Monitor), for engineers and architects; the *Italia Coloniale* (Colonial Italy), for the development of the Italian colonies; the *Rivista del Touring* (Review of Touring), of a sporty character. There is also a military review, the *Rivista di Artiglieria e Genio* (Review of Artillery and Engineering), published in Rome; and, finally, a review for the great events of the *élite*,—of country life, society, etc.,—the *Verde e Azzurro* (Green and Blue).

During the last few years, Italian weeklies have begun to cover a wide range. They are more popular in tone than the monthlies. In Milan, there is a popular weekly illustrated review of the news, the *Illustrazione Italiana* (Illustrated Italian), a popular progressive journal of sixteen pages, noted for its illustrations. The *Tribune Illustrata* (Illustrated Tribune) is published in Rome. The *Marzocco*, of Florence, is a very high-class publication. It takes its title from the name of a celebrated statue of a lion, a copy of which is on the steps of the Palazzo della Signoria, in Florence, and which is an emblem of Florence itself. There is also the *Leonardo da Vinci*, an organ of new artistic and literary ideas. In Milan, there is the *Corriere Illustrata* (Illustrated Courier), published by the *Corriere della Sera*, a weekly review illustrated in color. Milan has also the *Lettura* (Letter), a popular illustrated weekly, five or six years old, Liberal, and containing good stories, novels, and romances. In Florence, also, is published the popular and famous *Papagallo* (Paroquet), a journal of political cartoons, which is circulated all over the world. The double-page cartoon each week in the *Papagallo* has a caption in Italian, French, and English. The other two famous cartoon papers of Italy are the *Pasquino* (Pasquino was the name given by the Roman common people to an ancient deformed statue still standing near the Palazzo Brasdi, on the pedestal of which they wrote jokes, epigrams, satires), published in Turin, famous for its wit; and the *Fischietto* (Little Whistle), also of Turin, which is perhaps the best Italian cartoon journal. Besides these, there are in Italy many weekly papers of satirical humor, which could be called political, humorous papers, and are weekly parodies of public life, such as the *Bruscolo* (Bother), of Florence; the *Travaso delle Idee* (Journey of an Idea), of Rome; *Guerrin Meschino* (a romantic hero of the Middle Ages), of Milan; and *Monsignor Perrelli*, of Naples.

The Italian dailies are generally not larger than four pages. The contents of the Italian daily papers are the work of literary writers rather than of mere reporters, and the greater part of them is written by well-known authors. The space for advertisements is generally very much restricted, and the first article, known as

the *articolo di fondo* ("Leading Article"), on the front page of the paper, makes it look somewhat like the editorial page of the American papers. These "leaders" generally come from the best Italian political pens. Altogether, the Italian daily journal is very serious. The daily press is divided into three camps, in accordance with the three main political parties; and there are Monarchical, Radical (subdivided into Republican, Socialistic, etc.), and Clerical papers, known respectively as the White, Red, and Black press.

Italian daily journalism has made considerable advance during the past few years. Rome, naturally, has the largest number of high-class dailies. The largest, best known, and most ably edited of all the Italian dailies is, no doubt, the *Tribuna* (Tribune), of Rome. It is an evening daily, and its political news is accurate. It is read all over the kingdom. The *Tribuna* is serious, and is the official organ of the government. It is the oldest Italian daily. During the last three or four years, it has had a rival in the *Giornale d'Italia* (Journal of Italy), also of the capital, which is a progressive sheet, and semi-officially inspired. This newspaper has been publishing excellent news of the Russo-Japanese war, in many cases securing information ahead of other European journals. The *Popolo Romano* (Roman People) is another governmental daily, more popular in tone. Then there is the *Patria*, the organ of the Freemasons.

The differences between Church and State naturally furnish material for much rivalry. The *Tribuna* and the *Giornale d'Italia* are the champions of the Quirinal, but the Vatican also has its organs. The chief among these is the *Osservatore Romano* (Roman Observer), a well-edited daily much opposed to the government. It is published and edited by churchmen, and takes a decided stand on all questions of religion and politics. The *Voce della Verità* (Voice of Truth) is also one of the organs of the Church. The Socialists have a daily, *L'Avanti* (Forward), a serious journal, of Rome, which is read all over Italy. Two other dailies of the capital should also be mentioned: the *Asino* (Donkey), a comic Socialistic enemy of the priests; and the *Messaggiero* (Messenger), a sensational non-political journal for servants, poorer government employees, and the lower classes generally.

Outside of Rome, there are a number of important dailies in Naples, Milan, and Florence. The *Mattino* (Morning), of Naples, is one of the ablest dailies in all Italy. Signor Eduardo Scarfoglio formerly edited, in collaboration with his wife, Signoria Matilde Serao, the *Corriere di Napoli* (The Courier of Naples). Signor Scarfoglio, now a wealthy man, was a penniless boy at the beginning of his career, and Matilde Serao, now one of the best Italian woman writers, was a telegraph operator. The *Corriere di Napoli* went into bankruptcy, and Scarfoglio and Serao published the *Mattino* (Morning), of Naples, a very much-read paper. Later they separated, and Matilde Serao published, and still publishes, the *Giorno* (Day), and a weekly paper, the *Settimana* (Week). The evening paper of Naples is the *Pungolo* (Spur). Both of these journals support the government, and are widely read throughout all southern Italy. There is also the *Roma* (Rome), Republican, and a very popular newspaper. In Sicily, the best known daily is the *Ora* (Hour), of Palermo. Florence has the *Nazione* (Nation), and *Ettore Fieramosca* (the name of a famous Italian duelist). The *Perseveranza* (Perseverance), of Milan, is a very well-known government organ. Another paper of the same kind is the *Corriere della Sera* (Evening Courier). The leader, and most important of all the Republican newspapers in Italy, is published in Milan, and is the *Secolo* (Century); of the same stripe, but less important, is the *Tempo* (Times).

In Bologna, the *Resto del Carlino* is a morning newspaper—a Conservative organ. (*Carlino* is the name of a Papal piece of money.) The Radical newspaper of Bologna is the *Avvenire* (Future). There is in Venice the *Gazzetta di Venezia* (Venice Gazette), the manager and owner of which was Ferruccio Macola, a representative in the Italian Parliament, who killed in a duel the famous leader of the Italian Republican party, Signor Felice Cavallotti. Other papers of Venice are the *Gazzettino* (Little Journal) and the *Adriatico* (Adriatic). These three papers are Conservative.

In Turin, there are the *Stampa* (Press) and the *Gazzetta del Popolo* (People's Journal), the two oldest Italian newspapers. Piedmont, under the rule of the Savoy family, and now the ruling dynasty of Italy, was the only part of Italy where, before 1870, the press had sufficient freedom. In Genoa, there are the *Caffaro* and the *Secolo XIX.* (Nineteenth Century).

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

THE CZAR OF RUSSIA AT HOME.

AN intimate personal sketch of the Czar appears in *Cassell's Magazine*, by an anonymous writer. The article closes with the following lines:

"My happiness was born at night,
It has only flourished in darkness;
I have lost my joy in life,
I wander wearily in gloom.

"My soul gropes, sadly searching,
In mental fog,—it pines
And prays and suffers,
But finds no peace on earth."

These lines are a translation of verses by the Czar himself, "the translation of which conveys an utterly inadequate idea of the veritable ecstasy of sorrow contained in the original text." The Czar is described as a strange and inexplicable combination of the crassest contradictions and most divergent extremes. The writer states that the Czar receives a bigger salary than any other man in the world. From the public exchequer he receives nearly a million pounds per annum, paid in monthly installments, sent him in the form of a check on the National Bank of Russia. His private income is three or four times as big as his official. He has a hundred estates, and a hundred palaces and castles. He has more servants than any one else in the world, numbering more than thirty thousand. His private stables contain five thousand horses.



THE CZAR, THE CZARINA, AND THEIR FOUR DAUGHTERS.

(A son was born on August 12, 1904.)

AN ENGLISH HOME.

This is the writer's account of the imperial day:

The Czar habitually rises at 6 A.M., and eats a characteristically English breakfast of ham and eggs, bread and butter, with marmalade prepared by an English maker, and tea. This predilection for English manners and customs is common to both Czar and Czarina, for both like English fare best, both prefer using English to their respective mother tongues, and both are agreed upon the necessity of educating their children according to English methods. Immediately after breakfast, the Czar begins to smoke some of the heaviest brands of Havana cigars, which he continues to puff almost continuously till bedtime, notwithstanding the fact that his doctors have warned him again and again.

By 7 o'clock he is at his desk, discharging his many duties as chief soldier, sailor, Pope, and judge, all rolled into one. On an average, five hundred documents pass through his hands every week-day.

Lunch is a light meal, consisting of dainty *hors d'œuvres*,—soup, one course of meat, with vegetables, and a sweet dish, generally of the kind found on the tables of middle-class homes in England. Nothing but English is spoken, and as the domestics in attendance are purposely Russians, unable to understand a word of any other language, the conversation is free and unrestrained. After lunch, the Czar devotes a couple of hours to recreation of different kinds.

Dinner consists of five or six courses, plain and wholesome kinds of food being more in evidence than fancy dishes. A dinner party is generally limited to six or eight persons. After dinner, the Czar generally enjoys the Russian gambling game called "Wint," and invariably plays for high stakes. Then the Czarina regales

the company with music, and sometimes the Czar and Czarina play duets on the piano together. On retiring, the Czarina often reads aloud to the Czar, sometimes from the *Times*, or the latest English novel or review. The Czar makes a practice of retiring to rest by 11 o'clock. The writer describes how the action of the Czar is limited by the action of the bureaucracy. "The Czar is never a leader, like the German Emperor, but he is continually being led by some influential man or group of men." The rescript on disarmament is thus ascribed to the temporary ascendency of M. Bloch. The precautions taken against assassination chill his heart, and explain the gloom expressed in the lines recorded above.

RUSSIAN ICONS AND ICONOLATRY.

CHRISTIANITY in Russia has perhaps been less modified by modern ideas than anywhere else in the world, the Armenian and Coptic churches alone excepted. Russian Christianity, upon the whole, may be said to still "represent the views that prevailed in the Greek Empire soon after the establishment of the state church and the official introduction of the veneration of saints." The Reformation did not reach Russia, and so the iconolatry, or reverence shown to pictures, is still one of the characteristic features of worship in the Russian Orthodox Church. The editor of the *Open Court*, Dr. Paul Carus, has a study of Russian iconolatry in a recent number of his magazine, and in describing the famous folding icon of St. Petersburg, which we reproduce on this page, he says:

> This most famous of Russian icons is credited by many pious believers with miraculous powers. It shows in the center one of the most notable Russian saints, St. Alexander Nevski, who, in his worldly capacity, was a sovereign that reigned at Novgorod. He waged a



St. Alexis, Kuropatkin's patron saint. | St. Alexander Nevski. | St. Nicholas, the thaumaturgist.

THE FOLDING ICON OF THE CITY OF ST. PETERSBURG, INTRUSTED TO GENERAL KUROPATKIN ON HIS DEPARTURE FOR MANCHURIA.

victorious war with Sweden and gained a decisive victory on the banks of the river Neva in 1240, hence the people called him the hero of Neva, or, in Russian, *Nevski*, under which name he became endeared to Russian patriots, and may be considered as the most popular saint in the Czar's domain. On the left-hand wing of the St. Petersburg folding icon we see St. Alexis, who happens to be the special patron saint of Kuropatkin, whose Christian name is Alexis. On the right-hand wing we see another famous Russian saint, who holds the first place after St. Alexander Nevski in the hearts of good Russian Christians, St. Nicholas the Miracle-Worker, or, as he is more commonly called in Greek, "the thaumaturgist." Above the centerpiece appear the three busts of the Holy Family,—Christ, the Virgin Mary, and St. Joseph. A Russian cross surmounts the whole, and incidently we call attention to the fact that the Russian cross possesses a slanting beam, which represents the seating plug on which crucified persons used to be placed, a feature which, for æsthetical reasons, has been omitted in the Western Church or is supplanted by a footrest.

Speaking of the wide, almost universal, employment of icons in Russian worship, Dr. Carus says :

Icons are very extensively used in Russian worship, so much so that every Russian regiment has its patron saint, whose icon is kept in the church of the garrison, which in war-time may be a tent, after the fashion of the Jewish Tabernacle, and is in charge of a clergyman, a deacon, and other functionaries, who attend to the usual religious duties. The day of the regiment's saint is celebrated by the regiment, and clergymen carrying a crucifix are sometimes present in battle to encourage the wavering and to comfort the wounded and dying. All people who have a desire to be orthodox, especially the people of the peasantry, carry on a little chain or string around their necks, underneath their clothes, a small cross or some sacred image given them on the day of baptism. The icon of a saint is tacitly assumed to assure the presence of the saint himself, and so, since the saint is believed to be a miracle-worker, most of the icons are credited with miraculous powers. The logic of the argument is primitive, but on its own premises quite consistent, and the truth is that an unshaken faith in miracles sometimes, under certain circumstances, rendered possible the most extraordinary events. Much can be said for as well as against icons. Protestantism and, more so, Puritanism, reject them as pagan, while both the Greek and Roman Catholic churches have sanctioned their use.

KUROPATKIN FROM A SWEDISH POINT OF VIEW.

IN commenting on the reported differences between General Kuropatkin and Admiral Alexieff, the Swedish popular illustrated magazine *Varia* (Stockholm) declares that it will be very difficult for the Russian commander-in-chief to retrieve the losses his armies and generals have already suffered in their defensive campaign.

Napoleon once wrote to the Directory in Paris, when they wanted to impose upon him an associate commander in Italy, "A bad commander-in-chief is better than two equally good ones." Admitting this statement to be true, what shall we think of two bad or, at least, mediocre, coördinate commanders, since it has been fully evident that neither Alexieff nor Kuropatkin has any military talent. For Kuropatkin, it is indeed hard luck that, in the press, he has been described as a matchless chief and organizer. As a former minister of war, he should have known the condition of the Russian troops in Asia, and whether the Russian army organization, whose principal creator he is, would really stand the test of war. He seems not to have had the slightest knowledge of either, is just as surprised as others at the facts in a conflict which the Russian policy has provoked. Kuropatkin, together with [the late] von Plehve, and the head of the Holy Synod, Pobiedonostseff, is at the head of the present Russian system,and he, consequently, bears the greatest responsibility for the mistakes and corruption which the Russian army organization has demonstrated. Compared with the great barbarity which he has shown in shooting captured Japanese officers as spies, while his troops burn and devastate the territory which they are compelled to leave, all the silly talk about the "yellow peril" becomes more and more futile.



GENERAL KUROPATKIN.

THE LATE MINISTER VON PLEHVE, A TYPICAL BUREAUCRAT.

WHILE not unanimous, judgment on the late Russian minister, Katcheslav Constantinovitch von Plehve, has been that he was the apostle of reactionism, and represented all the backward, unprogressive, and detestable characteristics of the Russian autocracy. His activities had an astonishingly wide range. The special correspondent of the London *Daily Chronicle*, who was recently sent to Russia to report on the internal unrest in the movements of the industrial classes in that country, says of the late minister :

He was only fifty-six years of age, yet,—as public prosecutor, head of the police, secretary of the council of the empire, and minister of the interior successively, —he made "order reign in Warsaw;" dispersed the revolutionists of the late seventies and early eighties among the prisons of European and Asiatic Russia; "Russified" the Baltic provinces; spread terror and ruin among Jews and other heretics; crippled the zemstvos; provoked labor disturbances, in which many lives were lost, in Odessa, Baku, Kiev, and other towns; flouted M. Witte and his allies and entered into the fruit of their labors, such as it was; put the universities under a humiliating military tutelage; almost openly provoked the Jewish massacres in Kishineff and Homel; suppressed the *jacquerie* in the provinces of Poltava and Kharkov; and finally robbed the Armenian Church of property of an estimated value of eleven millions sterling. Throughout this unparalleled career he maintained his influence with the throne and defied all opposition. The fate of Bogloliepoff, Sipyaghin, Bogdanovitch, Bobrikoff, and the vice-governor of Elizabethpol, the attempts on his own life and on Pobiedonostseff, Obolensky, General Trepoff, General Wahl, Baron Korff, Prince Galitzin, and a score of lesser officials, left him unafraid and relentless.

The main hope for his country, concludes this writer, lies in the fact that there is no man, so far as is known, of the same ability, will-power, and single-mindedness left to continue his policy. In a trenchant article in the *Quarterly Review* (London), the character of Minister von Plehve is painted as detestable. He was, says the writer, who does not sign his name, a glorified chief of police.

He was tolerably instructed, possessed an intricate acquaintance with the seamy side of human nature, knew how to touch deftly the right cords of sentiment, prejudice, or passion, and could keep his head in the most alarming crisis. When state dignitaries and officials lost their nerve on the tragic death of Alexander II., M. de Plehve, then public prosecutor, was cool, self-possessed, resourceful. These qualifications were duly noted, and his promotion was rapid; he became successively director of the police department and secretary of the council of the empire, where he helped to ruin the Finnish nation before the destinies of one hundred and fifty million Russians were finally placed in his hands.

Von Plehve could not be classified by nationality, genealogy, church, or party, he continues :

Of obscure parentage, of German blood with a Jewish strain, of uncertain religious denomination, his ethical worth was gauged aright years ago by his colleagues in the ministry of justice, and recently again in the council of ministers. Aware of their hostile judgment, his first acts were calculated to modify it. He set out for the sacred shrine near Moscow, the Troitsko-Serghieffsky monastery, where he devoutly received holy communion at the hands of an Orthodox priest. While he was thus displaying his piety in view of his subordinates, the peasants in Kharkov and Poltava were being cruelly flogged by his orders for showing signs of disaffection. Visiting the provinces in person, M. de Plehve promptly rewarded the governor of Kharkov for flogging the malcontents at once, and punished the governor of Poltava for flogging them only as an afterthought.

It will be remembered that he was the third secretary of the interior to meet death by the assassin's hand, Bogloliepoff and Sipyaghin having died in this office before him. A personal sketch of von Plehve, by Arnold White, who knew him intimately for fifteen years, appears in the *Daily Despatch* (Manchester). Mr. White calls the dead official a modern Torquemada. He was, says this writer, Pobiedonostseff's instrument, and the persecution of the Jews under him surpassed the achievements of the old Spanish inquisitor. Says Mr. White :

I remember on one occasion attempting to procure some amelioration of the hideous cruelty inflicted on the Jews of Moscow by relating both to Pobiedonostseff and to Plehve an incident which had come under my own eyes. The manner in which the two men displayed their true nature is interesting to recall. The Holy Synod, which was responsible for the expulsion of the Jewish inhabitants of a certain district in Moscow, was indifferent to the question of the season. It was the coldest time of the year—the middle of January—in an extraordinarily bitter winter. In one instance a young Jewish mother, with the baby still at her breast, was turned out into the bitter cold, and the milk on the mother's breast froze to an icicle. When I told Pobiedonostseff of this fact, and asked him how he could justify such incidents, he treated the matter as one that did not concern him. He was responsible for the policy; with the manner in which the policy was carried out he had nothing to do. When I told Plehve of the incident his concern was genuine, and I was given to understand that orders were issued that the "game," which is the slang term in Russia for Jewish refugees, were not to be expelled at night during the cold season.

A number of public men in England, including Mr. W. T. Stead, editor of the *Review of Reviews*, regard Minister von Plehve as having been, with all his faults, an honest man, brave and determined, though mistaken. Mr. Stead does not believe that the assassination indicates

the nearness of a revolution in Russia. Assassinations, he says, in an interview with the *Daily News* (London), do not mean revolutions.

They mean that people are too weak to revolt. When you have a party at your back, you don't assassinate. As for the killing of Bobrikoff and Plehve, I put them both down to irresponsible despair. A man needs two meals a day, and when he doesn't get them he begins to think about cutting somebody's throat. I'm afraid there are a good many people in Russia who don't get two meals a day.

In a study of von Plehve, in the *Morning Leader* (London), Mr. Stead says further about revolution in Russia :

Russians are inured to assassination. The old aphorism about the despotism tempered by assassination still holds true. At the same time, it is absurd, in view of the fact that three American Presidents have been assassinated in our time, to regard the assassination of M. Plehve as proof positive of his oppression. When the mob of Stamboul gets impatient it sets fire to a few houses ; when the Russian's patience gives out he kills a minister, a governor, and twenty years ago he killed an emperor. But twenty assassinations do not make a revolution ; and if all the heads of the Russian government rolled in the dust it would not stop the war. M. Plehve had nothing to do with the war ; but even if he had been its author, his taking off would not seem to any Russian any argument in favor of peace. It simply would not occur to them that the death of a minister, no matter how highly placed, could possibly make any difference in the duty of the nation to continue fighting until they have defeated their enemies. For although the Russians have the worst of it just now, the nation and its government no more dream of ultimate defeat than we dreamed of being beaten by the Boers.

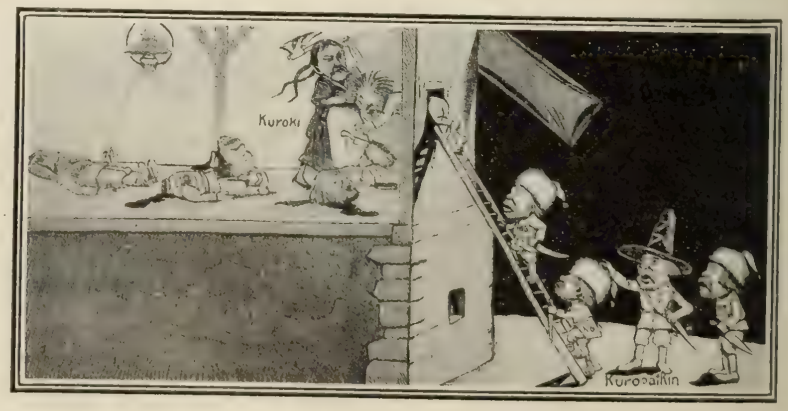
Von Plehve "talked smoothly" about the beneficent measures he was about to introduce, continues Mr. Stead, in the article last quoted from :

He was going to found Jewish colonies, for instance, in Siberia and Manchuria, and he issued a decree legalizing the previously illegal settlements of Jews outside the allotted area. He talked much about decentralization. But in practice he resented any attempt on the part of the zemstvos to discuss problems of administration. His intentions may have been the best in the world, but the result in practice was, to say the least, unfortunate. The situation, it must be admitted, was serious. In a report which M. Plehve presented to the Czar in 1902 he demanded the suspension of the collection of agricultural statistics in a large area of the empire, because the statisticians employed by the zemstvos used their position for inciting the peasants to agrarian outbreaks, like those which occurred in the governments of Kharkov and Poltava. He was profoundly impressed by the dangers which threatened social order. He triumphed over Witte, but the evils with which he had to cope were too deeply seated to be dealt with by the rough-and-ready measures of rigorous repression which usually commend themselves to men in authority as the sole panacea for discontent.

RUSSIAN WEAKNESS—BY RUSSIANS.

AN open letter, signed by a prominent Russian staff officer at the front, and addressed to a St. Petersburg journalist who has been distinguishing himself by his Chauvinistic articles, appears in the *Osvobozhdenie*, the organ of the Liberal Opposition, published in Stuttgart. Speaking of the false reports of Russian victories circulated by the newspapers, the officer says :

If our official sources of information are occasionally compelled, for political reasons, to observe silence, we can all understand the reason. We can all understand why silence was maintained as to the loss of nearly eight thousand men at Wafang (Telissu), and also as to the loss by one regiment of its colors, that sacred object of military honor. We can all understand why nothing was said as to our hasty retreat before an enemy only equal in numbers. But what we cannot understand is the effort made by journalists to keep the public in an optimistic frame of mind, to distort facts as much as possible, and to write of that of which they know nothing. If you will read attentively the official report, you will see that, on June 14, the enemy had only two incomplete divisions, while



RUSSIAN RETROGRESSION. EACH COMMANDER SEEMS IGNORANT OF THE FATE THAT HAS BEFALLEN HIS PREDECESSORS.—(Based on the story of the Wily Miller.)

From *Kladderadatsch* (Berlin).

we had two and a half. Moreover, with us a regiment consists of four battalions, save in the East Siberian units, which have three. We had also two brigades of artillery,—that is, ninety-six guns,—besides a Cossack horse battery with nine guns (*sic*), the Primorsky Dragoons and two regiments of Cossacks. Our force, as you see, was not a small one. To the assistance of the Japanese came a division—the staff report says a brigade—of infantry, with two or three batteries, while three regiments were sent to us by rail. But you talk of this as our heroic battle with an antagonist three times our strength! We have always known how to die (with some exceptions), but this does not mean that an enemy so rare, from a military point of view, as the Japanese is not to be feared or deserves the contempt which our custom is to shower upon this civilized nation. I have a right to speak, for I have spent a considerable time in Japan, and I tell you frankly that I often blushed for my country when I compared many things there and here.

Russia, continues the letter, has never met an enemy so dangerous as Japan, whether "as regards persistence, readiness for war, or moral strength."

Japan is a dangerous enemy for this reason: our soldier, unfortunately, despite valor and resignation, is inferior to the Japanese soldier in discipline, and—what is still more important—fights with indifference, under compulsion. For the Japanese, this is a war for an idea, which penetrates all, without exception, from the minister to the husbandman. Here you have the reason for such incidents as occurred at Chong-chu—you are probably unaware of this—where the Cossacks refused to charge, and as a result we lost three officers.

The Russian officers, it continues, are, as a whole, undoubtedly inferior to the Japanese in the matter of professional training.

The majority, it is needless to say, go under fire, not for the sake of an idea (the only idea that could have any force with us would be self-interest), but for the sake of tradition or for distinction. But they do not consciously die for their country's sake, for its good, because it is evident, upon anything like an attentive consideration of the matter, that we are in the wrong. If you only knew what we did during the Chinese campaign! One's heart bleeds. It is not without reason that the Chinese stand openly on the side of the Japanese, their ancient enemies.

"Russia considers herself a great nation," the officer concludes. "Every great nation, in the person of its representatives, the organs of the press, should comport itself with dignity, should feel respect for a worthy foe, should not conceal its own mistakes, and should not indulge in barefaced self-laudation."

Conditions in the Navy.

In naval circles there is the same realization of weakness and demoralization, if we can believe the writer of a letter, from a Russian naval officer, which appeared recently in the *Novoye Vremya* (St. Petersburg). A "strange illusion" seems to possess the minds of the sailors in the Baltic, according to this writer.



THE GIANT, BEFORE WHOM ALL MONARCHS BENT IN AWE, HAS ALREADY LOST IN THIS SUMMER OF 1904 HIS TERRIFYING ASPECT.
From *Simplicissimus* (Berlin).

The instruction given by the Russian marine school is altogether insufficient. The technical problems of the navy go beyond the course of instruction. The study of sails, masts, rigging, etc., done by beginners on old warships, dating from the sixties of the last century, has now become obsolete, as the modern warship is constructed in an entirely different fashion. We must reconcile ourselves to the idea that nautical science took a new turn with the development of engineering, and should instruct our sailors accordingly Elementary studies too, such as grammar, arithmetic, the catechism, etc., must be abolished during the term of naval service. All this must be taught previously, and the four and, with the academic term, six years of service should be devoted entirely to the exceedingly difficult study of nautical science.

One of the chief defects in the Russian navy, says this writer, is due to the fact that only the sons of sailors and of the nobility are received by the marine school.

At Makaroff's death, it came out that he was the son of a common boatswain. In olden times such a thing was not a rare exception; but now the marine school is an institution imbued with a strong class spirit. Men of experience do not see any advantage in this. Talent for any vocation is not always handed down

from father to son. The son of a sailor may frequently make a better farmer or scholar than an officer in the navy, and, on the other hand, the son of a boatswain or a trader, born with a longing for the sea, is compelled to become a clerk. It will be said that the government cannot provide for talent as a profession does; and therefore it must leave the service in the army and the navy to those families to which the military or naval life offers an attraction, not only on its own account, but also for the sake of the honor connected with it. In answer to this, let me remark, that the honor is not attractive to only one particular class of people, but to all. And, as for the men connected with the navy, they are not all poorly provided for. Rear-admirals, in times of peace, receive over 22,000 rubles a year; a commander receives about 1,000 rubles a month; a first lieutenant, about 475 a month; and the midshipman, often a young fellow of nineteen or twenty, 250 rubles. The maintenance of one big armored ship thus amounting to 300,000 rubles a year; and of the whole fleet, 113,000,000.

The present war, in the opinion of this writer, should prove of great benefit to the Russian navy. The "left arm of the empire" has long existed in a semi-paralyzed state, and it is now decidedly imperative to raise it again to its proper high rank. Russia will hardly ever possess such formidable navies as those of the great sea powers. Yet the growing prominence of such new naval powers as the United States and Japan, compel her to increase and strengthen her fleet.

INDUSTRIAL COMBINATIONS IN RUSSIA.

THE industrial conditions of the Russian Empire at present offer an excellent field for the formation of syndicates. Industry in the empire is protected by a high tariff, which shuts out foreign competition almost entirely, and brings about, at the same time, very sharp competition within the country, this leading, in general, to overproduction and industrial crises. The whole subject of Russian industrial syndicates is treated, in an article by A. Rafalovitch, in a recent number of the *Narodnoye Khozaistvo* (St. Petersburg). Says this writer:

The larger industries of Russia are concentrated in the hands of a few, and are confined to certain regions. It is no wonder, therefore, that there is an unmistakable tendency on the part of Russian manufacturers to form syndicates for the purpose of regulating production and of establishing uniform prices for all the members of the combination.

Russian syndicates have increased rapidly of recent years, owing to a number of causes, principally industrial crises and the higher rates of interest in the world's money markets.

The number of syndicates is greatest in the steel and iron industry. For example, the capacity for the production of rails and girders in 1903 was 60,000,000 poods (the pood weighs 40 Russian, or 36 English, pounds), while the consumption in that year was only 27,500,000 poods. The capacity for the production of heavy sheet iron was 23,000,000 poods, while the consumption did not exceed 13,000,000 poods.

The most prominent of the syndicates thus recently formed is the first stock company for marketing the products of the Russian metallurgical plants, with a capitalization of 900,000,000 rubles ($450,000,000). Then there is the Kharkov Machine Shops Company. There is a syndicate for marketing cast-iron pipes and the construction of waterworks and sewers, with headquarters at St. Petersburg, but with the central management at Berlin. Several American firms are connected with the last named.

At the end of 1903, a syndicate of nail manufacturers was established in Warsaw. Besides these, there is also a combine in the coal-mining industry and in the spinning industry. Other syndicates have been established in the manufacture of hemp products, cement, mirrors, china, paper, matches, starch, and in the production of iron pyrites. To these should be added the Anglo-Russian combine for the manufacture of cotton thread, organized as J. & P. Coates, Limited, and operating in Russia under the firm of "Nevskaya Manufactura;" and the syndicate of the St. Petersburg electrical companies in a combine with the German electrical syndicates.

"LABOR TRUSTS" FORBIDDEN.

The different combines number about thirty in all, and include several large syndicates that scarcely differ in their essential characteristics from the corresponding organizations of western Europe. As to legal restrictions on these combinations, this writer says:

Russian legislation does not recognize the binding effect of such agreements, and members of the syndicates who have failed to carry out their obligations to the pool cannot be punished for it by the courts. The lack of proper legislation in this respect may retard the further development of syndicates in Russia. Apropos of the legal status of the syndicates in Russia, it should be pointed out here that the law provides punishments for such promoters who by agreement may cause injury to the government or to consumers, while there is no provision in the law concerning agreements among promoters as to the engaging of laborers. The latter are, however, subject to severe punishment, not only for forming any combine whose purpose may be the calling of strikes, but for mere agreement in applying for higher wages or modifications in the contracts with their employers.

WHAT JAPAN SHOULD DO FOR KOREA.

ALL the powers of the world are at present drifting toward imperialism. It is a great tide that no power is able to stem. When Japan declared war against China in 1894, she spared no pains to make the world believe that she was forced to fight simply because her chivalrous sentiments and her sense of justice commanded her to take arms to emancipate Korea from the oppressive rule of the Chinese Government. But such an apology is not justifiable. The Japan-China war of 1894–95 was at bottom nothing but the disclosure of imperialistic inclination on the part of the two nations. The imperialism of Japan collided with the imperialism of China in the peninsula of Korea, where the two belligerents were bent upon protecting their economic as well as their political interest. The present conflict between Russia and Japan is another manifestation of imperialism. It is not a question of justice or injustice that caused the pending war.

Such is the opinion of the Hon. K. Shigeoka, a member of the House of Representatives of Japan, as he gives it in the earlier paragraphs of his article, "What Japan Should Do for Korea," which appears in the *Seiyu*, organ of the Seiyu-kwai, and which, until a few months ago, was under the leadership of the Marquis Ito.



A JAPANESE PICTURE OF RAILROAD-BUILDING IN KOREA.

JAPAN'S ECONOMIC INTEREST IN KOREA.

To what extent has the economic interest of Japan been promoted in Korea after the war with China? asks the author. The protection and the promotion of her industrial and commercial interests in Korea was the real motive which moved Japan to fight against China. But, following the war, Mr. Shigeoka believes Japan's gain in political and economical influence in the Korean peninsula has been simply nominal. "I have reason to believe," he says, "that our government, even while Japan was at war with China, formed no definite opinion as to what policy it should take in dealing with Korea." Hon. Otori, Japanese minister to Korea at the time of the war, frequently inquired of the government at Tokio what course he should pursue with regard to the status of Korea during and after the war. He strongly urged the foreign minister of Japan to form a definite policy with which to determine the destiny of Korea. Some were of the opinion that Korea should be made a protectorate of Japan. But the opinions of the cabinet members did not agree, and Japan's policy toward Korea still remains undetermined. That the government has no determined policy with which to deal with Korea can be inferred from the fact that Japan's proposal to Russia in reference to the status of the peninsular kingdom underwent considerable alterations from time to time until the rupture of diplomatic relations between the two nations now at war.

SHOULD KOREA BE MADE A PROTECTORATE OF JAPAN?

Japan placed herself in an extremely delicate position when she declared to the world that she stands for the independence and integrity of Korea, which she means to defend even at the point of the bayonet, because she was fully conscious that the Korean people do not possess the quality and character for an independent nation. Yet she was obliged to make such an illogical declaration in order to justify her cause in the eyes of the leading powers. The only course open to Japan at present and afterward, according to Mr. Shigeoka, is to preserve the appearance and all the formalities of an independent state, reserving at the same time the reality of sovereign power in the hands of the Japanese government. "Japan cannot afford to leave the Korean government alone," says the writer, "because she has assumed, by virtue of

a Japanese-Korean covenant, the grave responsibility of maintaining peace and order in the peninsular monarchy and of protecting the safety of the Korean court and Emperor. In order to conform to this agreement, it is of the greatest necessity to station a certain number of Japanese soldiers in certain places of the kingdom, even when peaceful conditions are apparently prevailing."

THE INTERNAL REFORMATION OF KOREA.

Strange though it may sound to say that Korea has no government at present, yet such is really the case in that country, this writer declares.

The King is the most arbitrary of monarchs. The people are the most slavish and degraded. The Privy Council, or the minister, though pompous and magnificent in name, enjoy no real authority. Ministers of state are no more powerful than the pages of the King. . . . The whole country of Korea is divided into districts called counties, each of which is governed by a head known as county-master. Now, the county-master is an official of the most atrocious sort imaginable. The position of county-master has long been made an object of sale, as a means of raising an income for the central treasury, which has been in a most deplorable condition. The county-officer, who buys his position for no small price, is naturally eager to exact bribery in every imaginable form and to impose the highest possible taxes upon the people. By far the greatest portion of revenue thus raised goes into his own pocket, and the central government is always in a state of bankruptcy. It is, therefore, of the greatest necessity to substitute such arbitrary native officials for Japanese officials who possess thorough knowledge and experience in local administration.

THE OPEN DOOR THE POLICY OF JAPAN.

Mr. Shigeoka deems it necessary to secure for the Japanese people the right of land ownership in Korea. The Korean soil is of the richest. To cultivate it with the skill and the experience of the Japanese farmer is of the utmost importance. Among other important rights that Japan should secure in order to promote her economic interest in Korea is that of fishing along and off the shores of the peninsula, and various rights pertaining to such industries as mining and forestry. However active Japan should be in exploiting and developing the natural resources of Korea, Mr. Shigeoka insists most emphatically that the open door should be the policy of Japan in dealing with that kingdom. Whatever economic convenience and facility Japanese protection may develop in Korea should be enjoyed equally by other countries as well as by Japan.

A JAPANESE ON THE YELLOW PERIL.

IN significant confirmation of what Mr. Chang Yow Tong has to say in this number of the REVIEW on the "yellow peril" from a Chinese standpoint, is the opinion of a Japanese, Masuda Yasu, in the *Far East*, the Japanese magazine, published (in English) in New York. The whole "bogy," of a yellow peril, says this writer, is the creation of Russian diplomacy for purposes of its own. The organization of China's immense resources by Japan for the conquest of the world, he declares, is an absolute impossibility from any point of view. In the first place :

Western believers in this latest phase of the yellow peril do Nippon too much honor on the one hand, and credit her with too little common sense on the other. If the Western world is not willing to credit Nippon with straightness of purpose, it would seem that her history entitles her at least to the acknowledgment from other nations that she has sense enough to know what is safe and comfortable for herself, and also for recognizing the impossible when she sees it. Whatever the crookedness and inscrutability of our national character, it must be admitted that we have proved that we have the saving grace of knowing when to walk a chalk-line. Even if Nippon should, by any chance, produce the needed Napoleon or Peter the Great, who would mold the raw material to be found in China into the foremost military and naval power of the world, the question would naturally present itself to a Nipponese : What would Europe be doing all that time? An Asiatic Peter the Great, given even the towering genius of the "never-to-be-forgotten father" of Russia, would also need the initial weapon of that great sovereign,—namely, the unit of fighting force strong enough to overawe and subdue the remainder of the nation, and so make it possible to weld together a great army from most inharmonious materials,—and, incidentally, to cope successfully at the same time with the combined power of the entire body of European nations, in which body Nippon might very probably request the honor of being included at such a crisis. Any Asiatic who knows the conditions existing in the far East knows that the formation of such a unit is impossible, and also knows that any dream of centralizing all Asia under the leadership of Nippon would have its rise in the wildest imaginings of ignorance or the still more dangerous half-knowledge which sees only one side of the medal. While the racial characteristics remain as they are, it is an absolute impossibility from any point of view, political, ethical, military, or commercial.

CHINA'S WEAKNESS AND CORRUPTION.

China's vast possibilities are not so potential as Russia fears. The ancient empire is rotten to the core, and her possibilities are made of no

value because of the illimitable corruption in her official circles, and because of the traditional antagonism, historical, racial, and religious, that exists between different provinces, and especially between the Chinese themselves and the ruling Manchu dynasty.

The great Tai-Ping rebellion was a gallant but unsuccessful effort of Chinese patriots to overthrow the present government and make possible once more a Chinese nation, but it went out in blood and smoke, quenched by the same inexorable conditions that would confront the reformers of to-day or to-morrow, be they of China or of Nippon.

NO COMMON LANGUAGE; NO PATRIOTISM.

Further, the marked racial differences and the resulting antagonism between the various sections of the Chinese Empire are rendered practically insurmountable by the total lack of a common language.

The dialects vary so widely in their essential elements that they are really different languages, and the tongue of one province is as incomprehensible to a man of another province as the language of Nippon would be to both. Any prophet or leader who wished to unite China would have to command several hundred dialects in order to make his arguments understood, unless, of course, he spoke in the universal language of shot and shell. Another bar to anything like freedom of intercourse is the lack of the unifying influences of transportation facilities. The whole area of China would have to be covered with a network of rails and telegraph wires before her people would ever come into common knowledge of one another, and the whole dead-weight of conservative China is thrown against the introduction of any such Western innovations.

Naturally, all these things work together to produce the condition that is "like a gangrene at the heart of the empire, the absolute lack of any common national ideal, without which self-sacrifice in any large sense is impossible, and patriotism, except in a local and restricted sense, is but an empty word."

THE MONROE DOCTRINE AND WORLD PEACE.

VICE-ADMIRAL VALOIS, discussing in the *Deutsche Revue* (Stuttgart) the Monroe Doctrine as interpreted by the United States in the past, has some apprehensions that it may become a disturbing factor in the peace of the world if we continue to interpret it in our favor.

We, as well as the other nations, desire to live in peace and friendship with North America, and rejoice unenviously in its progress, which may serve as an example to us, knowing that in many respects we have served and still may serve as a pattern to the new world. But, in political and national affairs, full equality must be maintained, if our relations are not to be disturbed. The Monroe Doctrine has neither legal nor political validity. Yet it undertakes to confine the natural rights of other peoples to the protection of their interests by determining the limits beyond which they may not go. In this clause lies a great danger to peace, for other nations will not always submit to such dictation, nor be willing to explain and justify their actions, asking, in a way, permission of the United States.

INFLUENCE OF THE AMERICAN PRESS.

Since the United States has declared that purely American questions shall not be brought before the Hague tribunal, "the prospect of an era of peace in the new century has been materially diminished," continues Admiral Valois.

Presidents have carried the nation away with them (Cleveland in the Venezuela affair in 1895–96), or again have been driven by the nation to decisive steps (McKinley to the war with Spain). The press is the chief factor in forming public opinion in the United States. And, according to its molding of this opinion to interpret the Monroe Doctrine so as to be either tolerable or intolerable to the other nations, war or peace will be the result.



KEEPING AN EYE ON THE GERMAN.

(A cartoon which expressed American sentiment in the Venezuelan crisis of 1902.)

WHAT IT COSTS TO ELECT A PRESIDENT.

NO two estimates of the cost of a Presidential election in this country have ever been known to agree. The one thing that is conceded on all sides is that the expenses of our Presidential campaigns have enormously increased during the past quarter of a century. Some of the leaders in each of the great parties are counseling a reduction of these expenditures and a return to the simpler campaign methods of former times. Leaving out of account altogether the matter of actual corruption of the voters, the regular and legitimate expenses,—those which are now regarded by all campaign managers as "necessary,"—have increased so enormously that the handling of these vast sums now constitutes a serious responsibility.



THE RIVAL MILKMAIDS.—From the *Post* (Cincinnati).

Nobody questions the personal integrity of the men in both parties who handle these great funds every four years, but the time has gone by when a business of this magnitude could be conducted under a system which admits of no auditing and never reveals the destination of the moneys that it handles.

THE CAMPAIGN FUNDS OF 1896.

In the September number of *Success*, Mr. Walter Wellman makes known some interesting facts that have come under his personal observation during national campaigns of past years. It has always been believed, for example, that, in the campaign of 1896, the largest campaign fund ever raised in this country passed through the hands of Chairman Hanna, of the Republican committee. It was stated in Congress, last spring, by Mr. Bourke Cockran, that this fund amounted to as much as fifteen millions of dollars. Mr. Wellman declares, however, on what he states is good authority, that Mr. Hanna that year had a little less than six millions to spend. Yet there is no question that twice as much could have been raised if it had been necessary to bring about the defeat of Mr. Bryan. Mr. Wellman states that the largest subscription that year came from an insurance company, and amounted to $200,000. One railroad company, he says, gave $100,000. Eight railroad companies subscribed one-fourth as much each, and probably a hundred or more banks and trust companies sent their checks for from ten to twenty thousand dollars apiece. Of this vast sum, it is claimed by Mr. Wellman that little, if any, was used by the Republicans in the actual purchase of votes. But a great many Republicans were hired to work for McKinley, and along with these Republicans were also employed Democrats, independents, and "floaters."

In that campaign of 1896, it is well understood that the Democrats had a much smaller sum than that of their opponents. Mr. Wellman places the figure at one million and a half, all told, or about one-fourth the sum expended by the Republicans. As a result, the expenditures of the Democrats in that silver campaign year were insignificant as compared with the expenditures of the Republicans. It is stated that Mr. Hanna paid more than one million dollars into the treasury of the Palmer and Buckner Gold Democrats, besides supporting many minor organizations and clubs. In that year the Republicans ran up a printing bill of nearly a million dollars, and a postage bill of between three and four hundred thousand dollars. While the Republicans were getting subscriptions without stint from the great corporations and financial institutions of the country, the Democrats received very few large contributions, excepting from the silver-mine owners of the West. But Chairman Jones appealed for popular subscriptions, no matter how small, and it was the small contributions that really saved his committee from bankruptcy just at a critical point in the campaign.

BOTH PARTIES DEPENDENT ON THE CORPORATIONS.

It is stated that fully half of the Republican campaign fund of 1896 was contributed by New York City alone, while two-thirds of the entire fund came from the four States of New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, and Illinois. Partly because of the extraordinary issues presented at that time, and partly because of his own personality,

Chairman Hanna became the greatest raiser of campaign funds that the country had ever known. No such fund will be raised in the present campaign by either party, nor is there need of such extraordinary expenditures. But so far as reliance on the moneyed interests and the corporations is concerned, there is little to choose between the two parties. The managers on both sides are going to the tariff-protected industries, and one party is as eager as the other to "stand in with" the protected interests. Mr. Wellman predicts that the Democrats this year will have a larger campaign fund than the Republicans. The methods of Mr. Bryan have been discarded for those of Samuel J. Tilden. As Mr. Wellman puts it, "it is the Hudson River school of politics that now controls the Democracy rather than the school of the River Platte. This means that the Democratic managers of this year intend to engage the enemy with their own weapons; to fight fire with fire; to have thorough organization and rigid discipline; to go in for 'practical politics' instead of trusting to sentiment, high-sounding rhetoric, and eloquent speeches." This seems to be the commonly accepted view of the situation.

AUGUST BELMONT, FINANCIER AND POLITICIAN.

ONE of the prominent figures in this year's Presidential campaign is a man who long ago achieved distinction in lines of effort that had little relation to practical politics. August Belmont has been known successively as the heir to his father's business interests; as the champion polo-player of the United States; as a leader in American sports and in "society;" as one of the most aggressive of Wall Street's financiers; as the builder of the New York subway, and, finally, as one of the quartet of politicians to whom is accredited the nomination of Judge Parker for the Presidency.



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MR. AUGUST BELMONT.

In a two-page sketch of this interesting personality, contributed to the September number of *Leslie's Monthly*, Mr. Frederick T. Birchall reminds us that the house of Belmont is by no means new in our national politics. It is recalled that August Belmont, Sr., founder of the famous banking-house which, for many years, has represented the Rothschild interests in this country, was a friend of Samuel J. Tilden, and chairman of the National Democratic Committee, as well as minister to The Hague. His second son, and namesake, aspires to the character of builder and organizer rather than to that of financial manipulator. It was to him that Mr. John B. McDonald, having secured the contract to build New York's underground railroad, went for capital when one financier after another had refused his request. Within forty-eight hours after hearing Mr. McDonald's plans, Mr. Belmont had signed the papers pledging his firm to an undertaking involving $35,000,000, from which every one believes that there will be realized a profit of at least $1,000,000 a year. Mr. Belmont is now a competitor for the second subway system, plans for which are not yet completed, and in the meantime he has secured control of the elevated railroad system, and has begun the building of the subway extension to Brooklyn. Thus, the transportation facilities of New York City are now practically in Mr. Belmont's hands.

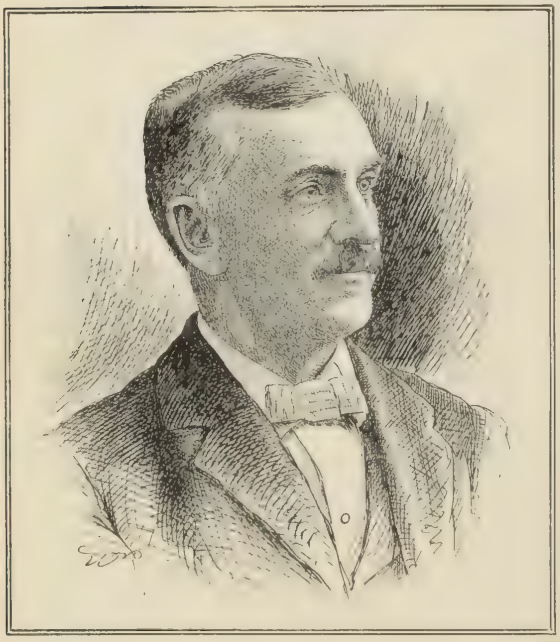
Mr. Belmont is described in this article as "a slight, nervous, dark-eyed man in a hurry."

If you see him in a cab—he is a good customer of the cabman—the cab is invariably making good time. If he is afoot, he is moving quickly and decisively, his mind intent only on the goal at that moment in view. Curious eyes follow him, and the man who knows the people of the Street says, with a sidewise jerk of the head to his companion not so well up in financial personalities, "That's Belmont!" There are other Belmonts, but to Wall Street there is only one, and whether it loves him or loves him not, the Street watches him with interest, knowing that he is a man to be reckoned with.

The group of men commonly to be found waiting for Mr. Belmont in his outer office includes sportsmen, brokers, politicians, newspaper men, civil engineers, and contractors,—all sorts of men from many walks of life. This is an indication of Mr. Belmont's varied interests.

A most elusive man they find him, now at Esopus consulting with his friend Judge Parker, now on a tour of inspection of his new subway, and again in the stewards' stand at the races; but wherever he may be, busy, the very embodiment of nervous energy, knowing what he wants and making other men know it, and bending them to his will. A democratic citizen, courteous to all men, but working hard himself, and appreciating only work and achievements in his colleagues and subordinates.

"GOLDEN RULE" JONES, OF TOLEDO.



THE LATE MAYOR, SAMUEL M. JONES, OF TOLEDO.

THE late Mayor Jones, of Toledo, Ohio, was a unique figure in American political life. His victories in politics were won despite the bitter opposition of the politicians. Last year, when he was elected mayor for the fourth time, it was after all the party organizations in Toledo, including the Socialists, had made nominations for the office, and after a campaign during which the newspapers of the city had, by formal agreement, refrained from mentioning his name or reporting his meetings. Although every effort was made to array against him all the wealth and social influence of the city, including even the churches, Mayor Jones received in this last election a plurality of about three thousand votes. The secret of such a popularity as this record indicates is well worth knowing, and even the politicians may derive benefit from a study of the man's career, as narrated in the September number of the *World's Work* by Brand Whitlock.

From the time that Mayor Jones posted in his Toledo factory, as the rules for the shop, these words: "Therefore, whatsoever things that ye would that men should do to you, do ye even so to them," this altruistic employer was more or less of an enigma to the people of Toledo. Nominated as a sort of political accident by a Republican city convention for the office of mayor, he was dubbed "Golden Rule" Jones. He was supported by the politicians because he was popular among the workingmen, and was elected by a small plurality. Nobody believed that he would take the "golden rule" into politics with him, but that was precisely what he did, and by this and other eccentricities in office he offended the politicians, who, by trickery, defeated him for renomination. Then he ran as an independent, and received more than twice as many votes as the Republican and Democratic nominees combined, although his opponents had resorted to every form of personal abuse and vilification in order to defeat his reëlection. Two years later, he again ran as a non-partisan, and was elected by a large plurality. His fourth campaign resulted as we have already stated.

Considering the fact that, during all his seven years in office, his opponents controlled the city council, and gradually absorbed all the important city offices, with the single exception of the mayoralty, the record of Mayor Jones' achievements in office was indeed remarkable. This is the story as outlined by Mr. Whitlock:

First, he took the clubs away from the policemen, telling them that their new mission was to help and not to hurt. He was largely instrumental in introducing free kindergartens in the public schools; he established public playgrounds for the children; he instituted free concerts in the parks; he secured for the city employees an eight-hour day; and not a contract was let that did not specify a maximum eight-hour day and a minimum wage of $1.50 for common labor. In the winter, he used the park teams to give the school children sleigh-rides; he devised a system of lodging-houses for tramps; public golf-links were laid out in the parks; he organized a policeman's band. And he did many other things. Others helped, of course, but all the achievements were the result of his spirit. Besides, in a series of remarkable messages to the council, he advocated home rule, the merit system, a municipal directory, free night-schools, public baths, the abolition of the contract labor system, municipal ownership of all the public utilities, and reforms in the prison and police court systems. The same spirit was at work in the city's affairs that inspired the coöperative efforts in his factory and his gift of Golden Rule Park, where notable meetings were held every Sunday afternoon.

When the Legislature attempted to take from Mayor Jones the control of the Toledo police by an act that vested the appointment of the police board in the governor, the mayor resisted, and he was finally sustained in his position by the State Supreme Court.

Mayor Jones had his own methods of campaigning. He was a natural orator, and his meetings frequently took on a religious character. One of the characteristics of this remarkable campaigner was his inability to separate his religion from his politics. As Mr. Whitlock puts it, he took the sayings of Jesus literally, just as he took the Declaration of Independence literally. In his campaign speeches he would cite poetry, frequently quoting Tennyson, Burns, Lowell, occasionally Browning, and always Walt Whitman. In his meetings, Jones always offered to divide his time with his opponents. It is related that he even pleaded with his followers to listen to speakers who abused him. He gave the men in his shop an hour, with full pay, to listen to campaign speeches from the candidates who were running against him. All he asked was fair play for friend and foe alike.

THE NEW SECRETARY OF THE NAVY.

THE appointment of Mr. Paul Morton as head of the United States Navy Department has called out much favorable comment from men representing all shades of political opinion. One of the most enthusiastic encomiums of Mr. Morton appears in *Munsey's* for September, from the pen of Alfred Henry Lewis. This writer declares that "if Mr. Roosevelt were called upon to prove the purity of the Presidential motive, he would not have to go beyond this one appointment."

Mr. Morton is a son of the late J. Sterling Morton, Secretary of Agriculture in Mr. Cleveland's second cabinet, and for thirty years has been in practical business as a railroad man. He began with a clerkship in the land department of the Burlington road. When he left railroading to become Secretary of the Navy, he was second vice-president of the great Santa Fé system. He gave up his salary of $25,000 a year to accept an annual stipend of $8,000 as a cabinet officer. Of the elder Morton, Mr. Lewis says his integrity was a kind of genius; "it was militant, decisive, and wore a sword. The younger Morton is the vigorous replica of his father in those virtues of steam, courage, and intelligence, added to an honesty that is neither to be bullied nor cajoled."

Mr. Lewis says that the navy, more than any other of the nine executive departments at Washington, needs a business man at its head. Paradoxical as it may seem, it is nevertheless a fact that a sailor might be a bad selection as head of the department. "The prime demand is for him who knows dollars and cents, and in



SECRETARY MORTON.

parting with them will get their equivalent." In this respect, the Navy Department differs from the War Department. The latter, in its expenditures, deals oftener with men and their employments, devoting to that purpose 75 per cent. of the war money, while in the case of the navy the expenditures are largely made up of big contracts for battleships, cruisers, and naval materials. The Secretary who makes these contracts, and who must see to their carrying out, should be, as Mr. Lewis says, "a man trained in business to a feather-edge."

A NEW FIGURE IN PUBLIC LIFE.

Mr. Lewis exults in the fact that the new Secretary comes to his office "hand-free and debt-less. He did not seek the place, no politician exerted voice or influence in his favor; he assumes his office quit and clear of obligations. There has not been a cabinet appointment so free from the taint of politics since Washington named Jefferson as Secretary of State in 1789." The new Secretary's political record is thus summarized by Mr. Lewis:

Until the campaign of 1896, Mr. Morton, whose political assertions had been limited to the casting of his ballot, was a Democrat. In that year he voted for General Palmer, and four years later for Mr. McKinley. Several months ago, he declared his intention of voting next November for Mr. Roosevelt. On that record of politics the President appointed him, reaping as the harvest thereof much acrid criticism from politicians. The people—that is to say, the privates in the army of party—have found no fault with Mr. Roosevelt; indeed, many of them, to paraphrase an eminent utterance, are beginning to love him for the critics he has made.

THE CRISIS IN TRADE-UNION MORALS.

ONE of the shrewdest and best-informed observers of the labor movement in this country, as is known to all students of American social problems, is Miss Jane Addams, of Hull House, Chicago. The paper by Miss Addams in the *North American Review* for August, entitled "The Present Crisis in Trade-Union Morals," has attracted wide attention, because of the evident fairness of its tone and the novelty of some of its positions.

The paper begins with an admission of the fact that within the past two years there has been brought about a violent reaction against the cause of organized labor. Evidence of this reaction is to be found in the increasing number of employers' associations, some of which are making war on the very existence of the unions; in the exasperation exhibited by many of the manufacturers who were previously neutral; in the oft-repeated assertion that it is impossible to extend business operations in the present state of the labor market; in the recognition of the non-union man as the "modern hero," and in what Miss Addams regards as a confusion in mind on the part of the public which tends to make trade unions directly responsible for many of the difficulties inherent in the factory system itself.

It is to be remembered that the labor movement has just passed through a period of remarkable growth, in which large numbers of weak and crudely developed organizations have been incorporated with the older ones, and have, in many cases, inaugurated strikes and called to their aid the older unions against the better judgment and counsel of experienced leaders.



MISS JANE ADDAMS.

UNION RESPONSIBILITY.

No defense of the unions is attempted in respect to the charges frequently brought against them of irresponsibility in the keeping of contracts. But Miss Addams shows that the average workingman is ignorant of the real nature of

contracts, because, throughout his life, he has had nothing to do with them. He rents his tenement by the week or month and does not sign a lease; he has been hired habitually by the day or week, with no contract to assure his continuance at work; if he offended the foreman, he might be dismissed, with or without good cause, any day in the week or any hour of the day. The old-time workman may have had theoretical freedom of contract, but he has had no actual contract. When the employer says, "I will bargain with my own men one at a time," he practically means that he will make no bargain, that he will merely enter into a relation of good will and good faith. None of the workman's relations in life, although they are often continuous and stable, depend for their continuity and stability upon contracts between himself and other people. His marriage contract is, perhaps, the one exception to this; but it is fortunately, to him, not a contract, but a sacrament.

In regard to charges of corruption against the unions, Miss Addams finds undoubted evidence that many American unions are suffering from the present low standard of morality in our business life and share "the more brutal doctrines of commercialism, which make a man declare his resolve to get there, despite obstacles from without or scruples from within." Admitting that capitalistic organizations frequently employ methods quite as objectionable as those of the labor organizations, Miss Addams regards it as a much more serious concern to the community when a trade union employs such methods than when a business concern does, because it affects a larger proportion of the population, and in that respect is much more nearly analogous to political corruption. As to the relation of political corruption to the corruption of labor unions, Miss Addams contributes several instances from the recent history of certain Chicago wards.

THE RATIONALITY OF THE TRADE AGREEMENT.

In the matter of collective bargaining, American business men, who, in a single generation have seen the administration of property changed largely from individual management to corporate management, still resent the attempt to extend this method of bargaining, this modification of individual ownership, to workingmen. The workmen who insist that they do not get their fair advantage from the invention of machinery, that the partition of the results of labor achieved by both proprietor and workman is not effected in just proportion, who seek to modify and correct the conditions and hours under which they labor, are really advocating a gradual change in the present constitution of property, and are pursuing the conservative method when they advocate those changes by means of collective bargaining and trade contracts. This is true in spite of the fact that these demands are often excessive and, from the business point of view, "impossible;" that they are many times accompanied by irrational use of newly acquired power; that their representatives are often corrupt and self-seeking, and that the entire movement exhibits the disorder which has accompanied both political and ecclesiastical movements whenever they have tried to change the administration of power from the aristocratic to the democratic form.

THE PLANTATION AS A CIVILIZING FACTOR.

DISCERNING students of economic and social conditions in the South have noted the beginnings of a movement to reëstablish plantations in place of the small farms which, since the close of the Civil War, have been devoted to the production of staple crops. Impartial observers seem to agree that, from every point of view, the plantation system offers the prospect of a more efficient employment of negro labor. In the current number of the *Sewanee Review*, Mr. Ulrich B. Phillips discusses the effect of the proposed system upon the mental, moral, and industrial development of the negro.

After reviewing the history of slavery, the growth of the old plantation system before the war, the breaking up of the plantations into small farms after the war, and the system of tenant cropping that has prevailed over the greater part of the South since the era of reconstruction, Mr. Phillips shows that the great necessity of the present social situation in the South is the development of a more sympathetic relationship between the races. In his opinion, no system for this purpose has yet been developed which compares in good results with that of the old patriarchal plantation. The patriarchal feature, he says, is necessary.

The average negro has many of the characteristics of a child, and must be guided and governed, and often guarded against himself, by a sympathetic hand. Non-resident ownership and control of plantations will not do. The absentee system has no redeeming virtue for

the purpose at hand. With hired, voluntary labor instead of forced labor, it is the Virginia plantation system and not that of the West Indies which is needed. The presence of the planter and his wife and children and his neighbors is required for example and precept among the negroes. Factory methods and purely business relations will not serve; the tie of personal sympathy and affection is essential to the successful working of the system. The average negro longs for this personal tie. Respect, affection, and obedience for those who earn and encourage his admiration are second nature with him. The negroes are disposed to do their part for securing the general welfare when the proper opportunity is given them. What they most need is friendly guidance and control for themselves, and peace and prosperity for the South as a whole; economic depression will always work to their discouragement and injury, and sectional and racial irritation must in every case check their progress.

Not only is the concentration of negroes in cities detrimental to their moral and industrial progress, but hardly less detrimental is their isolation from white neighbors in a black belt on the seacoast. In Mr. Phillips' view, their general aloofness upon the small farms insulates them, in large measure, from the best influences for progress in the modern South. In a system of plantations of moderate size, the negro might take his place in the modern world of special and organized industry, and yet, through the patriarchal character of the system, he would be protected from the harsher features of the competitive life of our time.

The present prosperity of the South should soon produce a fund from which capital may be drawn to be invested in land, houses, stock, machinery, and the other supplies necessary to the erection of plantations of this character.

THE UNITED STATES IN THE MEDITERRANEAN.

AFTER discussing the release of Perdicaris and Varley through American interposition, and "the desire of the United States to obtain at Constantinople the same privileges as are accorded to certain European powers," an anonymous writer in the *Nuova Antologia* (Rome) says: "It is certain that the period of American indifference to questions non-American is closed, and that their policy is one of expansion, moral or material, and has already become occupied with the Eastern Question." Allusion is made to the condition of American missionaries in Turkey, and to the Armenian massacres. The writer continues: "It cannot be denied that Europe has never met an adversary so formidable. The black race has shown, at least at our expense, that it can rise, so as to become an active element in international conditions under which it long remained passive. The yellow race at present is surprising and at the same time terrifying the white race, as appears by recent manifestations of Japanese power; but the struggles between Italy and Africa formed only an episode of relatively small importance." He says that even if Japan conquers Russia, it will be a long time before the active competition of the former is felt in the Mediterranean; for Japan will be occupied for some time in battling with the invasive influences of the white race in her own territory.

But . . . the United States . . . has completely succeeded in precluding all European interference in American questions. . . . Whenever any misunderstanding arises between any state in the West and any state of Europe, the government at Washington interposes as arbiter, and whenever there is danger that rights long conceded or original precedents should permit the intrusion of a European power in American affairs, the government at Washington knows how to manage things so that such rights and precedents vanish in thin air, or are set aside by the action of the United States. A case in point is the canal and the creation of the new republic of Panama. Added to this aspiration after an imperialistic policy is a commercial power which in the United States is beyond all the records of history; the former is, perhaps, the direct and inevitable consequence of the latter, and both are accompanied by a proud consciousness of superiority which urges the whole population along the path of great enterprises. . . . What citizen of the United States would be willing to revive the domestic simplicity and general manner of life which obtained in the time of Washington?

Even Roosevelt, who has shown himself a man of great moral superiority, and who labors to hold up to his country and his compatriots a lofty ideal of public and of social life, would certainly not be inclined to surrender the power of which the enormous prosperity of his country is a guarantee in all the world. It is quite possible he might wish that such prosperity should be attributed to the results of personal and commercial honesty, of international equity, but he certainly is not a man who would consider the advantages or disadvantages which might accrue to any European cabinet from the intervention of the United States in any question which interested that nation.

It is almost unnecessary to say that under his Presidency,—it might almost be added, under his personal responsibility,—American imperialism has assumed an aggressive character, not only in South America and the extreme East, but also in Asia Minor, and now in the Mediterranean,—that is to say, in Europe itself.

Are the European governments alive to the enormous importance of this fact, to the gravity of its eventual consequences, capable as these are of changing the face of the world?

THE SIXTH CENTENARY OF PETRARCH.

IN July, France, Italy, and Spain celebrated the six-hundredth anniversary of the birth of the great Italian poet, Petrarch. There were celebrations at Arezzo, where he was born ; in Avignon, where he lived ; in Paris, in Florence, and in almost all of the other Italian cities. The celebration at Avignon was strictly literary in character ; those at Arezzo and Florence, patriotic and national. At Arezzo, the manners and customs of the time were faithfully reproduced, and Italy honored her greatest of lyric poets. He was at the same time a prophet of her unity, he who, the first of her great men, was an Italian in the best sense of the word.

The *Figaro* contains a study of Petrarch as a prophetic patriot, by Pierre de Nolhak. The great poet's words on leaving France, and viewing from the heights of the Alps his native land, are recalled :

I salute thee, sacred ground, blessed by God, kind to good men, and a terror to evil-doers ; thou art the most beautiful land, the most fruitful and exalted ; girdled by thy two seas, guarded by thy famous mountains, the home of heroism and law, temple of the muses, art and nature have made thee master of the world. Weary with life and longing for repose, that I may have thee as the place of my tomb ! From the heights of the Alps, covered with forests, I have the joy of seeing thee again, Oh, my Italy ! Behind me the clouds have fled, the heavens are serene, and only a passing breeze fans my brow. It is the air of Italy which is caressing me. I recognize my fatherland. Oh, great mother, glory of the world, I salute thee !

This, says M. de Nolhak, is a portion of Petrarch's best verse. It is a part of the famous "Italiamia," which bewails the misfortunes of Italy and the divisions of the Italian people, calling them to union, to glory, and to independence. Its note is distinctly modern ; it is really the Marseillaise of Italy.

In stirring times and days of sorrow, while bent beneath the yoke of Austria, the Italian spirits prepared for liberty, recited this poem, or sang it ; and it was the old Petrarch, through his poem written for their ancestors, who inspired and flamed the zeal of the young heroes who brought united Italy.

The Most Modern of Medieval Italians.

The *Deutsche Rundschau* publishes an article on the Italian poet by Heinrich Morf. The writer points out that Dante stands at the close of the Middle Ages and Petrarch on the threshold of the new age. Yet the two lived only a generation apart, Dante having been born in 1265 and Petrarch in 1304. Dante is a medieval anachronism. He stands alone, a party by himself. To Dante, Rome is the City of God, the Holy City. Petrarch is a humanist. He deplores the fact that the modern Christian Rome has not preserved its ancient buildings, and mourns over the destruction of the city. Petrarch traveled much, but his interest in Roman history and Roman civilization never deserted him. Most of his writings are in Latin ; he only used his mother-tongue for his poems and in rivalry with Dante's "Divine Comedy." The two Florentines never met. Petrarch was at school in the South of France and was seventeen years old when Dante died at Ravenna, in 1321. Petrarch seems not to have sympathized with Dante, yet in his love poems on his Laura he betrays the influence of Dante, and the idea of arranging them in a book in a certain biographical form was undoubtedly taken from Dante's "Vita Nuova," while his "Triumphs" were inspired by the "Divine Comedy." The collected "Laura" sonnets and songs number three hundred and sixty-six, and they are divided into two general groups—those addressed to the living Laura and those written after her death. It



THE POET PETRARCH.

is as the author of these poems that Petrarch's name lives to-day. The three great Florentines —Dante, Petrarch, and Boccaccio—represent a century of Italian intellectual life. Of the three, Petrarch was the most progressive, the most modern. It was also he who exercised the greatest influence on the century which followed.

One of the Founders of Modern Italy.

In the *Open Court*, Dr. Paul Carus, the editor, has a timely article on Petrarch. He thus sums up the character and inconsistencies of the poet:

Though Petrarch had taken an active part in the political history of his time, he was a poet and rhetorician, not a hero and a character. His scholarship, the elegance of his verses, and his amiable personality endeared him to both the aristocratic men of his time and the common people of Italy. Medieval in thought and principle, he was modern in sentiment. Though an enthusiastic champion of the cause of liberty, he was an intimate friend of almost all the tyrants of his time, and was instrumental in their retaining their power and usurped privileges. Though indebted to the Colonnas for many personal favors, he became an abettor of the Roman mob who massacred seven members of that noble family of Rome. His very shortcomings seem to have added to the charm of his personality, and made it possible that while he was still a child of the Middle Ages he became one of the founders of modern Italy.

Student, Scholar, Author, Poet.

Petrarch has been characterized by a certain critic, says Alcibiade Vecoli, writing in the *Rassegna Nazionale* (Florence), as the "first modern man."

The description is just, but not complete, for it takes no account of Petrarch as a student, a scholar, a writer, a poet. In order, therefore, to make this characterization complete, we must add that in Petrarch the true type of the Italian man of letters began to be developed. To one who has any knowledge of the historic and literary phases through which Italian life has passed, from the twilight of the Middle Ages, in which the austere and haughty figure of Dante Alighieri passes out of view; when in the sky of humanism stars of learning like Poggio and Filelfo begin to sparkle; up to the time when neo-classicism was declining and poets like Monti were eclipsed in the dawn of romanticism, as the serene and splendid figure of Alessandro Manzoni rose to view—it is very evident what elements good and bad, what faults and what excellencies, due in part to the writers themselves, in part to the times in which they lived, united to form the Italian literature of the day. Such considerations as these make plain what I mean by saying that in Petrarch the true type of the Italian man of letters began to be developed.

In speaking of the coronation of Petrarch at Rome, this writer asks the question, Was the glory and renown of the poet genuine and permanent? He answers it in the affirmative:

We, his posterity, after an interval of seven long centuries, find it our bounden duty as well as our privilege to commemorate, throughout the length and breadth of Italy, the sixth centenary of the poet's birth; to publish new editions of his works, to erect to him a national monument. All this is a clear proof, an eloquent testimony, that his glory is genuine, and not only genuine, but unstained.

WHY ITALIANS DISLIKE D'ANNUNZIO.

NO one is a prophet in his own country, they say, and this saying never fitted any man better than Gabrielle d'Annunzio, whose books and tragedies are known all over the world. "I am quite positive, though, that there is no man in any country who is more despised and hated than d'Annunzio in his own country," says Carlo de Fornaro, writing in the August *Critic*. Many will not even admit his genius, his literary talent; they believe that he is a passing fad, not to be compared with the pagan poet, Carducci, or the idealistic novelist, Fogazzaro. His poetry is too pompous, too erudite, too affected, they say. A very cultured Florentine patrician voiced the feeling of many when he said to me: "My dear friend, only d'Annunzio can understand d'Annunzio's poetry." Outside of a little clique of friends and admirers, there is nobody who has a good word for him, and the choicest, the most expressive, and likewise the most insulting, epithets are used in describing the man in private and public life.

One of the ablest critics in Italy has called him a *parvenu* and a *poseur*: "A *parvenu* in private life and a *poseur* in literature." His extravagantly extensive wardrobe is a proof of this assertion, "very much like the foppery and ostentatious sartorial caricature of Mascagni in the early days of his financial success, with the actor's inborn love for display and love of admiration." Mr. de Fornaro believes, moreover, that Italians are bitter toward d'Annunzio because the rest of the world takes him as the standard of Italian morality, as the world takes Zola for that of France.

Italians are, as a rule, not prudish or Puritanical, but they are not as licentious as the French;



GABRIELLE D'ANNUNZIO.

they are simpler and very democratic. They are charitable, and not at all cruel and vindictive, as foreigners would pretend. The best proof of this assertion is that Italy, excepting Switzerland and a few States in North America, is the only country without a death penalty. The average Italian is charitable toward the criminal, and if he can find an excuse to palliate his sins he will readily do it. It seems, though, that d'Annunzio has been too much even for their indulgence; and one reason for this bitterness toward him is that they believe that, owing to his popularity abroad, foreigners take him as a standard of Italian morality or immorality. This feeling of antagonism is so strong that at the first nights of his plays there is always a great deal of hissing, shouting, and boisterous cat-calls, often resulting in the ringing down of the curtain before the second act is over.

It is a noteworthy fact, says this writer, that d'Annunzio's fame as a novelist is greater in France, Germany, England, and even the United States, than in Italy. The translations of his books in those countries are a source of income never attained in Italy even by the most popular novelist there. Yet he is not a patriot in the true sense of the word.

PROSTRATION OF EDUCATION AND LITERATURE IN SPAIN.

IT is now nearly half a century since the Spanish publicist, Larra, declared that no one read in Spain because no one wrote, and that no one wrote because no one read. Matters do not seem to have changed very much for the better since then; for the Spanish aristocracy, bourgeoisie, and almost all of the Spanish people "live to-day in a state of astounding ignorance." With these words, M. G. Desdevises du Dézert begins one of the periodical reviews of European literature which appear from time to time in the *Revue Universelle* (Paris).

The lack in Spanish-American literature today, this writer thinks, is due primarily to the woeful state of education in Spain. The school system, he declares, is deplorably inadequate. The provincial boards of education are badly managed and ill-provided for—they are always last on the budget—and many a schoolmaster is reduced to the necessity of begging because his salary has not been paid. Some provinces are said to owe more than a million pesetas ($200,000) to their teachers of primary grades. The secondary education is "but a veneer." The provincial colleges, or *institutos*, are insufficiently equipped with books and instruments, and generally diffuse a very superannuated and superficial sort of education. The free institutions are worth even less. In all these schools, "with the exception of a few large colleges conducted by Jesuits, the examinations are mere parades arranged for the gratification of the vanity of parents." The students, therefore, leave the *institutos* with a "hasty, incomplete culture, accustomed to draw on their imagination, to speak without thinking, and to decide questions without understanding," totally unprepared and unfit for the universities, which contain many men of breadth and talent. This is the reason that Spain has so many special student licentiates and doctors, but so few men well grounded and thoroughly educated, "capable of thinking with strength and of writing with simplicity and clearness." The Spaniards themselves have been the first to recognize and deplore this state of things. The famous Dr. Eloy Luis André has said that, in Spain, "books, reviews, and newspapers all show an equal lack of invention, originality, solidity, and depth," while Dr. F. Navarro y Ledesma is even more pessimistic. In the magazine, *La Lectura*, he said recently:

> We have come to the extreme limit of our intellectual, political, social, and literary poverty. There is nothing to equal it anywhere. Our men, great and small, good

and bad, are dying, and there is no one to replace them, no one to continue their work. Spain reminds one of the wardrobe of a clerk on half-pay, who, when his coat is worn out, is compelled to take, to replace it, an old rag that has been moldering for a century in some dark closet.

All this is true, says M. G. Desdevises du Dézert, as applied to the old national school, which lives only in the contemplation of the past, and for whom Catholic and military Spain is the only possible form of the *patriâ*. But "this Spain will no more profit by the lessons of experience than it has hearkened to the counsels of science and reason."

Beside this old stubborn Spain rises a new generation which is deeply grieved to see its fatherland outstripped almost everywhere, and which passionately desires to awake the land out of its somnolence and drag it out of its isolation, even at the cost of revolution, to bring it back to work, to knowledge, and to life.

FRENCH INFLUENCE.

With this end in view, young Spain has turned for its education to other countries, France principally. The influence of France makes itself felt in the works of modern Spanish writers. Victor Hugo and Daudet have been powerful, and Zola has been the legitimate father of Spanish naturalism. Young Spain also holds French philosophy in great esteem. Renan, Taine, and Fouillét count many admirers among the Spaniards. "But all that is most subtle, most delicate, most French, escapes these disciples, who were but yesterday freed from scholastic prisons." Young Spain has also been influenced by the works of Poe, Schopenhauer, Nietszche, Hoffman, Sudermann, Maeterlinck, Tolstoy, and Ibsen, but they have not always shown much judgment or discrimination in their study of foreign literatures. They have often been "more deeply impressed by the charm of novelty than they have seriously understood the thinkers whom they proposed to imitate." They have often borrowed from their masters that which was least worthy. M. G. Desdevises du Dézert thus characterizes Castilian literature :

The field of poetry is a desert. Clarin counted only two and one-half poets in it. Accordingly, to-day, there would be only half of one left,—that is to say, Manuel del Pelaccio, who was full of happy expressions and true sentiments. In reality, there are more of them Frederico Balart, the author of "Dolores;" Medina, author of "Murcian Airs;" Salvador Rueda, "the sensualist of the mind," who, in his "Precious Stones," has sung the beauties of nature, art, and love, and in "The Land of the Sun" has struck all the strings of the lyre with a master stroke. Bobadilla, better known in Spain as Fray Candil, published, in 1901, verses entitled "The Vortex," which won high praise. It is a poem of absolute pessimism, but strong and impressive. Juan Alcover is also a pessimist. He wrote "The Meteors," and other poems and stories, among which that of "The Courtesan Lalaga" is a beautiful page of passion. Perez de Alaya, Gonzales Blanco, Manuel Machado, and a few others are endeavoring to transplant to Spain the complex symbolism of the French writers.

The long novel does not find much favor in Spain to-day, according to M. Navarro y Dedesma. The short story is preferred to-day. Spain is admittedly provincial, and loves the taste of the soil.

SPANISH-AMERICAN CULTURE.

This French writer, speaking of the culture of the Spanish-Americans, says that in all the countries where the white race is in a majority, such as Chile, Uruguay, and the Argentine Republic, intellectual culture is making rapid strides. In the life of the new world, "free from the influences of the past, the people are often more attentive to learning and science than they are on the peninsula."

There, activity is awakening, wealth is growing, the people feel young and have faith in the future. Already their literature forms an interesting branch of the Castilian literature, which it may soon surpass in originality and vigor. These qualities are more lacking in the Spanish-American race, and this immaturity prompts them to turn now and then to Spain, but more often to France, for inspiration. And yet the Argentine Republic is even now collecting its traditions ("Tradiciones Argentinas:" P. Obligado), and a "Treasury of the American Parnassus" has been recently published in Barcelona, and D. Juan Velera has not disdained to review, with great indulgence, the literary works of the Spanish-Americans. M. Degetau y Gonzalez, once deputy from Porto Rico to the Spanish Cortes, has written a series of touching novelettes.

LITERATURE IN CENTRAL AND SOUTH AMERICA.

Mexico, the American country, in which the purest Castilian is spoken, is entirely absorbed in the development of its economic wealth ; and while Mexico studies and cultivates the sciences, political economy, and law, it seems to concern itself but little with literature. Costa Rica has a poet in Emelio Pacheco Cooper, and a novelist in D. Ricardo Fernandez Guardia. Venezuela has some poets and novelists, all equally inspired by the French Muse. Among them are D. Andres A. Arcia, who has translated Byron's "Parisina" into Spanish, and several journalists and critics who were inspired from the French. Buenos Ayres, which boasts of being the Paris of South America, and after it the second Latin city in the world, is entirely subject to French influence. There is a provincial party which endeavors to combat this influence, and the echoes of the conflict are heard even in literature, M.

Francisco Grandmontagne going so far as to wish that "God might set fire to the capital for the salvation of the Republic." Other Argentine writers are D. Leopold Diaz, who writes sonnets after the manner of Heredia; Rafael Troyo, who writes stories and sketches redolent of the Parisian boulevards; and D. Miguel Carré, the dean of the faculty of letters in Buenos Ayres, who writes like a Parisian. A professor of Montevideo, D. Enrique Rodo, has earned a great reputation as a critic, and in his charming book, "Ariel," one seems to have rediscovered the secret of Plato's grace. The Spanish-American literature, concludes M. G. Desdevises du Dézert, is but just budding, and yet the first flowers of its first spring are not without color and perfume.

The Problem of Education in Spain.

Alluding to the recent experience of Spain in her conflict with the United States, Antonio Morillo, in *La Revista Sociale* (Madrid), declares:

It would argue a complete ignorance of natural law in society to deny that our reverses have had their origin in the deficiencies of our lecture-halls and schools. . . . Is it not time that we should throw aside romanticism and barren Chauvinism and devote ourselves assiduously to "cultivate our garden," and set out in our national soil the good seed of a productive educational and instructional system?

He finds two faults in the public instruction which is given to the young in Spain,—pedantic and half-Oriental literalism, and mere loading of the memory, accompanied with a neglect of character-building. He makes a distinction, which is by no means new, between the giving of information to and the education of the young. We have altogether forgotten, he says, "the difference between the education and the instruction of the young." He criticises very severely the utter inadequacy of preparatory education in Spain. Young men go to college ill prepared. "The deficient preparation of the school renders the youth quite unfit to pursue the studies of the baccalaureate course. In the primary schools, he has been taught by rote. What right have people to expect that he should at once be fitted to enter upon those disciplines which the Greeks styled the encyclopedia of learning? How can he be expected to apply himself to the study of Latin, French, literature, philosophy, history, mathematics, and the sciences; of physics, chemistry, and natural history?" "Most of the time at college," he says, "is spent in merely preparatory work and the making up of the neglected opportunities of the lower schools." He particularly finds fault with the pedantry and formalism of professors in Spanish universities. "The greater number of them," he says, "do not deserve the name of masters, for even if they have acquired much knowledge themselves, they are totally incapable of communicating it to their pupils."

What a difference between our universities and those of Germany! It is only necessary to read the German reminiscences of Perez Triana to be convinced that German patriotism and the greatness of that mighty empire are especially fostered by the university system in Germany. There, the university fulfills a mission whose effects are apparent in the whole national life. . . . The common people in our country generally deceive themselves by confounding that romantic patriotism which expresses itself in a barren admiration for the army with that true love of nationality which is the only genuine patriotism possible, a patriotism which is based on the teachings of a sane educational system, primary and advanced.

THE BEAUTIES OF THE ARAB CIVILIZATION.

TO understand completely the civilization of the Arabs to-day—the spirit of the Arab in North Africa—we must examine the civilization of the Ommiades of Spain in the Middle Ages. Thus the French writer, Marius Ary Leblond, begins a study of the beauty of Arab civilization (in the *Revue Bleue*). France, he declares, could, to great advantage, study Moorish civilization of the Middle Ages, in order to understand and protect the Arab civilization which still exists in her new sphere of influence —Morocco. He quotes Renan's statement that it was not the Arab character, but the Mohammedan religion, "the most fanatic of religions, opposed to the scientific spirit," which brought about the fall of the Moors. It was a great inspiration in the early centuries, but is certainly not consistent with methods of modern progress. M. Leblond describes the surpassing beauty of some of the early cities under the rule of the Moors in Spain, notably Cordova, and then asserts it was principally owing to a lack of the materialistic temperament which has made Arab civilization unequal to the demands of modern life. Speaking of the intellectual tolerance of the Moors in Spain, he compares them to the English in India. The latter, says this French writer, have, indeed, permitted the native life to survive, and have guarded it faithfully, "but strictly, sharply, too much like Christians, with



REMAINS OF ANCIENT MOSLEM BATHS IN SPAIN.

a certain inability to look at the native civilization in an unprejudiced way and see its beauty." The Arabs, on the other hand, wherever they went, admired the countries in which they stayed, and made the very best of the native charms. Arab art and æsthetics was especially pliable in that it made so much of the ever-present element, water.

Whether half-urban or half nomad, the Arab loves water—the water which flows and the water which fertilizes. He is a great poet and a great employer of irrigation, which really brought about the wealth of Spain and assures that of Morocco. Water plays a fundamental *rôle* in the Arab civilization. It is the life-giving current of his warm, voluptuous organism. It is his religion, which, prescribing frequent ablutions, has made of water a divine necessity in the Mussulman's life.

The sound of water flowing in the mosque is to the Arab the sound of religious presence and an invitation to spiritual rest. This element is bound up closely with all religious ceremonies, and its use is one of the greatest, if not the greatest, facts of the Arab's life. It was this life of waters, says this French writer, which made Arab public buildings, such as mosques, baths, and halls of learning, so beautiful.

But, besides being poets of water, the Arabs were also the most artistic makers of gardens.

There has, perhaps, never been a race which has loved flowers more ardently than the Arab, or felt more keenly the richness of perfumes. Whenever one walks through the streets of Tangier, looking in at the little ointment booths or carpet shops, he sees, in front of every Arab, as he toils, or dreams, with his head on his knees, a flower, simply but tastefully placed in a little vase,—this is the Arab cult. The flower is for the Arab a being, living and immortal. The Arabs introduced the jasmine and the camelia into Spain, and it was they who originated the yellow or tea rose.

Given this love of water, flowers, and gardens, with the mysterious seclusion of his women, is it a wonder that the Arab had a beautiful, romantic civilization?

Much of the intellectual and religious strength of the Arab race still survives, this writer believes, somewhat modified and deteriorated through the influence of African ignorance and fetichism. The renaissance of Islamism, however, he believes, is possible, because the present state is not decadence, only disorder. There is an Arab ideal, and the French genius, with its suppleness, is much better adapted to contribute to that renaissance than the Anglo-Saxon Puritanism. France, he says in conclusion, must and will respect those qualities of the Arab, which will assure a revival of the beautiful civilization in the new Morocco.

Hojas Selectas, a Spanish illustrated magazine (Barcelona), has a descriptive article, by Rodrigo Amador de Los Rios, on "The Baths of the Moslems in Spain." The splendid architecture and decorations of these baths, says this writer, form one of the glories of Spain. Many of the ruins in Cordova, Granada, Barcelona, and Toledo still attest to the luxurious character of the Moorish life when the Mohammedans were in power in the kingdom. There were hot and cold and vapor baths.



MODERN MOROCCAN ARCHITECTURE.—ENTRANCE TO THE SULTAN'S PALACE.

THE ORIGINAL INHABITANTS OF SIBERIA.

THE ethnography of Siberia presents an extraordinary variety, unequaled, perhaps, anywhere else in the world, if we can believe the Norwegian scientific writer, Birger Jakobsen, who contributes to the *Kringsjaa* (the illustrated review of Christiania) a study of the aborigines of Siberia. Since Siberia covers an area of one-thirteenth of all the land of the globe, it is natural, this writer says, that it should present such variety. All its native tribes should doubtless be regarded as remnants of the peoples that, at different epochs, have pressed westward. Ethnological investigations into the history of the Hunngraves (Kurganes) have proved that there "must have existed a steady movement of historical races along the great Siberian rivers, the natural wandering belts of the first Asiatic inhabitants; and the history of the different tribes in this region still constitutes an unwritten page in the great book of mankind's progress." Through several different sources, partly Russian, this writer is able to make an intelligent survey of the different Siberian tribes, their habitats, manners, and customs. With the exception of immigrants and exiles from Europe, the population of Siberia is divided, according to origin, into three main groups: first, the Turkish; second, the Finnish; third, the Mongolian. The Turkish group embraces the Kirghiz, the Tartars, the Bokharas, and the Jakhutes.

The Kirghiz are the remnant of the Turkish-Mongolian hordes which repeatedly assailed the cultured and ancient lands of Europe. They spoke a Turkish dialect, and professed Mohammedanism, mingled, however, with creeds and ideas of Sjamanian deity culture. They followed a purely nomadic life on the open steppes. Their land is divided into avules, or parishes. All land on the steppes is state property, but its free use is permitted to these nomads. The boundaries between the successive generations are marked only by tradition. Tartars and Bokharas are scattered throughout nearly the whole of Siberia. They are settled, are given to agriculture, hunting, fishing, and commerce, and profess the Sunnitish faith of Mohammedanism. They are a strongly built yellow-skinned race, and number from two hundred thousand to two hundred and fifty thousand, mostly Christian, and entirely Russified. They are decreasing in number, being driven to the poorer districts by Russian immigrants. The Jakhutes move around in the middle part of the government of Jakhutsk. They are copper-colored, with black hair, and closely resemble the North American Indians. Ethnologists believe that they degenerated from a more civilized condition. They live by cattle-breeding; but in the inhospitable regions of the far North, the dog is their only animal, who is used for transportation and food, and his skin is used for clothing. The Jakhute language closely resembles Turkish, and travelers among these tribes affirm that a savage could be understood in Constantinople. Most of the two hundred and thirty thousand Jakhutes profess Christianity.

The two Finnish peoples of Siberia are the Vogules and the Ostjaks, the Vogules belonging to the very ancient Ugro-Finnish stock.

They are the other branch of the Ugros from which the Huns, or Hungarians, parted when they came to Europe. They inhabited the northern part of the government of Tobolsk; are estimated at eight thousand, and hunt the bear, wolf, and fox for a living. They stand very low in point of civilization, although since 1722 they are said to have been Christians. The Ostjaks are scattered through the whole of northern Europe. Their origin is not very definitely known. They possess a rich, heroic poetry, which is said to be more highly developed in the Scandinavian sagas. The Ostjaks number about thirty thousand, and live in the forest regions by hunting and fishing. In the northern part of the Ural Mountains, they are in close contact with the Russian population, and have become Christian and Russified.

The principal Mongolian aborigines of Siberia are the Teleutes, Burjats. Samojeds, Mandjares, and Gilyaks. The Teleutes occupy the Altai Mountain region. There are about forty thousand of these pure nomads, of an entirely Mongolian type and Buddhistic religion. The Burjats are in trans-Baikalia, are pure Mongolian, and mostly Lamaites in religion. Their religious head, the Chamba Lama, resides in a dazan, or monastery, on the Entesea, the sea of the priests. This convent is a three-story temple, built in Chinese style, and around it seventeen smaller prayer-houses are crowded. The Lamas dwell in cottages near by. At the monastery they study, during a ten-years' course of religious ceremonies, Tibetan theology, Mongolian and Tibetan literature, medicine, astronomy, and Buddhistic philosophy. The Gilyaks live around the lower portion of the Amur River and the land of the Sagalien, where they touch the original Japanese inhabitants, the Ainos. The Gilyaks are small in stature, have almond eyes, and the same complexion as the Chinese. The hair is black and thin, and is carried in a single tress. They pay but little attention to agriculture, living almost entirely on fish. They often dress in fish-skin, using the skin of the trout, prepared by special treatment. The Gilyaks are polygamists, and worship Sjamanian deities. They number about fifteen thousand, and are rapidly decreasing.

SAYINGS OF JESUS NOT IN THE BIBLE.

THE new sayings of Jesus form the subject of a paper in the *Church Quarterly Review.* A few of these sayings noted there may be given here. From long-known Church fathers:

"Show yourselves tried money-changers;" "He that wonders shall reign, and he that reigns shall rest;" "In whatsoever I shall find you, in that I shall also judge you;" "He who is near me is near the fire; he who is far from me is far from the Kingdom;" "Never be joyful except when ye shall look on your brother in love."

From sayings more recently compiled by Resch, of which he regards seventy-four as authentic:

"The weak shall be saved by the strong;" "Where one man is, there, too, am I;" "Thou hast seen thy brother, thou hast seen thy Lord;" "Whatsoever thou wouldest not have done to thyself, do thou not to another;" "There shall be schisms and heresies."

From Mohammedan sources:

Jesus, asked whereby they might enter Paradise, said: "Speak not at all." They said: "We cannot do this." He said: "Then only say what is good." Of charity: "If a man send away a beggar from his house, the angels will not visit his house for seven nights." Of recognition of good, where others would see only evil: "Jesus one day walked with the apostles, and they passed the carcass of a dog. The apostles said: 'How foul is the smell of this dog!' But Jesus said: 'How white are its teeth!'"

From the papyri just discovered in Egypt:

Jesus saith, wherever there are two, they are not without God, and wherever there is one alone, say that I am with him. Raise the stone, and there thou shalt find Me: cleanse the wood and there am I.

Jesus saith [Ye ask who are those] who draw us [to the Kingdom, if] this Kingdom is in heaven? The fowls of the air and all beasts that are under the earth [or upon the earth and] the fishes of the sea, these are they which draw you, and the Kingdom [of Heaven] is within you, and [whoever] shall know himself shall find it. [Strive, therefore] to know yourselves and ye shall be aware that ye are the sons of the [Almighty] Father.

The reviewer ends by suggesting the alternatives these Egyptian papyri represent, either a collection made in the lifetime of the Apostles —a gospel in the making; or a second-century collection, freely expanded and augmented from other sources.

THE CONFLICT OF RELIGION AND SCIENCE.

THOSE who have been accustomed to assume that religion has come out worsted from a long conflict with science will find a novel point of view of this subject presented by a scientific man in the August number of the *Popular Science Monthly.* The writer, Dr. Edward S. Holden, of West Point, summarizes the attitude of many books on the warfare of science and religion in these terse phrases: "Science always right; theology always interfering; glory to us who have done away with superstition." Dr. Holden, however, takes the ground that the real conflict of the ages has been between enlightenment and ignorance.

Sometimes the battle has been in the field of theology; sometimes it has been in the field of science. The warfare had nearly always been between heresy and religion; or between science and pseudo-science; occasionally, but not very often, between religion and pseudo (or it may sometimes be true) science. Usually, however, the fields are plainly marked off. The theologians of any one epoch treated theological questions, and only those. They were not even interested in scientific questions, as such. Men of science, before the time of Galileo and Bruno, did not meddle with religion. Each class kept in its own sphere.

Take the question of the shape of the earth. The theory of a flat earth, says Professor Holden, agreed well enough with the simpler facts as they were known in the early centuries of our



PROFESSOR EDWARD S. HOLDEN.

era, although it cannot stand a moment in the face of the facts as they are. Unless we are to claim for ourselves a peculiar merit in that we happen to have been born since 1521, when Magellan's voyage of circumnavigation was completed, we cannot blame the monks of the Middle Ages for adhering to the theories that best agreed with the facts as they understood them. Dr. Holden would not blame the men of those early times for lack of open-mindedness to scientific truths. Open-mindedness, he says, implies long experience; it is a product of past centuries. Until the centuries are, in fact, past, this virtue cannot be evolved, nor can its opposite vice be atrophied except by time.

Looking backward over the centuries, Professor Holden sees perpetual conflict with ignorance, perpetual struggle in both the physical and the spiritual worlds, and specifically a struggle in one world between true and false science; in another, between religion and the heresy of the time. If we survey the whole of history at a glance, we see that the science of one epoch has often been at variance with the religion of another; but we also see that in each and every age the conflict has been between things of one and the same kind; between religion and its opposite; between science and its opposite; and not in general between things so different in their nature as science and religion.

A PROPOSED NEW RUSSIAN LOAN.

AFTER a few weeks of war, Russia found herself obliged to increase her paper money in circulation from 630,000,000 to 700,000,000 rubles ($315,000,000 to $350,000,000). This increase, however, was to be expected, says the Russian financier, Prof. P. Migulin, writing in the *Narodnoye Khozaistvo* (St. Petersburg). "Great wars in modern times involve enormous expenditures, and their successful termination without recourse to extraordinary measures is altogether out of the question." Inquiries were made, at the same time, by the minister of finance as to the condition for a new foreign loan. "An internal loan was considered impracticable because of our extremely limited monetary resources and the panic on our stock exchanges following immediately after the declaration of war."

The history of the recent foreign loans of Russia is thus summarized by Professor Migulin:

In 1901, 159,000,000 rubles, at 95⅝, which realized 151,646,255 rubles; in 1902, 138,900,000 rubles, at 94⅞, which realized 131,781,325 rubles; in 1903, 64,875,000 rubles, at 96, which realized 62,280,000 rubles. In all, there should have been realized in these three years 345,700,000 rubles. According to the minister of finance, our gold reserve increased in that time by 300,000,000 rubles, and for this reason even the favorable trade balances of 1902–1903 (due to the splendid harvests of two seasons) could not fully cover our foreign expenditures (most prominent among them being the payments on old foreign loans and the expenditures of tourists), since 46,000,000 rubles of the new loans remained abroad, as well as the entire gold output of our mines (not less than 100,000,000 rubles, exclusive of the portion consumed in the arts). The entire cash balance of the imperial treasury advertised by the newspapers as due to our skillful management was merely the outcome of loans contracted on terms decidedly unfavorable. The proceeds of these loans retained in the country (thanks to the good harvests) enabled us, for a few months, to carry on the war without recourse to new extraordinary sources of income.

BORROWING AT HOME AND ABROAD.

Unpopular war loans, this writer asserts, should be made internal, and foreign funds should be solicited for productive loans only.

Such productive loans have been made for the construction of railroads. The temporary suspension of railroad construction work on account of the war is really insignificant in extent (47,000,000 rubles out of 143,000,000 rubles), so that we could borrow 100,000,000 rubles purely for the extension of our railroad lines, and the sums assigned for this purpose from the cash balance could be utilized for war purposes. On the whole, however, railroad loans are growing more unpopular on account of the decreasing earnings of our railroads. It is within the power of the minister of finance to seek out, skillfully, a new application for the capital borrowed abroad.

A number of such applications are then considered.

A special commission appointed to investigate our agricultural industries has but recently pointed out the extreme necessity of improving our agricultural conditions, against the encroachment of the quicksands which already cover a great area in European Russia, and are constantly extending, threatening the gradual transformation of fruitful regions into a desert. It has been estimated that the planting of forests on these sands would cost eighty million rubles, whereby the government would not only save from destruction the entire black evil region, but would in time be enriched by an immense quantity of timber. Or, to take another instance, all Europe is at present confronted by the annoying situation in the cotton market. America proposes to prohibit the exporting of raw cotton, and to compel Europe to buy only manufactured products. Other countries are trying to raise cotton in their colonial possessions so as to become independent of America. Russia purchases annually more than eleven million pounds of foreign cotton, valued at more than one hun-

dred million rubles, tribute paid by us to America, Egypt, and India—countries to which we do not export any of our products. The government should bend its energies in this direction.

He then comes to the heart of his subject, a contemplated new loan. He says :

As a beginning, we could make a foreign loan of 450,000,000 rubles for productive purposes. Of these, 100,000,000 could be expended on railroads, 100,000,000 on the Imperial Bank, 100,000,000 on small loans for the promotion of trade, 150,000,000 on the planting of forests and irrigation. A 4 per cent. loan, with a discount of even 10 per cent., would involve a loan issue of 500,000,000 rubles,—that is, 1,080,000,000 marks, or 1,333,400,000 francs, a sum which the French and German financial markets could advance to us without any difficulty. The vast influx into the country of foreign capital would unavoidably lead to a rapid accumulation of savings and an enormous increase in the government revenues. The withdrawal of deposits from the savings institutions, and more so the export of gold from Russia, would be entirely improbable. To be sure, it would be necessary to float also a domestic loan for at least 500,000,000 rubles, and this could be realized from the high interest (5 per cent).

RUSSIAN COMPARED WITH JAPANESE FINANCES.

Professor Migulin refers to the congratulatory remarks in the Russian press concerning the more advantageous terms secured by Russia in her recent loan, as compared with those secured by Japan, and adds :

It should not be forgotten that Japan has staked everything on the issue of this war. That the very guarantee of her loan by customs duties may prove of no value should Russia by triumphing in this war compel her to pay the war indemnity from these very customs duties, not admitting the right of priority to the holders of the bonds of the Japanese war loan. To be sure, the English and American capitalists who made the loan to Japan do not figure on Russian success, but they may be mistaken. Recent intelligence concerning the loss of Japanese battleships has already depressed the price of the bonds. The credit of Japan is not in an enviable condition, although it does not follow from this that we have reason to rejoice over the conditions of our loan.

The learned professor seems to be somewhat affected by the spirit of jingoism prevailing among most of the Russian officials and semi-officials. Should Russia come out victorious in the war with Japan, which is very doubtful, she, even if she could, would hardly deprive the international holders of the Japanese bonds of their securities. It would be a very short-sighted policy ; but, as it looks now, Russia will be compelled to conclude "peace with honor," and the bondholders will certainly be safe. Professor Migulin concludes that the loans already floated may not prove sufficient for the completion of the war. It will be necessary in that case to resort to new loans. In that event, he suggests that the ministry of finance float a domestic loan, which would prove decidedly more profitable. It would be necessary, however, to float special productive loans for maintaining the course of exchange. Such loans could be issued for long terms, with the right of subsequent conversion.

THE ECONOMIC LIFE OF THE ITALIAN POPULATION.

IN the *Riforma Sociale* (Rome), Prof. G. Ferroglio summarizes the economic condition of the Italian people. He draws his information from the census of 1901, by which the population of Italy is estimated at 32,000,000. Of these, 16,883,881 exercise a profession, 9,666,467 are occupied in agriculture and the varied industries, 3,989,816 are engaged as artisans, while 3,227,598 cannot be included in the agricultural and kindred classes and the varied industries. In these 3,227,598 must be comprehended the commercial classes, various employees in banks, insurance companies, hotel-keepers, dealers in real estate, who make up a total of 1,196,744 persons, of whom 1,025,839 are men and 170,905 women. This leaves 2,030,854, to whom belong the classes devoted to intellectual and literary pursuits as well as those engaged in domestic and other service. Besides these are people of capital and independent means, who are estimated in the census as 511,279, of which 272,720 are women and 239,359 are men.

THE PROFESSIONS.

Of the people who engage in an occupation not included in the preceding classes must be reckoned the army and navy, which absorb 204,012 persons. To the same class belong those occupied in the service of religion, who number 89,329 men and 40,564 women, giving a total of 139,893. The religious orders have probably increased their number since the census by the arrival from France of many refugees from suppressed houses. After these classes comes the teaching population. In the profession of teaching, 62,873 are women and 39,559 are men. The majority of these women are employed in the elementary schools, a woman being rarely engaged in the institutions of higher education. In the medical profession, in the widest sense

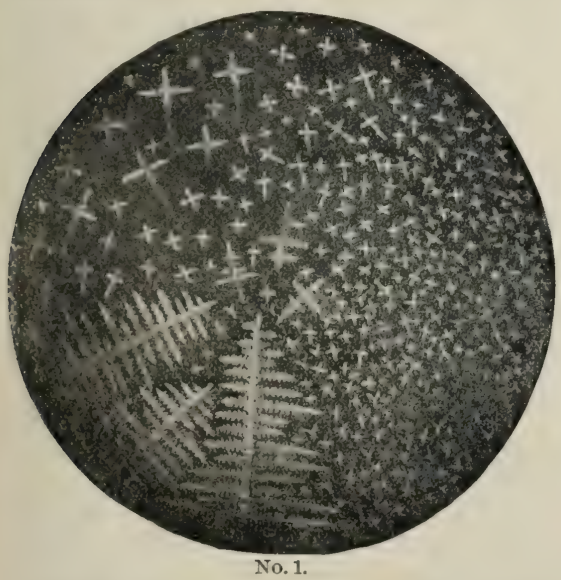
of the term, including nurses and midwives, there are 69,913 employed, of which 49,030 are men and 20,883 women, 13,000 of the latter being midwives. The legal profession absorbs 33,746 persons. Engineers, land-surveyors, and accountants make up a total of 22,775. The artistic classes number only 39,877 persons, of which 33,587 are men and 7,370 are women. In the profession of painting and sculpture, artists and their models number 13,857 persons, of which only 790 are women. Belonging to the musical and dramatic stage, including circus performers, etc., there are 26,020 persons, 20,420 being men and 5,600 women.

These figures furnish valuable information, and are remarkable as showing that the Italian woman has not taken her place in the professional world. They also are significant in exhibiting the fact that the army and navy of Italy are among the smallest in Europe.

"SALT TEARS" UNDER THE MICROSCOPE.

POETS have raved about tears. Mr. James Scott, in the *Young Man* for August, has photographed them. His article, "Revelations of the Human Body," is very interesting.

Every one is aware that tears are saltish, yet few would be able to guess the cause for this curious result. It is due to the impregnation of the liquid with common salt, phosphate of sodium, and other minor salts.



No. 1.

A very small portion of a dried tear, crystallized into queer-shaped fern fronds and crosses. Some of the latter are given still more magnified in No. 2. The actual size of the above circle, prior to magnification, was one-tenth of an inch. The crystals are formed of common salt, phosphate of sodium, and other ingredients.

Following my practice of always trying to obtain curious results from research, I have frequently experimented with tears coaxed from my eyes in response to the effects of cold weather; and in Nos. 1 and 2 (drawings which I believe I may claim to be unique) I represent the magnified appearance of *portions of dried tears*. My plan is to convey the apparently trivial drop of moisture on to a glass slide, and allow the water to evaporate. After the course of a few hours the residue, which appears to the naked eye as a mere smudge, will really be a "frosted" patch, and when magnified usually resembles No. 1, myriads of the invisible crystals collecting to form strange devices resembling ferns, and numerous others congregating to form a mass of interspersed crosses. The actual diameter of the circle depicted in No. 1 may be regarded as approximately one-tenth of an inch. If some of the crosses be subjected to a still more powerful magnification, the wonderful crystals are disclosed as being



No. 2.

The above depicts a circle one-twentieth of an inch in diameter, magnified, containing crosses of crystal found in a dried tear, and are a few of the many contained in No. 1 on a smaller scale.

shaped according to No. 2, the real size of the disc observed being one-twentieth of an inch. A few hours later, however, unless the precaution be taken to use a preservative medium for the crystals, they will slowly melt, as it were, until they entirely disappear and leave a mere blotch behind.

It would be interesting if Mr. Scott would photograph the contents of tears shed under different emotions,—tears of grief, tears of pain, tears of joy, and so forth.

THE SLEEPING SICKNESS: WHAT IT IS AND HOW IT KILLS.

THE "sleeping sickness," so called, has existed for some time past in the Congo, but the natives there seem to be comparatively immune. It was only when the disease was brought into Uganda that it became a deadly plague. In the last few years, more than one hundred thousand persons died in Uganda from sleeping sickness. No curative treatment has as yet been discovered, nor is there any authentic instance of recovery. Prof. E. Ray Lankester contributes to the *Quarterly* for July an interesting illustrated article which summarizes all that is known about this strange malady.

The signs that a patient has contracted the disease are very obvious at an early stage. They are recognized by the black people, and the certainly fatal issue accepted with calm acquiescence. The usually intelligent expression of the healthy negro is replaced by a dull, apathetic appearance; and there is a varying amount of fever and headache. This may last for some weeks, but is followed more or less rapidly by a difficulty in locomotion and speech, a trembling of the tongue and hands. There is increased fever and constant drowsiness, from which the patient is roused only to take food. At last—usually after some three or four months of illness—complete somnolence sets in: no food is taken, the body becomes emaciated and ulcerated, and the victim dies in a state of coma. The course of the disease, from the time when the apathetic stage is first noticed, may last from two to twelve months.

A PARASITIC DISEASE.

The origin of the disease has been discovered by Colonel Bruce, of the British Army Medical Department. It is produced by an animal parasite called *Trypanosoma*, which is carried from man to man by a special kind of tsetze fly. The natives are quite indifferent to fly bites, and when once *Trypanosoma* is introduced into the districts where these flies abound they die like rotten sheep. Europeans brush off the flies, and hence seldom fall a prey to the sleeping sickness. The tsetze fly is a little bigger than the ordinary house fly. Its ravages have long been familiar to all who have to do with what is called the Tsetze Belt in South Africa, a region in which no horses or cattle can live.

The parasite called *Trypanosoma brucei* has become acclimatized in the wild game of the district, who seem to suffer nothing from its presence in their veins. But the tsetze, which sucks the blood of the antelope, carries the parasite to the horses or cattle which it next visits and inoculates them with the deadly disease, from which they perish. In like manner, the Congo natives appear to be largely proof against the sleeping-sickness parasite, which is another kind of *Trypanosoma*, but when it is conveyed from them to the Uganda natives it has a very deadly result. Professor Lankester thinks that some similar parasite destroyed all the horses that existed in the American continent, where, just before or coincidently with the advent of man, horses of all kinds had existed in greater variety than in any other part of the world. Professor Lankester uses the story of the sleeping sickness as a powerful argument in favor of the granting of adequate sums for the scientific investigation of the laws governing parasitic disease.

CHANGES IN THE BLOOD AT HIGH ALTITUDES.

THE last number of the *Zentralblatt für Physiologie* (Leipsic) contains an account of an unusual series of experiments made by Dr. K. Burker, of the Physiological Institute of Tübingen, by means of which some remarkable facts were discovered concerning the direct effects of high altitudes upon physiological activities.

Through the kindness of the medical staff, he was enabled to carry on the investigations at the Schatzalp sanatorium, located at an altitude of 6,119 feet above the level of the sea. Observations were made both on patients and on healthy persons who were attending the autumnal carnival there, and it was found, almost without exception, that the change from a lower to a higher altitude affected the rate of circulation of the blood, causing it to flow faster at first, and later on more slowly. This change was independent of any variation in the temperature.

Chemical experiments to determine the amount of iron in the blood, the liver, and the spleen were conducted with especial care. It was anticipated that when the amount of hemoglobin in the blood underwent any variation, there would be a corresponding difference in the changes undergone by the iron in the blood, and in the blood-forming organs.

To determine this, experiments were made upon a number of young rabbits, all of which were kept under the same conditions as nearly as possible. The rabbits were brought from Tübingen to Schatzalp, where they were kept

for different lengths of time before any tests were made. Then blood was taken from the carotid artery to test for iron, and after killing the rabbits pieces of the liver and spleen were carefully washed and tested.

The result showed an increase of about 25 per cent. in the amount of iron in the blood as compared with iron in the blood of rabbits kept at the lower level of Tübingen.

The liver also showed a perfectly regular series of changes in the quantity of iron contained. In the first rabbit, examined the third day after it had been brought to the higher level, there was a great increase of iron in the liver, but those examined after being kept for a longer time at this altitude showed less iron, and those kept still longer seemed to have even less iron in the liver than those that were kept below at Tübingen.

Changes taking place in the spleen were irregular. In the blood, the iron content increased, then decreased, and then increased a second time similar to the way in which the amount of hemoglobin in the blood changes under the influence of high altitudes.

These investigations were carried on in extension of a unique series of experiments recently made by Dr. Gaule, who took two trips in a balloon with several friends who were willing to allow him to make observations upon them, with the intention of studying the conditions of so-called mountain sickness, which he thought could be induced in this way as well as by ascending a mountain, while at the same time other conditions, such as fatigue, etc., not directly connected with the malady, could be eliminated.

Of course, it is impossible to count the red corpuscles in the body, but the number may be estimated by counting those in a small volume of blood and multiplying the result by the number of such volumes of blood in the body.

The effect of the balloon trips was to increase the number of red corpuscles of each of the four persons examined, the increase being estimated as one million more than the number found, according to estimates made from the blood of the same people before the trip. In addition to this increase in number, the red corpuscles were found to have nuclei, like the corpuscles found during embryonic life, and as they are sometimes found in the blood of invalids. These data form a valuable addition to the many curious facts already established concerning the development of organisms and their adaptation to their environment. Deep-sea fishes, adapted to the great pressure of the water at the bottom of the ocean, explode when brought to the surface; aquatic organisms may change their form or their mode of development if the density or the chemical composition of the water in which they are kept is changed. There seems to be a delicate adjustment between organic life and the external forces acting upon it, and slight changes will often produce most unexpected results.

THE EFFECTS OF BORAX UPON HEALTH.

THE results of the borax experiments conducted last year by Dr. H. W. Wiley, chief of the Bureau of Chemistry of the Department of Agriculture, for the purpose of determining the relation of borax, as a food preservative, to digestion and health, are summed up in a circular just sent out by the Bureau of Chemistry. These experiments were made upon a selected volunteer band of twelve young men, most of them connected with the Department of Agriculture, who were under observation at the hygienic table prepared under Dr. Wiley's direction, for periods of from thirty to seventy days. They continued their usual vocations and regular tenor of life during these periods, but signed a pledge agreeing to follow implicitly the rules and regulations governing the table, and to use no other food and drink than that provided at the table, with the exception of water. A varied bill of fare of carefully selected food was set before them, including fresh meat, eggs, dairy products, vegetables, and fruit of the season. Where preserved food was used, it had either been kept in cold storage, as the meat and poultry, or had been subjected to sterilization, thus assuring food free from chemical preservatives.

The experimental preservative was used both in the form of borax and boric acid, which was at first mixed with the butter, and later given in capsules. Beginning with small quantities, about as much as would be consumed in foods preserved with borax, such as butter and meat, the quantities were progressively increased for the purpose of reaching, if possible, the limit of toleration of the preservative by each individual.

The rations of each member of the table were carefully weighed or measured and analyzed, and the excreta were collected and analyzed. The young men were periodically examined by a physician detailed for that purpose, and their pulse and temperature taken before and after dinner each day.

The tabulating, classifying, and interpreting of all the data so collected involved, of course, an immense amount of work. The thoroughness with which this work was undertaken appears in the summary of results, and included the study of the ratio of food consumed to the body weight, the influence of the preservative upon the weight of the body, upon the metabolism of nitrogen, upon the oxidation of the combustible matter in the food, upon the kidneys, and other topics appealing chiefly to the specialist. Of great interest to the lay reader, however, are Dr. Wiley's conclusions in regard to the effect of boric acid and borax upon general health :

The most interesting of the observations which were made during the progress of the experiments was in the study of the direct effect of boric acid and borax, when administered in food, upon the health and digestion. When boric acid, or its equivalent in borax, is taken into the food in small quantities, not exceeding half a gram (7½ grains) a day, no notable effects are immediately produced. The medical symptoms of the cases in long-continued exhibitions of small doses, or in large doses extending over shorter periods, show, in many instances, a manifest tendency to diminish the appetite and produce a feeling of fullness and uneasiness in the stomach, which, in some cases, results in nausea, with a very general tendency to produce a sense of fullness in the head, which is often manifested as a dull and persistent headache. In addition . . . there appear in some instances sharp and well-located pains, which, however, are not persistent. The administration of boric acid to the amount of four or five grams per day, or borax equivalent thereto, continued for some time, results in most cases in loss of appetite and inability to perform work of any kind. In many cases the person becomes ill and unfit for duty. Four grams per day may be regarded, then, as the limit of exhibition beyond which the normal man may not go.

Dr. Wiley has these words of summary and warning to say :

The logical conclusion which seems to follow from the data at our disposal is that boric acid and equivalent amounts of borax in certain quantities should be restricted to those cases where the necessity therefor is clearly manifest, and where it is demonstrable that other methods of food preservation are not applicable, and that without the use of such a preservative the deleterious effects produced by the foods themselves, by reason of decomposition, would be far greater than could possibly come from the use of the preservative in minimum quantities. In these cases it would also follow, apparently, as a matter of public information, and especially for the protection of the young, the sick, and the debilitated, that each article of food should be plainly labeled and branded in regard to the character and quantity of the preservative employed.

MEXICAN RAILROADS.

IT is a fact generally recognized that the rapid building of railroads, so efficiently promoted by President Diaz, has contributed more than any other one cause to the remarkable economic advance made by Mexico during recent years. In the course of an article on the economic development of Mexico, contributed to the *International Quarterly* (New York), Mr. H. L. Vegus gives some interesting information on Mexican railroad systems. This writer has taken extended and regular trips into the interior of Mexico, and has been afforded special facilities for observation by the Mexican Government. He states that the mileage of Mexican roads now amounts to 17,756 kilometers. The government has control of but three railroad systems,—the Tehuantepec, the National, and the Inter-Oceanic Railroad companies. All other roads are privately owned,—very largely by citizens of the United States. There are at present fifty-eight different companies, most of which are only of local importance. Four, however, are of international importance,—the Mexican Central, the Inter-Oceanic, the Mexican, and the National.

The Mexican Central has been operating for twenty years, has been the main artery of communication with the United States, and until a very recent date it was the only standard-gauge line in Mexico. The Central will soon reach the Pacific Ocean at two points, Manzanillo and Acapulco. It has also attracted to itself the entire traffic of North Mexico by the building of a branch line to Tampico, and by the purchase of the Monterey Railway, which has its terminus in Tampico. The harbor of Tampico is an important one, and it is predicted that this place will soon outstrip Vera Cruz. The Central has established the same rates between Tampico and the city of Mexico as the other roads ask for the shorter journey from Vera Cruz to Mexico. The direct line of the Central from Tampico to the city of Mexico, which is now in process of construction, and which will probably be completed by January, 1905, will in all likelihood produce a great revolution in the commerce of Mexico, since it will be shorter than any other connection between Mexico and Vera Cruz.

The National Railroad Company of Mexico, the majority of the stock of which is held by the Mexican Government, is now changing the narrow gauge of its road into the standard gauge, and will at once be opened to traffic from



MAP OF MEXICAN RAILROADS.

Laredo to the city of Mexico, thus securing about sixteen hours' closer connection with the United States than the Central. It is believed that the result of this competition will be a pooling of the traffic of the two companies. Other United States connections are projected.

THE EVOLUTION OF A NEW GOSPEL.

RUSSIA, according to many, is the Nazareth of the nations from which cometh no good thing. But, as the ancient Nazareth produced the Carpenter, the modern Nazareth has produced two men—one Christian, the other free-thinker—who agree in proclaiming, in accents heard throughout the world, the supreme importance of a renewed and revivified faith. Count Tolstoy is the great Christian moralist of our time, and now we have Prince Kropotkin beginning in the *Nineteenth Century* the publication of his new gospel of ethics, under the title "The Ethical Need of the Present Day." And, at the same time, another Russian subject, the Finn Professor Westermarck, is laboriously elaborating his *magnum opus*, "The Evolution of the Moral Idea."

The Positivist Ideal.

In the *Positivist Review*, in an appreciative notice of Sister Nivedita's "Web of Indian Life," Mr. S. H. Swiney asks, "Is the morality of the future to be human or divine? Is humanity to be the center of love and reverence, or must we look beyond?" He maintains that science must not be studied for its own sake. "It must be sanctified by a holy purpose—the material, the intellectual, and, above all, the moral improvement of humanity. Science will never be sacred to those to whom humanity is not sacred."

Another writer in the same review, Mr. F. S. Marvin, discussing the idea of evolution in education, declares that the educator of the future will lay the foundation of all the best in man's previous achievements in knowledge and in art.

> Then he will set before him the ideal of a new, a wiser, and a stronger man, with an equal equipment with those who have gone before, but a wider vision and stronger powers,—a man ready and able to extend man's dominion on the earth, becoming firmer in his grasp of nature, deeper and more constant in his insight of the future, and a more loyal colleague of his fellow-men. Education will have this type before it in the future; we may see it dimly outlined even now, and it is a type sketched for us by the doctrine of evolution.

Kropotkin's Basis: Mutual Aid.

In the first chapter of his new work, "The Ethical Need of the Present Day," which appears in the *Nineteenth Century* for August, Prince Kropotkin opens his subject by discussing some of the main currents of thought on ethics discernible in the present confusion. He says:

> All of them converge toward one leading idea. What is wanted now is a new comprehension of morality: in its fundamental principle, which must be broad enough to infuse new life in our civilization, and in its methods, which must be freed from both the transcendental survivals and the narrow conceptions of philistine utilitarianism. The elements for such a comprehension are already at hand. The importance of mutual aid in the evolution of the animal world and human history may be taken, I believe, as a positively established scientific truth, free of any hypothetical admission.

FROM MUTUAL AID TO JUSTICE.

> We may also take next, as granted, that in proportion as mutual aid becomes more habitual in a human community, and so to say instinctive, this very fact leads to a parallel development of the sense of justice, with its necessary accompaniment of equity and equalitarian self-restraint.

FROM JUSTICE TO MORALITY.

> But in proportion as relations of equalitarian justice are solidly established in the human community, the ground is prepared for the further and the more general development of those more refined relations, under which man so well understands and feels the feelings of other men affected by his actions that he refrains from offending them, even though he may have to forsake on that account the satisfaction of some of his own desires, and when he so fully identifies his feelings with those of the others that he is ready to sacrifice his forces for their benefit without expecting anything in return. These are the feelings and the habits which alone deserve the name of morality, properly speaking, although most ethical writers confound them, under the name of altruism, with the mere sense of justice.
>
> Mutual aid, justice, morality, are thus the consecutive steps of an ascending series, revealed to us by the study of the animal world and man. It is not something imposed from the outside; it is an organic necessity which carries in itself its own justification, confirmed and illustrated by the whole of the evolution of the animal kingdom, beginning with its earliest colony-stages, and gradually rising to our civilized human communities. It is a general law of organic evolution.

"This," says Prince Kropotkin, "is the solid foundation which science gives us for the elaboration of a new system of ethics and its justification." But has Prince Kropotkin really struck bed-rock? Before the first of his three steps stands sex, the original source of all altruism, the Sinai of all religions, the *fons et origo* of all morality. For from sex springs the family, and in parental love we have the beginning of the upward trend. Hence the Madonna and the Child rightly occupy the place of honor in Christian art and the Christian Church, save where, by a natural reaction, Protestant zeal has deemed it necessary to efface the hall-mark of the origin of the Christian and of all religions that were, are, or ever will be.

BRIEFER NOTES ON TOPICS IN THE PERIODICALS.

SUBJECTS TREATED IN THE POPULAR AMERICAN MAGAZINES.

The St. Louis Exposition Again.—Only two of the September magazines think it worth while to give any space to the Louisiana Purchase Exposition. Mr. Walter Williams contributes to the *Century* a running commentary on some of the strange and curious sights at the great fair; and his article is illustrated with pictures from photographs of the objects described. After reading his article, one feels impelled to accept his conclusion that one may go around the world at St. Louis and see more than a half-year's journey by train or steamer would disclose.—A somewhat more systematic method has been adopted by Mr. John Brisben Walker, who makes of his *Cosmopolitan Magazine* for September a sort of World's Fair compendium, presenting twenty-five articles dealing with as many phases of the exposition, all profusely illustrated from photographs, and giving, in their entirety, a bird's-eye view of the great show. Mr. Walker went to St. Louis at the close of June, and devoted eleven days to an examination of the exhibits. He tells us that his articles were dictated in the midst of the exhibits. Trips through the buildings were taken with a stenographer to take impressions fresh as they came at the moment, and with a staff photographer to arrange for the illustrations. Mr. Walker is to be congratulated on the interesting way in which he has covered the salient features of the exposition in this number of his magazine.

Travel Sketches.—The marked feature of this month's magazines is the great number of articles describing foreign places and peoples. The *Century*, for example, opens with a paper by David B. MacGowan, entitled "The Russian Lourdes," in which are narrated the impressive scenes at the canonization of Saint Seraphim, in 1903, in which the Czar participated. Little has been known about these ceremonies outside the boundaries of Russia, since the presence of foreigners was not desired, and, so far as is known, only one non-Russian besides Mr. MacGowan attended the ceremonies. This number of the *Century* also gives vivid descriptions of "Japan's Highest Volcano," by Herbert G. Ponting; "The Great Feast of the Whale in Arctic Alaska," by Edward McIlhenny; "Hidden Egypt: An Account of the First Visit by Women to the Coptic Monasteries of Egypt and Nitria," by Agnes Smith Lewis; "The Nail of the Universe: An Emperor of Java and His Court," by Ernst von Hesse-Wartegg; and "Antarctic Experiences," by C. E. Borchgrevink. *Harper's* for September has a paper on "Ravenna," by Arthur Symons. Under the title of "An Old Battlefield of the Nations," Mr. Lewis Gaston Leary relates, in *Scribner's*, his experience on a journey taken two years ago to the old cities of Emesa and Hamath, now known as Homs and Hama, on the route of the Beirut Railroad, which at that time was not completed. "The Berbers of Morocco" are described for the readers of *Scribner's* by Walter Harris. Coming back to our own country, there is an excellent sketch of Western scenery in *Scribner's*, entitled, "In the Big Dry Country." This study of the Wyoming sheep region is contributed by Mr. Frederic Irland.—The *World's Work* for September has two articles on Western social conditions, one dealing with "The Cowboy of To-day," by Arthur Chapman, and the other, on "Our Inland Migrations," by I. K. Friedman. In the latter article, a description is given of the methods employed by the railroads to encourage migrations in the Southwest and Northwest, and the history of some of the typical "boom" towns of Oklahoma is related, with a study of the classes of people, both native and foreign, that are settling up these new regions.—In the *Booklovers* for September, Harold Bolce describes "Phases of Railroading in Japan;" and Alice Hall writes pleasingly on the "Dark Caves of Rheims: The Centre of the Champagne Industry."—"To the Top of the Jungfrau by Rail" is the taking title of a paper in *Munsey's*, by Garrett P. Serviss.—Nor should we fail to mention the admirable paper in *Harper's* by Prof. J. R. S. Sterrett, of Cornell, on the caravanseries of the East.

American Politics.—Last month we noted the fact that very few of the American popular monthlies were giving any attention to the pending Presidential campaign. This remains true of most of the September issues. But, in a few of the magazines, there are interesting discussions of topics suggested by the campaign and the personalities involved therein. *Leslie's Monthly* contains a sketch of the Hon. Henry G. Davis, the candidate for Vice-President on the Democratic ticket, by Joseph Ohl; and in the same magazine appears a study of "A Conscientious Boss: Charles S. Deneen, of Illinois," by Arthur S. Henning. In our department of "Leading Articles of the Month," we have quoted at some length from Mr. Frederick T. Birchall's sketch of August Belmont, which is another feature of the September *Leslie's*.—Mr. Joseph M. Rogers writes entertainingly, in the *Booklovers* for September, on Senator Thomas C. Platt.—In the September number of *Success*, Mr. Albert Henry Lewis draws a comparison between "Jackson, the Democrat, and Roosevelt, the Republican."—There is a detailed account of President Roosevelt's aggressive measures for the prosecution of the postal frauds, by Mr. William Allen White, in the September number of *McClure's*.—Under the title, "Does Politics Pay?" Mr. Francis B. Gessner, writing in *Munsey's* for September, outlines the careers of a number of successful political managers, including George B. Cortelyou, Daniel S. Lamont, Elmer Dover, Milton Everett Ailes, Charles G. Dawes, and Francis B. Loomis.—The new Secretary of the Navy, Mr. Paul Morton, is the subject of sketches in three of this month's magazines,—the *World's Work*, *Leslie's*, and *Munsey's*. The *Munsey* sketch, by Mr. A. H. Lewis, has a place among our "Leading Articles of the Month."—*Success* publishes an address by Judge Alton B. Parker on "Educated Men in Politics," delivered at the Union College com-

mencement of 1901. In the closing paragraph of this address, Judge Parker makes known his views regarding the feasibility of non-partisan movements in local politics. He lays down the general rule that measures for the improvement of local government can be more promptly and effectively put in operation within party lines than without, but he admits that there are exceptions to the rule, notably in our great cities, and that situations may arise where independent movements afford the only method of accomplishing reforms. "The Cost of Presidential Elections" is discussed in this number of *Success*, by Mr. Walter Wellman, and we have quoted from his article in our department of "Leading Articles of the Month."—Among the August magazines, the *Arena* has "An Open Letter to President Roosevelt," by Prof. Frank Parsons, and *Gunton's* declares editorially for Roosevelt as against Parker.

The Control of Immigration.—Mr. James D. Whelpley has been making some original studies of the immigration problem from the European side. In the September number of the *World's Work*, he presents a strong argument for a system of international control in which the United States and the European countries, from which most of our immigrants come, shall participate. Mr. Whelpley has uncovered some startling facts in regard to the organized movement of undesirable populations from Europe to America. In the present article he points out, with great clearness, the physical and economic dangers to this country.—In the August number of the *North American Review*, Mr. Robert DeC. Ward had presented an argument for the restriction of immigration, somewhat similar to Mr. Whelpley's. Mr. Ward, however, advocates no very drastic legislation, but suggests that a law be passed limiting the number of immigrants from different countries, as has been suggested by Congressman Robert Adams, Jr., of Pennsylvania, or else that an illiteracy test be applied in accordance with the recommendation of President Roosevelt and the Commissioner of Immigration. In concluding his article, Mr. Ward directs our attention to a question which has received scant attention in most discussions of the immigration problem,—namely, the question of the effect of immigration upon our native stock. It has been held by students of economics for some years that the decreasing birth-rate of our native population has been, in large part, due to the effect of foreign immigration; in other words, that the industrial competition of the lower classes of immigrants and the resulting lowering of our standard of living have produced a voluntary check to the native population. American fathers are unwilling to subject their children to this competition, and, hence, children are not born. In the same number of the *North American* there is an article on "The Folly of Chinese Exclusion," by H. H. Bancroft. The fact that the Chinese are not patriotic, and have only limited personal ambition, which is frequently urged against them in discussions of the exclusion question, is cited by Mr. Bancroft as one of the best reasons for their admission, since they have no disposition to engage in politics, mob-law, strikes, or other forms of vicious unrest. Mr. Bancroft examines the various charges brought against the Chinese in this country, and makes out a very good case for his clients. Mr. Bancroft, it should be said, is an old resident of the Pacific coast, and writes on the Chinese problem from personal observation. The same thing may be said of Dr. Charles Frederick Holder, who contributes to the August number of the *Arena* an account of the workings of the famous Chinese Six Companies in America, concluding with a strong demand for the reënactment of the exclusion legislation, which will expire in December next. California asks for citizens that will grow up with the country, rear their children here, and invest their savings in American products. The millions of Chinese, mostly laborers, who live upon six cents a day, are, in Dr. Holder's opinion, a menace to the civilized world, and should be restricted to China.

Industrial Topics.—The remarkable development of the Mesabi iron mines, in northern Minnesota, is described in the September number of the *World's Work*, by Mr. Francis N. Stacy. These mines, discovered twelve years ago, are situated sixty miles from the northern shore of Lake Superior, and their first shipment to Lake Erie ports consisted of 4,245 tons of soft red ore. To-day, the ore shipment of the Mesabi range, during the navigation season of seven months, reaches 13,000,000 tons, enough, Mr. Stacy says, to load a modern fleet of steel freighters that would stretch 200 miles. One-sixth of the annual ore product of the world, and more than one-third of the yearly production of America, comes from this iron range. The Mesabi range, says Mr. Stacy, has produced almost as much ore in twelve years as the Marquette range on Lake Superior produced in fifty.—The September installment of Miss Tarbell's "History of the Standard Oil Company," in *McClure's*, is devoted to the price of oil. Her conclusion is that, when the freights and handling are taken into consideration, there is nothing like a settled price or profit for illuminating oil in the United States. She finds that, from the beginning of its power over the market, the Standard Oil Company has sold domestic oil at prices varying from less than the cost of the crude oil it took to make it up to a profit of 100 per cent. or more. Competition has invariably operated to reduce prices.

Recollections of Two Wars.—The September number of *McClure's* opens with some entertaining "Memories of the Beginning and End of the Southern Confederacy," by Louise Wigfall Wright, daughter of Louis T. Wigfall, who was a United States Senator from Texas before the Civil War, and a member of the Confederate States Senate during the war, and who was also on the staff of President Davis, with the rank of brigadier-general. His daughter's recollections begin with the fall of Fort Sumter, in 1861. The second and concluding portion of the "memories" relates to the fall of the Confederate Government and the disbanding of the Southern armies after the surrender at Appomattox.—The "Recollections of a Mosby Guerrilla" is contributed to *Munsey's* for September by John W. Munson. In this installment, the writer describes some of the principal fights, raids, and expeditions of this famous Confederate command.—The almost-forgotten suffering of the American prisoners of war, in the War of 1812, at Dartmoor, in England, are recalled in an interesting paper contributed to the September *Harper's*, by John Greenville McNeel. Pictures of the gateway of the old war prison, the site of which is now occupied by a British convict prison; the church at Prince Town, which was built by French and American prisoners of war; and the monument to American prisoners who died at Dartmoor, accompany Mr. McNeel's paper. The monument, which was erected by Captain Shortland,

who was governor of Dartmoor in 1865, is the only stone that marks the resting-place of long lines of American dead in the Prince Town cemetery.—Captain Mahan's "War of 1812," is continued in *Scribner's*, the eighth installment appearing in the September number.

Scenes in the Russo-Japanese War.—Most of onr readers have remarked the paucity of first-hand descriptions of deeds and exploits in the far Eastern war as compared with the flood of such descriptions which reached us immediately after the first stages of the Boer war, four years ago. Deeds of daring have certainly not been lacking in the present combat, but it has been more difficult than ever before for writers to get near the scenes of the real fighting. One correspondent, whose signature is the mystic letter "O," has written some exceedingly vivid descriptions of such incidents as the blocking of Port Arthur, in putting of the *Bayan* to flight, a fight between junks on the Yalu, and incidents in camp before Ping-Yang; and his papers are now appearing simultaneously in the *World's Work* and *Blackwood's Magazine*. For the sake of the insight that they give into Japanese character, and the revelations that they make of certain novel forms of military achievements, these papers are well worth reading.

Natural Science.—Popular expositions of scientific subjects are not wanting in the September magazines. The paper by Prof. G. W. Ritchey on "Photographing the Star-Clusters," which appears in *Harper's*, will interest everybody who has made a practice of star-gazing, whether with or without a telescope. Professor Ritchey's explanation of the technique of this form of photography will be found intelligible even by the amateur.—The *Century* has captured a paper, by Prof. Henry Fairfield Osborn, entitled "Fossil Wonders of the West," which gives the first description of the dinosaurs of the bone-cabin quarry, in central Wyoming, said to be the greatest "find" of extinct animals ever made. Professor Osborn's article is fully illustrated. In the September *Outing*, Mr. John Burroughs continues his interesting disquisitions on natural history. Mr. Mark F. Wilcox gives, in the *Century*, an entertaining account of the "Locusts of Natal."—Dr. H. C. McCook's study of "The Daintiness of Ants," in *Harper's*, is as fascinating in its way as any descriptive article that has appeared in a long time.

THE SPIRIT OF THE FOREIGN REVIEWS.

British Politics.—In the *Contemporary Review* for August there are three articles on English home politics. "A Liberal Leaguer," who avows the supreme aim of the league to be the maintenance of the unity of the party, forecasts the *personnel* of "the next government" as follows: prime minister, Lord Spencer; colonial secretary, Sir Edward Grey; foreign secretary, Lord Rosebery. He also hopes that the cabinet will include three "new men,"—Mr. Emmott, Mr. Lloyd George, Mr. Winston Churchill. He evidently wants Leaguers to be predominant. The reform of poor law administration, pressed for by Mr. F. H. Burrow, is the amalgamation under one authority of the staffs of the poor law and the school boards as regards overseers and visitors, and that children should be more considered than adults. Prof. John Massie denounces the alleged "concessions" and compromises proffered by Anglicans to Nonconformists over the education difficulty.—Mr. Iwan Müller writes, in the *Fortnightly* for August, on "Mr. Balfour's Leadership of the House of Commons." He declares that as the House of Commons has ceased to have any recognized code of chivalry or good behavior, it is impossible to compare Mr. Balfour's leadership with that of any of his predecessors. But, tested by modern conditions, Mr. Balfour has proved himself "a ruler of men and an inevitable prime minister."—The *Edinburgh Review* for the current quarter has an article on "The Liquor Laws and the Licensing Bill."

Spain To-day and To-morrow.—Tarrida del Marmol gives in the *Independent Review* (London) a very cheerful account of the revival of the Spanish nation. There is a real craving for education among the lower classes. Secondary education is also in progress. The economic condition of the country improves daily, signs of rapid industrial improvement are visible everywhere. The Spanish workingman is quite the equal of the workingman of France, Belgium, or England in intelligence and activity, while he is considerably more sober and temperate than they. In a few years, Spanish commerce and industry have been able to compensate for the loss of Cuba and the Philippine Islands by creating openings elsewhere, chiefly in South America. The writer, however, warns the rulers of Spain that, unless they wake up to the meaning of the ferment around them, the new life of the Spanish people will begin in a revolution like that which convulsed France in 1789.

Do We Need More Gold Mines?—Mr. Leonard Courtney, in an article entitled "What Is the Use of Gold Discoveries?" which he contributes to the *Nineteenth Century* for August, says that Lord Bramwell and he agreed that the utility of gold discoveries was of such a mixed and doubtful character as to justify some feeling of regret that they should ever be made. "Gold," says Mr. Courtney, "pleases the eye, satisfies the sense of possession, tickles the greed of man, but is of the smallest possible use in facilitating any reproductive work, in altering to the advantage of man the relation between human toil and the results of toil required for human sustenance." It costs as much gold to win it as it is worth, and probably, "after all, the one advantage indirectly accruing from gold discoveries, though this cannot be insisted upon with absolute certainty, is that they bustle people about the world and cause regions to be settled earlier than they would otherwise be filled up."

A French Denunciation of the Russian Autocracy.—Reviewing the progress of the Russo-Japanese war (in the *Revue Bleue*), M. F. Dubief, the French statesman, from whose opinions we quoted last month, sees nothing but losses and reverses for Russia if she persists in the conflict. "Already, at St. Petersburg, they begin to realize that it will not be easy to overcome such an antagonist. Moreover, it is

reported that the '*guerre à outrance*' party, among whom is the empress-mother, and which sustained Alexieff, demands the resignation of Lamsdorff, and even of Kuropatkin, while the Czarina untiringly seeks to influence the Czar for peace. During all this, too, the revolutionary movement is becoming accentuated, and the conquered inhabitants of Poland, Armenia, Lithuania, Georgia, and Finland are biding the ripe moment for open revolt. In view of so many difficulties and menacing eventualities at home, the persistent rumors that mediation would be welcome are not to be lightly regarded. Already Japan has made known under what conditions she would consent to end hostilities. Manchuria must be returned to China, Port Arthur dismantled, and Korea left to itself, which, of course, means that in due time the 'Hermit Kingdom' is bound to become an appanage of Japan. The question arises: Will Russia have the courage to submit to this humiliation, or, with the party of the empress-mother, will she elect to prosecute to the bitter end her struggle '*pour Dieu, pour le Czar, et pour la patrie!*' amid the accumulation of disasters, of hecatombs, and of ruins?"

The Status of American Labor.—An exhaustive paper on the status of American labor is contributed to the *Preussische Jahrbücher* (Berlin), by Dr. Albert Haas. There is no parallel in the United States, the writer says, to the labor party, hostile to the national and economic traditions of its country, which arose in the second half of the nineteenth century in the continental countries of Europe, and also in a less pronounced form in England, having for its purpose to gain political ascendency, by means of which it hopes eventually to realize its more or less socialistic ideals. For in our democratic country there are not the sharply defined class distinctions found in Europe. Here an able and ambitious workingman may rise above the level to which he was born. "Thereby the whole labor movement is deprived of some of its most valuable elements. An educated proletariat can hardly be said to exist; nor is there any discontented portion of the intelligent white voting population shut out from public life for religious or other reasons. As there are no leaders available for a systematically discontented party, so the tendency to complaint is hardly found among the American workingmen. Political discontent is no factor of public life in the United States." With our democratic institutions, the labor question in this country, is, therefore, not a political one, as in Europe, but a purely economic one. After thus defining the fundamental difference between the aspirations of European and American labor, Dr. Haas presents to his German readers a detailed analysis of the conditions of labor in this country, discussing labor unions, labor laws, strikes, arbitration, etc. He concludes by saying that "the attitude of the workingmen and work-givers depends especially upon the question of immigration. This question is again closely connected with the political and economic development of America, Europe, eastern and western Asia, Australia,—in short, with that of the entire world."

Japan's Duty, by a Japanese.—One of the prominent Japanese periodicals, the *Kiristokyo Sekai* (Tokio), contains an urgent plea that Japan shall carry on the present war in every way, even to the smallest detail, as becomes a dignified and civilized nation. "It is not merely to conquer," says this review, "but to conquer worthily." No matter what Russia may assert as to the war being a contest between Christians and pagans, "it is for us [the Japanese] to prove that the Russians, Christians in name, are not such in reality, while we, reputed pagans, must act as would become Christians. Japan must never forget that she is waging a war for the triumph of justice and in the interests of humanity." In another article in the same periodical a plea is made for better education of Christian missionaries, "if they are to be exalted in the estimation of the Japanese public as well as in that of the Buddhist and Shinto priests."

Politics by Machinery.—What a paradox, cries M. Benoist, writing in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, that the liberties of any democracy, won, it may be, with much blood and tears, should be centered, even temporarily, in the hands of a single autocrat, the "boss" of the political machine, the real monarch of the state! The effect of the machine in diminishing the dignity and authority of the legislature, and reducing it to a simple apparatus for registering the decrees of the caucus, is clearly brought out, and also its effect in producing a new type of legislator,—the man, in fact, who is content to do as he is told blindly. The story of the candidate who cheerfully promised to vote for the abolition of the April moon is probably apocryphal, but M. Benoist's story of the candidate who consented with alacrity to vote for the repeal of the Ten Commandments is absolutely historical. The candidate had not, it is true, heard the question very clearly, but he was quite ready to vote for the abolition of anything that might be suggested. Another effect of the machine is, of course, to falsify public opinion, and this brings us to the professional politician, whose history in America M. Benoist sketches in merciless detail. We are taken over the old ground of Tweed Ring, Tammany Hall, and so on, until M. Benoist comes to the general question, will the political life of democracy remain a series of spasmodic electoral movements, mechanically provoked and propagated, or will it develop one day into an organized whole, as the Americans themselves wish? M. Benoist's remedy is apparently that the democracy should organize itself in each country, and should not suffer itself to be organized from the top by some audacious Napoleon of political management.

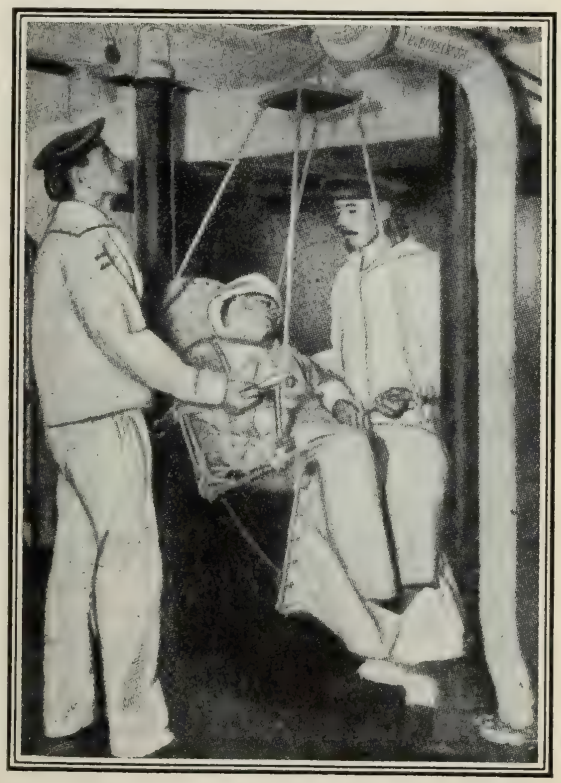
How the Common Soldier Has Improved.—A rather significant characterization of the modern soldier is quoted, in the *Pall Mall Magazine*, from an interview with Lord Roberts, the veteran British commander. Of the private soldier to-day, Lord Roberts said: "The period of the drunken, dissolute, and improvident soldier is past; it can never come back. The modern soldier is steady, self-respecting, painstaking, and clean-minded. He takes trouble with himself. He is anxious to get on. He is provident and ambitious. The change in the private soldier of late years is extraordinary; and, mark you, far from having lost any of the dash and spirit of his more dissolute predecessors, he is a keener and more efficient fighting man, and *just as brave*."

Socialism in Japan.—A French writer, M. Jean Longuet, in *La Revue*, considers Japanese socialism in two long papers. He shows the Japanese in a very different light from that of the eternally smiling, purring

little people usually described by the European writer on the Mikado's subjects. Japanese manufactures have grown, but socialism has grown with them,—socialism and suffering for the great mass of the Japanese. "From almost every one being poor and no one miserable," Japan has become a country where most of the proletariat is at present reduced to a state of distress "which compares very well with the lot of the inhabitants of the gloomiest hovels of the East End of London, of the most wretched quarters of Roubaix or Glasgow, of New York, Chicago, or Pittsburg." Salaries are miserable. According to the *People's Journal* (Tokio), in February last they averaged from 75 centimes, or about 7*d.*, for an eleven-hour day (cotton-weavers), to 42 centimes (glass-makers) for a ten-hour day. There are no workmen's compensation or protecting acts, not even in mines, nor any regulations against excessive hours for women and children, or the employment of children below a certain age. During a strike, last year, of twenty thousand workers, martial law was proclaimed. In the Tokio arsenal, thirteen thousand workers, including two thousand women, are employed, in deplorable sanitary conditions, working from twelve to sixteen hours a day. Since 1882, an increasing amount of socialistic agitation has been going on in Japan. Henry George's "Progress and Poverty" was brought to Japan and translated into the vernacular. The first work of the Socialists was to organize the different trades into properly constituted unions. Since 1898, there has been a purely socialistic Japanese journal, founded by Katayama, partly published in England for greater freedom of expression. In 1901 was founded the Social Democratic party, which issued a manifesto as to its principles—abolition of land and sea force, equitable distribution of wealth, equal political rights, etc. The result was that the prime minister, Katsura, decided to suppress the Social Democratic party and confiscate the number of the Socialist organ containing its programme and those of five other daily papers which had published it. Open-air meetings were forbidden, and the Socialist propaganda hindered in every possible way. Nevertheless, the Socialists continued their agitation, especially that in favor of universal suffrage.

What France Will Do in Morocco.—The probable policy of France in Morocco is outlined, in the *National Review* (London), by Eugéne Etienne, vice-president of the French Chamber of Deputies, and president of the Foreign Affairs and Colonial Group. M. Etienne declares that French influence has already begun to show itself actively in Morocco, and he believes that there is no danger whatever that, seconded as she is by England, France's policy runs any risk of being thwarted by the other powers. Referring to the provision in the Anglo-French agreement that the republic should come to an understanding with Spain, M. Etienne declares that, whatever may be the result of the agreement, there will be no dismemberment of Morocco or any division of political influence therein. France's intention, he declares, is "to make her mission a reality for the general advancement of civilization and the material advantage of every country with commercial interests in Morocco." He fully admits the Spanish interest, particularly with regard to immigration, and declares that France will fully protect and encourage this. German interests in Morocco, he declares, quoting Count von Bülow's speech in the Reichstag, are purely economic. The first step toward the financial control of the country has already been taken by placing M. Regnault, a French consul-general, with two other members of the consular service and two commissioners of the Tunisian service, at the disposal of the syndicate of French holders of the Moroccan debt. This commission will control the customs which have been assigned as security for the debt. Internal improvements will be pushed, and the Algerian railroad will be connected by a line across Morocco to the Atlantic. Assistance will be rendered by the *Bulletin de l'Afrique Française*, the organ of French rule in Africa, and this will be supplemented by the *Archives Marocaines*. This writer strongly urges an early reorganization of the Moroccan army under French superintendence, and he also pleads for a free medical service at the disposal of the natives, and the erection of a sufficient number of hospitals.

Hospital Service in the German Navy.—Dr. P. Miszner, of Berlin, has an illustrated article in *Die Woche* describing the way sick and wounded are cared for in the German navy. All the most improved scien-



CARING FOR THE SICK ON A GERMAN MAN-OF-WAR.

tific apparatus and appliances for the relief and comfort of the sick are in use. In times of peace, he points out, the chance to put patients on deck, where they can receive the fresh air and light, simplifies the problem considerably. During action, however, this cannot be done, but there are a number of appliances, including the swinging-chair shown in the illustration, which, with air from the ventilators, do much to alleviate the sufferings of the patients, and make their lot more endurable even in time of battle.

Regeneration of the Latins.—The French artistic review, *Europe Artiste* (Paris), in an article by the late Gabriel Tarde, expresses confidence in the regeneration and revival of the Latin race. It refuses to admit the alleged moral superiority of the Anglo-Saxon and Teutonic peoples over the southern races.

Tokio in War Time.—One of the correspondents of the *Revue de Paris*, M. Charles Laurent, was in Tokio during the first month of the Russo-Japanese war, and he has contributed to that magazine a picturesque account of the way the war news was received at the Japanese capital. It is true, he declares, that there were special war editions of the newspapers issued on the 6th of February, announcing that the ambassador had been ordered to quit St. Petersburg; but there was no excitement on the streets, no agitation, and only at the railroad stations, when the soldiers departed, were there any cheers. "I went out into the park of Asakusa. Mingling with the crowd, I lost my anxiety as to the national temperament. It was the same crowd as usual; just as gay as ever; just as active; just as polite; no insult to strangers, and no less phlegm." This writer came upon one romance of the war, involving both sides. The heroine is a little Japanese girl, of Nagasaki. At Harbin, she became the mistress of a Russian officer. Every day she noticed this officer spending long hours studying a map. She discovered that this was a detailed map of Manchuria, with all the Russian plans of fortification. This little patriot stole the document and fled to Peking, where she took refuge in the Japanese legation. She sent the map to the ministry, and it has proved one of the most precious possessions of the Japanese General Staff. M. Laurent also notes the fact that General Kuropatkin is familiarly known in Japan as "Kuropatukinu," which literally means in Japanese "the black pigeon."

English Imperialism from a French Standpoint.—A study of "The Doctrine of English Imperial Expansion" appears in the *Revue Bleue*. The writer, Jacques Bardoux, traces the history of English expansion since 1856, giving a list of the wars which the empire has waged since that year. Every year since 1856, he says, England has had troops engaged in some province of her colonial empire. Here is the list: 1856–57, expedition to the Persian frontier; 1856–60, the third Chinese war; 1857–59, Indian mutiny; 1858, expedition to the northwest frontier of India; 1860–61, second war in New Zealand; 1861, the Sikkhim expedition; 1863, expedition to the northwestern frontier of India; 1863–65, third war in New Zealand; 1864–65, Bhotan expedition; 1865, insurrection in Jamaica; 1867, war with Abyssinia; 1868, expedition to the northwestern frontier of India; 1870, expedition to the Red River; 1871–72, expedition to the northwestern frontier of India; 1873, war with the Ashantis; 1875, expedition to Pirak; 1877–78, Jowakhi campaign; 1877–78, fourth war with the Kaffirs; 1878–79, war with the Zulus; 1878–79, war with the Basutos; 1878–80, second war with Afghanistan; 1880, expedition against the Basutos; 1881, Transvaal insurrection; 1882, Egyptian expedition; 1885–89, expedition to Burmah; 1885–90, first campaign in the Sudan; 1888–93, expedition to the northwestern frontier of India; 1894, expedition to Central Africa; 1895, Chitral expedition; 1896, war in Matabeleland; 1897, second war with the Ashantis; 1897–99, expedition to the northwestern frontier of India; 1899–1900, second expedition to Sudan. And so, sums up M. Bardoux, in forty-five years, England has waged thirty-four different wars, of which seven lasted more than one year and eight more than two years. From 1884 to 1900, the acquisitions to the empire aggregated in round numbers 3,700,000 square miles, with a population of 57,000,000. England has had to expand, says this French writer, and he lays down three causes for the expansion: the actual value of tropical possessions; the vast surplus of English capital, and the crisis in metal industries. These causes, he declares, will continue to operate for some time to come.

George Sand and Socialism.—Apropos of the centenary of the birth of George Sand, an article appears in the *Revue Socialiste* (Paris), by Marius-Ary Lebland, on the great novelist as a Socialist. The circumstances of her early life, he declares, made George Sand a Socialist. Her unhappy marriage gave her an insight into the economic dependence of woman, and in most of her works one can find the influence of her Socialistic thought. This is particularly so in "Indiana" and in "Lelia." George Sand also did some political pamphleteering during her friendship with Michel de Borges. In addition to the articles of political propaganda, Madame Sand wrote the following, which may be called really Socialistic novels: "Horace," "Consuelo," "The Countess of Rudolstadt," "The Miller of Angibault," and "The Fault of Monsieur Antoine." Madame Sand was also stirred by the great revolution of 1848. Indeed, from an examination of her correspondence, this writer says that the February of that year was the beginning of her second youth.

Has England Cheated France?—An anonymous writer in *La France de Demain* (France of To-morrow), who signs himself Commandant Z., analyzes the recent Anglo-French agreement from a military point of view. His general opinion is that France has yielded much more than she has gained; that England has given up comparatively nothing of military value. He feels especially bad over the provision that France shall not fortify the Moroccan coast opposite Gibraltar, while England is permitted to retain her armaments and strongholds on the great rock. [She has held Gibraltar just two hundred years last month.] The famous agreement calls for a free passage of the Strait of Gibraltar. If, says this writer, the diplomats really wanted a free passage through the strait, the prohibition against fortifying its shores should apply to both of the contracting parties. "England and Spain preserve, on both sides of the strait, their strongholds and their naval bases, and, therefore, it results that the free passage is assured to the British fleet only." He believes that England threatens France under the mask of Spain. The latter country, he says, is incapable of the necessary military and financial efforts for developing Morocco. France alone has the stability and resources to accomplish this. But the Spanish nation, he insists, will be the first to profit by French work and sacrifices. It will be the Spanish peasant who will colonize Morocco.

THE NEW BOOKS.

NOTES ON RECENT AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS.

LETTERS AND MEMOIRS.

THE publication of Lord Acton's Letters to Mary Gladstone (Macmillan) adds one more to the list of books lately published on English politics and literature of the last fifty years, but differs from the others in being a distinct addition to the contemporary information on these subjects. The letters were addressed to Mr. Gladstone's clever daughter during Lord Acton's stay on the Continent, between 1879 and 1895, and with the exception of a few purely personal passages, are printed in their entirety. Covering a marvelously large range of subjects, the letters prove Lord Acton to have been a prodigy of learning. His chief interest in life was Liberalism, not only in politics, but in religion as well, and his letters reveal a remarkable accumulation of knowledge of economics, politics, and literature from that standpoint. The letters contain frequent mention of Newman, Manning, and other celebrated churchmen; of Green, Lecky, and Gardiner among the historians; and George Eliot's name can be found on forty different pages. An appreciation of Lord Acton, by Mr. Herbert Paul, who edits the letters, prefaces the text.



LORD ACTON.

The publication of the "New Letters of Thomas Carlyle" (Lane) will be of interest to those people only who are either close students or enthusiasts of the great essayist. The selection is made from an enormous number of letters addressed in great part to his mother, brother, and sister from 1836 on. These contain almost nothing of interest to one outside the family circle, as they chiefly recount only his hopes, trepidations, and illnesses. Those addressed to Dr. John Sterling, Edward Fitzgerald and a few others are not so personal in tone, but give so few opinions on subjects of general interest as to make them hardly worth our while to read. The "New Letters" will be of value, however, to close students of Carlyle's style and to those seeking intimate details of his life.



THOMAS CARLYLE.

HISTORICAL WORKS.

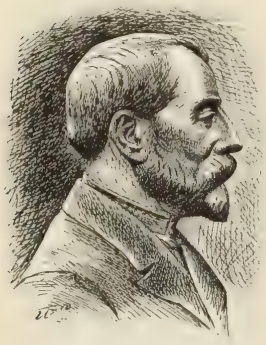
A monumental history of the world, in twenty-five volumes, as told by the greatest historians, has been compiled and edited by Dr. Henry Smith Williams, and issued by the Outlook Company. It is entitled "The Historians' History of the World: A comprehensive narrative of the rise and development of nations as recorded by over two thousand of the great writers of all ages." The volumes are handsomely bound and illustrated, and appear to be exhaustive in every particular. The first volume comprises the Prolegomena and the histories of Egypt and Mesopotamia. The bulk of the work seems to be made up of direct quotations from authorities, which, the editors assure us, are cited with scrupulous exactness. These are handled, however, in such a clever and novel method that the casual reader would scarcely know that the whole was not the work of a single writer. An illustration of the scope and authenticity of the work may be gained from the title-page of the history of Egypt, which shows that it is based on such authorities as Brugsch, Budge, Bunsen, Chabas, Lepsius, Mariette, Maspero, Meyer, and Flinders Petrie. The characterization of "Egypt as a World Influence" is by Adolph Erman, and additional citations are made from the old Roman Aelianus, the Bible, Biot, Champollion, Georg Ebers, Amelia Edwards, Herodotus, Josephus, Mahaffy, Manetho, Maundeville, Pliny, Plutarch, Savary, Strabo, and many ancient papyrus records. The subjects of the first four volumes which have come to our notice are: Volume I., Egypt and Mesopotamia; Volume II., Israel, India, Persia, Phoenicia, Minor Nations of Western Asia; Volume III., Greece to the Peloponnesian War; Volume IV., Greece to the Roman Conquest.

The eighth volume of "The Cambridge Modern History" (Macmillan) treats of the French Revolution. We have already several times called attention to the excellent, comprehensive, and scholarly character of these modern histories, which were originally planned by the late Lord Acton. This volume is a library in itself on that tremendously significant period in human history. The editors have digested and marshaled in logical sequence the vast area of facts which one must know in their proper relations to understand the great upheaval. The style, while not brilliant, is smooth and clear. This volume contains eight hundred and seventy-five pages, and is provided with an excellent index, bibliographical lists, and other useful supplemental features.

A STUDY OF THE BRITISH CHARACTER.

The work of Émile Boutmy on "The English People: A Study of Their Psychology" has just appeared in translation. M. Boutmy was a close friend and fellow-worker of Taine. His method of study is the same as that of his master. He traces, with patient French thoroughness and logic, the relation between British political history and the British national psychology, seeing behind a political system, as Taine did behind a literature, the workings of climate, geography, man-

ners and customs, religion and national ideals, all forming and informing the English people. M. Boutmy is a member of the French Institute, and has already written several works on this same subject: "The English Constitution," "Studies in Constitutional Law—France, England, and the United States." It is fitting that the introduction to this translation should have been written by John Edward Bodley, a corresponding member of the French Institute, and author of a very scholarly work entitled "France." Mr. Bodley expresses admiration for the thoroughness and fairness of the volume; but, he says, "while it deals with British institutions in their relation with British character and British life, every page shows it to be the work of an alien hand." The point of view, he says, is the one from which a Frenchman inevitably regards social and political phenomena. Mr. Bodley further believes that while M. Boutmy's work is primarily a psychological analysis of the British people, its most probable result will be to "lead its English readers to an understanding of certain points of French character which will never have struck them during their passage over French territory."



ÉMILE BOUTMY.

THE SLAV AT HOME AND ABROAD.

Dr. Wolf von Schierbrand's "Russia" (Putnams) is characterized, in the subhead, "a study of the present conditions of the Russian Empire, with an analysis of its resources and a forecast of its future." It is really, however, a keen dissection of the weaknesses of Russia and the Russian people. Dr. von Schierbrand has studied the subject from first-hand information, and it is not a cheerful future he prophesies for the empire. The last sentence in the book is a recapitulation of the whole, "Glory of foreign conquest is but a hollow thing when it means continued misery at home, when success abroad would be equivalent to neglect of urgent domestic needs." "Some of the chief reforms needed" can be brought about in either of two ways,—by concessions made from above or by a revolution. First of all, the bureaucracy must be abolished, but the present Czar has not the courage to take this step. As for the second alternative, while Russia's vastness will enable her to present an illusion of strength for some time to come, every Japanese victory is bringing the revolution nearer.

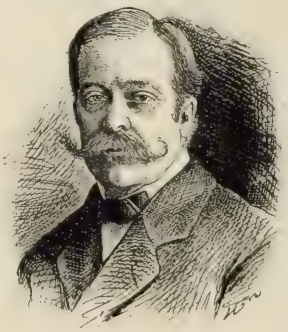
Quite a mine of information about Russia is presented in the book "Russia," as seen and described by famous writers (Dodd, Mead), edited and translated by Edith Singleton. This is a companion volume to the one on Japan noticed in these pages last month. It consists of a series of descriptions under the general heads "Country and Race," "History and Religion," "Descriptions," "Manners and Customs," "Art and Literature," "Statistics." The following well-known writers are represented: Prince Kropotkin, Élisée Reclus, W. R. Morfill, Harry De Windt, Théophile Gautier, and H. Sutherland Edwards.

Dr. Frank Julian Warne, of the University of Pennsylvania, regards the problem of Slav competition in the anthracite-coal mines of Pennsylvania as but part of the general problem of industrial war now going on all over the United States between native and immigrant. He sets forth his first-hand investigations and conclusions in a small volume entitled "The Slav Invasion and the Mine Workers" (Lippincott). He doubts the capacity of the American communities in the coal counties to assimilate the enormous influx of Slavs and Italians. The one bright ray of hope lighting up the uncertain future, he says, is shed from the activity, in these coal fields, of the United Mine Workers of America.

A third edition of William Dudley Foulke's "Slav or Saxon" has been published as one of the "Questions of the Day" series (Putnams). Mr. Foulke's book is a study of the growth and tendencies of Russian civilization based on "the certainty of the coming conflict between the Slav and the Saxon." The present edition brings the subject down to the outbreak of the war with Japan.

THE DISCUSSION OF ART.

A most sumptuous collection of Whistleriana, under the title of "Whistler as I Knew Him" (Macmillan), has been prepared by Mortimer Menpes. The volume is richly illustrated in color, with reproductions of the work of both Whistler and Menpes, and the frontispiece is a portrait of the master by Menpes. There are one hundred and thirty-four fine illustrations in the volume, which is really an appreciation of Whistler, the artist, by Menpes, his artist friend. The text is racy with anecdote and wit.



MORTIMER MENPES.

At last we have Tolstoy's theory of art unmarred by the hands of the Russian official censor, and excellently translated by Aylmer Maude, under the title, "What Is Art?" (Funk & Wagnalls). Tolstoy's entire theory is presented, and supplemented by various special opinions of the author on particular forms of art and on individual artists.

ESSAYS AND BELLES-LETTRES.

The Chautauqua reading course for 1904–1905 comprises the following four books: "The French Revolution," by Shailer Mathews, of the University of Chicago; "Ten Frenchmen of the Nineteenth Century," by Dr. F. M. Warren, of Yale; "The States-General" (part of "The Story of a Peasant"), by Erckmann-Chatrian, translated by Louis E. Van Norman; and "Studies in German Literature," by Dr. Richard Hochdoerfer, of Wittenberg College. It has been one of the boasts of the publishers of Chautauqua literature that their books have been interesting and valuable to the general reader quite outside of the Chautauqua educational scheme. This claim can be justly made for the books just issued. Prof. Shailer Mathews' "French Revolution" was written four years ago. It received much praise for its lucid style and comprehensive, compact

treatment. The translation from Erckmann-Chatrian's "Story of a Peasant" throws sidelights on the first-named book. It is the story of the events which led up to the great revolution, told by a peasant, in a peasant's words. The translator has preserved the flavor of the original. Dr. Warren names as the ten representative Frenchmen of the nineteenth century: Louis Pasteur, François Guillaume Guizot, François Marie Fournier, Louis Adolphe Thiers, Leon Gambetta, Victor Hugo, Honoré de Balzac, Émile Zola, Ernest Renan, and Ferdinand de Lesseps. These have all contributed to make France's supremacy secure, a supremacy which "does not rest on the might of armies, but on the charm of thought." Dr. Hochdoerfer has aimed to awaken an interest in German literature by presenting an analysis of some German literary masterpieces, with some critical comments and a short sketch of the respective authors. His style is lucid and suggestive. The four books are tastefully bound. They bear the imprint of the Chautauqua Press, at Chautauqua, New York.

"Connectives of English Speech" (Funk & Wagnalls), by James C. Fernald, of the staff of the *Literary Digest*, is a scholarly and serviceable book on a subject which is often vexing even to educated people. The derivations and usages of all connectives commonly employed, together with a complete index, make the book suitable for reference work.

The new collections of essays by Ian Maclaren, "Our Neighbors" (Dodd, Mead), contains some readable and amusing papers. Scotch wit, however, is not so taking in essay as in story form, and the general consensus of opinion will be that Mr. Maclaren's forte lies in his stories rather than elsewhere.

"Teutonic Legends in the Nibelungen Lied and the Nibelungen Ring" (Lippincott) is a translation of Dr. Wilhelm Wägner's version of the lied by Prof. W. C. Sawyer, Ph.D., supplemented by an introductory essay on "The Legendary in German Literature," by Prof. F. Schultze, Ph.D. It is unfortunate that Dr. Schultze has attempted so large a subject in such small space. The book is of interest, however, and can be recommended to the young in particular, to help them to an appreciation of Richard Wagner's musical dramas.

Two very useful books are "Lectures Commerciàles" and "Deutsches Kaufmännisches Lesebuch" (Commercial Readers in French and German), published by the Isaac Pitman Company. They are little volumes, with vocabularies attached. They are printed entirely in the language they wish to teach. The German textbook contains a connected narrative dealing with the commercial history of the country, its chapters interrupted by brief articles on prominent men or business houses who have been of importance to German commerce, by selections from consular reports, commercial letters, stock exchange or bank statements, and by a list of abbreviations and of commercial phrases the foreigner must learn. There are also given facsimiles of blank forms for many kinds of business activities,—customs, banks, freight, telegraph, etc., maps of various kinds, and other useful knowledge. The French book follows the same plan, only it takes the student through a bank and a department store in place of the history.

In his little collection of lyrics entitled "In Merry Measure" (Life Publishing Company), Tom Masson has given us some of his best humorous and satirical verse. They are all clever, and some of them go much deeper than mere cleverness. The illustrations are by several of *Life's* most famous artists.

SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC DISCUSSION.

"Wall Street and the Country" is the title given to a little volume of essays on recent financial tendencies by Charles A. Conant, of New York (Putnams). One of these essays, that on "The Growth of Trust Companies," appeared in the pages of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS, and our readers are familiar with Mr. Conant's treatment of financial topics through various articles from his pen that have appeared in this REVIEW in years past. The purpose of his writing here and elsewhere is chiefly to remove misapprehensions concerning the modern tendency to capitalization. He discusses "The Future of Undigested Securities, "The Trusts and the Public," "The Function of the Stock and Produce Exchanges," and "The Economic Progress of the Nineteenth Century." The paper on "China and the Gold Standard" is an outgrowth of Mr. Conant's work on the Commission on International Exchange. Like all of Mr. Conant's writings, these essays are careful and conservative in their statements of fact, cogent in their reasonings, and convincing in the conclusions reached.



MR. CHARLES A. CONANT.

An excellent popular presentation of the trust question is contained in Prof. John Bates Clark's Cooper Union lectures, published under the title "The Problem of Monopoly" (Macmillan). Admitting that the industrial system, having developed under a *régime* of freedom and competition, has become perverted by the presence of monopoly, Professor Clark takes the ground that the best thing to do is not to revolutionize the system by the method of state socialism, nor yet to follow the method of crude anti-trust legislation and resolve the great corporations into their constituent elements, but rather to retain the corporations for their efficiency, while taking from them their power of oppression.



PROFESSOR JOHN BATES CLARK.

A work entitled "Trusts *versus* the Public Welfare," by H. C. Ritchie (Fenno), contains a large amount of material likely to be found useful in the present campaign by speakers and writers engaged in a discussion of corporation evils.

A new and condensed edition of Adam Smith's "Wealth of Nations" has been prepared by Hector

Macpherson, the well-known Scottish writer. The text and language of the original have been preserved, and the entire abridgment occupies only about two hundred pages (Crowell).

"Scientific Aspects of Mormonism" (Putnams), by Nels L. Nelson, of the Brigham Young University, is the first of two volumes (the second is not yet ready for publication) on that interesting religion. Although Mr. Nelson denies that he has undertaken this work in a spirit of polemic animosity, there is a bitterness in much of his writing which largely detracts from its scientific value. It must be a hard task for a religious zealot to cultivate a purely scientific attitude toward his religion, especially when the opposition to that religion has been so aggressively active as to amount to religious persecution at times. For this reason it would not be right to condemn the book because of these unscientific lapses, as it is thoughtful and earnest on the whole. The first volume is devoted entirely to the religious aspects of Mormonism, the social phases being reserved for the second volume. We doubt if there has ever been any active opposition to the purely religious side of Mormonism, at least, in the East; the social aspects only have been zealously fought. But as Professor Nelson claims that the latter is a direct consequence of the former, only the appearance of the second volume will enable one to place the correct estimate on Professor Nelson's work.



MR. NELS L. NELSON.

"As a Chinaman Saw Us" (Appleton) is a clever, well-written volume of impressions of America and Americans by an educated Chinese, who does not give his name. It consists of a series of letters written to a friend in China, and cover a period of a decade spent in this country. While "a heathen Chinee," the writer is also evidently an educated gentleman in the American sense, and his comments are based on experiences in every grade of social and public life in the United States. Such an intimate knowledge of American life is betrayed that the suspicion grows with the reader that it is not an Oriental who writes, but an American disguising his identity that he may the better and more keenly criticise the foibles of his countrymen and countrywomen. There is much of praise, however.

An unusually illuminating and graphic book is B. L. Putnam Weale's "Manchu and Muscovite" (Macmillan). It consists of letters from Manchuria written during the latter part of 1903. Mr. Weale's accounts show a really remarkable insight into conditions and prospects. He has prophesied with remarkable accuracy the early incidents and the general course of the war. "The milk in the cocoanut," says Mr. Weale, "is that the Russians have developed Manchuria for the benefit, perhaps of the Chinese, perhaps of the Japanese, but certainly not of themselves. Their colonists simply cannot find a livelihood in competition with the Chinese. Twenty millions of hardy Chinese, infinitely superior in intelligence to the Russians, are so absolutely in possession of the country and its resources that it is hopeless for Russia to colonize it."

SEVERAL NEW NOVELS.

At this time, when the city of St. Louis is brought so prominently before the public, a novel of old St. Louis at the time of the Louisiana Purchase as a background is not untimely. "The Rose of Old St. Louis" (Century), by Mary Dillon, is a love-story from cover to cover; moreover, it brings in the personages involved in the Louisiana Purchase negotiations in such a way as to make the story of real historic value.

A new set of stories entitled "The Givers" (Harpers), which Mary E. Wilkins Freeman has just given the public, does not come up to the high standard which Mrs. Freeman set for herself some years ago. There is an exaggeration of New England peculiarities in many of the characters which we do not recall in her earlier work.

Used as we have been to the mining story with its stereotyped background of dice, playing cards, and whiskey, the new novel by Elizabeth Robins, "The Magnetic North" (Stokes), comes as a distinct innovation and delight. There is another side of mining life other than the brothel. There are miners in whose mental processes, as well as in whose adventures, we can find interest, and Miss Robins' experience in Alaska has fitted her to tell us this in a forceful manner.

A new book which has much of the charm of "Elizabeth and Her German Garden," but with considerably more story, appears anonymously under the title of "The Woman Errant" (Macmillan). Those who have read "The Garden of a Commuter's Wife" and the "People of the Whirlpool," by the same author, will greet the new book heartily. It is not only well written, but it is wholesome and womanly, combining a good deal of plain philosophy with a first-rate story.

A story of great depths of pathos, of the beautiful, simple fisherfolk and their life on the coast of Labrador, is Norman Duncan's "Doctor Luke, of the Labrador" (Revell). It is real literature. Mr. Duncan, who is professor of Rhetoric and English at the Washington and Jefferson University, has taken the Newfoundland and Labrador coasts for his literary field. He knows the hearts and lives of the fisherfolk as an open book. Moreover, he knows the sea and its relations to man. The story is announced for the early fall.

A pleasant afternoon can be spent with "The Little Vanities of Mrs. Whittaker" (Funk & Wagnalls), by John Strange Winter. This is a story of a prosperous English upper middle-class family, and of its ambitious head and mother; a comedy from cover to cover.

Any serious programme for the elevation of the American stage deserves attention in these degenerate days. Mr. Hamlin Garland has such a programme, and he has chosen to employ a novel, "The Light of the Star" (Harpers), as his medium for propaganda. Even if the book should not succeed in its chief mission, it may at least serve to disillusionize some of those interesting young persons who need only to be introduced to the stern realities behind the scenes of the modern theater.

A book of genuine Western yarns is "Uncle Mac's Nebrasky," by William R. Lighton (Holt). "Uncle Mac" was one of the pioneers of '55. Indian fights and other lively frontier experiences form the burden of his narrations, but the attraction of the book lies in the homely shrewdness and humor of the story-teller himself.

THE AMERICAN MONTHLY REVIEW OF REVIEWS.
EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW.

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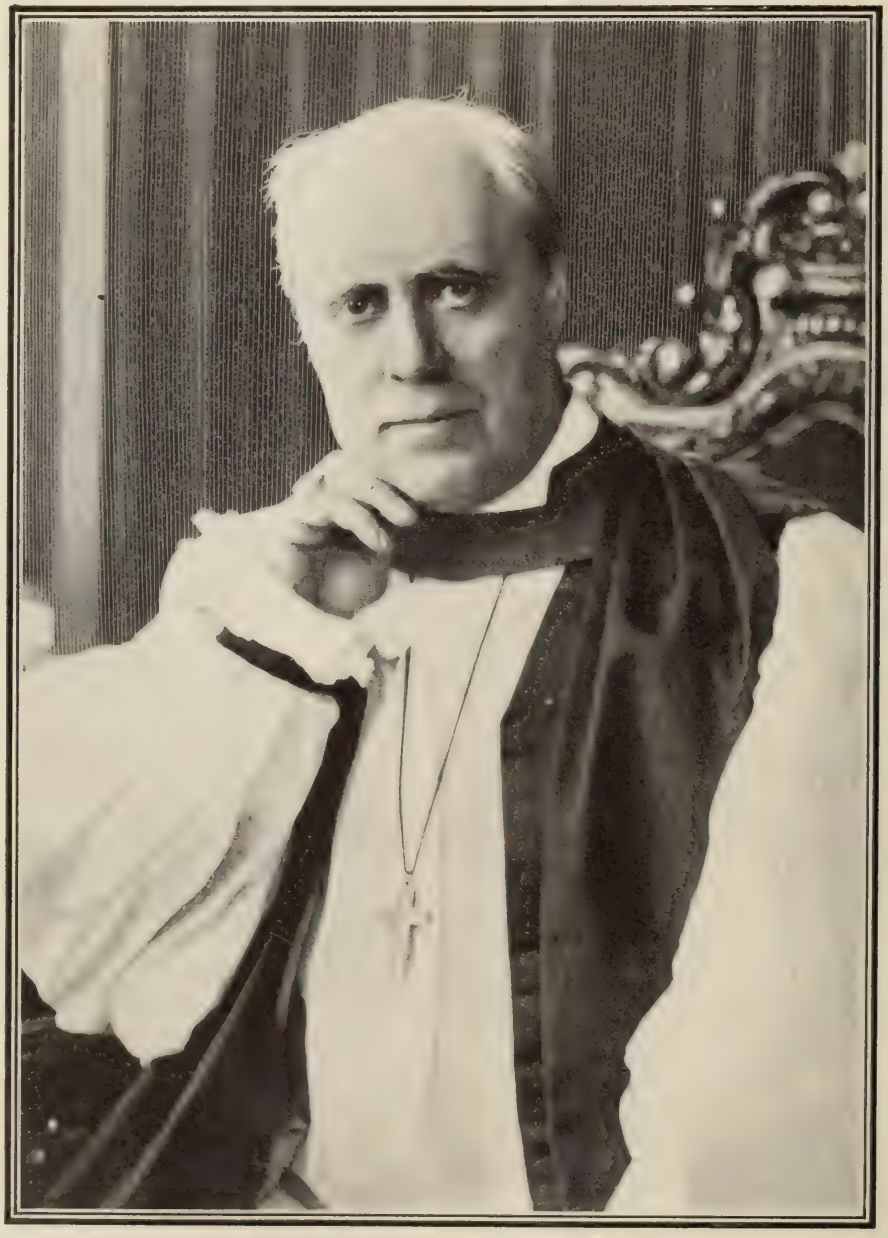
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THE RT. REV. RANDALL THOMAS DAVIDSON, ARCHBISHOP OF CANTERBURY.

(Who is now in the United States, and who will participate in the Triennial Conference of the Protestant Episcopal Church, at Boston, beginning October 5.)

THE AMERICAN MONTHLY

Review of Reviews.

VOL. XXX. NEW YORK, OCTOBER, 1904. No. 4.

THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

Opening the Public Schools.

The chief autumnal event in American life is the opening of the public schools. This autumn, they have opened more auspiciously than ever before. Never before has there been so prevalent the feeling that upon the successful work of the schools depends the future character and well-being of the nation. The past summer has witnessed a vast and polyglot immigration into this country. The task of assimilating the new population would be almost hopeless without the public schools. The recent growth of New York City has been at an astounding pace, and many great metropolitan problems have had to be faced. Of all New York's public tasks, that of the supply of school facilities in sufficient quantity and of the right sort has been the foremost and the most urgent. The new enrollment of children in New York schools is about 600,000. The additional sittings provided in new buildings to be opened during the year 1904 will have amounted to 60,000; and as the schoolhouses are not sufficient to accommodate the enrolled pupils by 80,000, it follows that one in seven of the children will have to attend on the half-day basis. Happily, everybody fully agrees that, regardless of cost, the city must bend all its energies toward providing good schools for all the children, and this same spirit is now prevailing throughout the entire country. In England, by way of contrast, the school situation continues to be distracted by the bitter fight against the recent Act of Parliament which largely increases the authority of the Established Church over the schools of the people. Many adherents of other churches are offering resistance by refusing to pay their school taxes. In France, furthermore, the school situation is complicated gravely by the unrelenting attitude of the government toward the schools that have in former years been carried on by the various religious orders under direction of the authorities of the Catholic Church. So large a part of the children of France were instructed in these schools that it will undoubtedly require some years to provide adequately for a supply of elementary schools under the full direction and control of the civil authorities.

Labor Conditions Improved.

Along with the opening of the school year, there comes from almost every direction the news of an improvement in American industrial conditions. The great strike in the meat-packing houses at Chicago ended by the surrender of the strikers,—the circumstances in this industrial contest, as in various other recent ones, being ably set forth

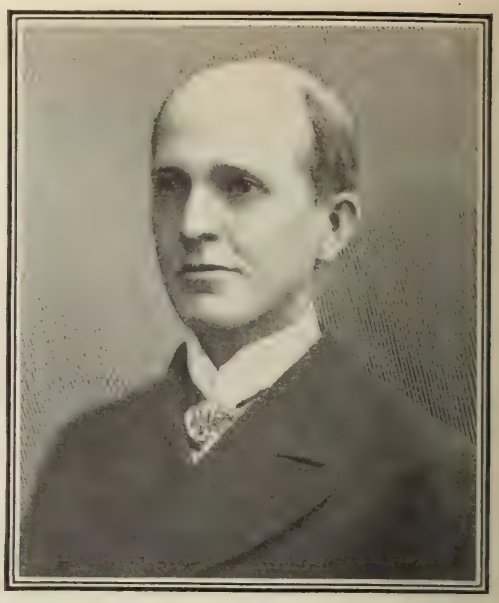


UNCLE SAM: "These are my standing armies!" (School children, 26,099,728; wage-earners, 14,753,766.)
From the *North American* (Philadelphia).



MR. WARREN S. STONE, GRAND CHIEF OF BROTHERHOOD OF LOCOMOTIVE ENGINEERS.

(Whose efforts at New York won a victory for motormen on the subway road and averted a strike.)



MR. E. F. SWINNEY, PRESIDENT OF FIRST NATIONAL BANK OF KANSAS CITY.

(Who was chosen, last month, as the new president of the American Bankers' Association.)

in an article written for this number of the REVIEW by Mr. Victor S. Yarros, of Chicago. A stubborn disagreement, which threatened serious strikes that would have tied up the local transit systems of New York City, was fortunately smoothed over last month by mutual concessions that were accomplished through the agency of several skillful labor leaders, on the one side, and some great capitalists, led by Mr. August Belmont, on the other. Mr. Belmont is at the head of the company which is just now opening the underground railroad system of New York, and which also operates the elevated lines. As one of the chief managers of the national Democratic campaign, it would have been embarrassing for him to have a great strike on his hands. Perhaps the labor leaders felt justified in taking some advantage of this situation. It will be remembered that under somewhat parallel circumstances Mr. Mitchell and the leaders of the organized coal miners, four years ago, through Chairman Mark Hanna, succeeded in making favorable terms with the gentlemen who controlled the anthracite railroads in Pennsylvania.

The Bright Financial Outlook.

There assembled in New York, last month, the yearly convention of the American Bankers' Association. A great number of men connected with national banks, savings-banks, and trust companies came from every part of the country. It was of the utmost significance to find them almost with one accord bringing from their respective States and communities the news of excellent business conditions, and of a promising outlook for the immediate future. The optimistic tone of these gentlemen made a distinct impression upon the metropolitan business community. Mr. Boies, a prominent New York financial writer and editor, contributes to this number of the REVIEW some valuable observations upon this bankers' convention. His article, together with that of Mr. Yarros,—both of them showing improvement in the financial and industrial outlook,—are important as throwing light upon those underlying conditions that must always affect the outcome of a Presidential contest. Other things being equal, the things that allay discontent are naturally favorable to the party in power.

Politics Somewhat Eclipsed by Science.

It has seldom happened in previous Presidential election seasons that so many other strong currents of social life have successfully competed with politics in claiming public attention. A very dominant public interest, naturally, this autumn, is the St. Louis Exposition. As was to be expected, its drawing power has steadily increased, and October and November are expected to be the great months in point of attendance and attractions. One thing that has diverted the public attention somewhat from politics has been the great num-



DR. CHARLES BASKERVILLE.

(New professor of chemistry in the City College of New York, lately professor in the University of North Carolina.)

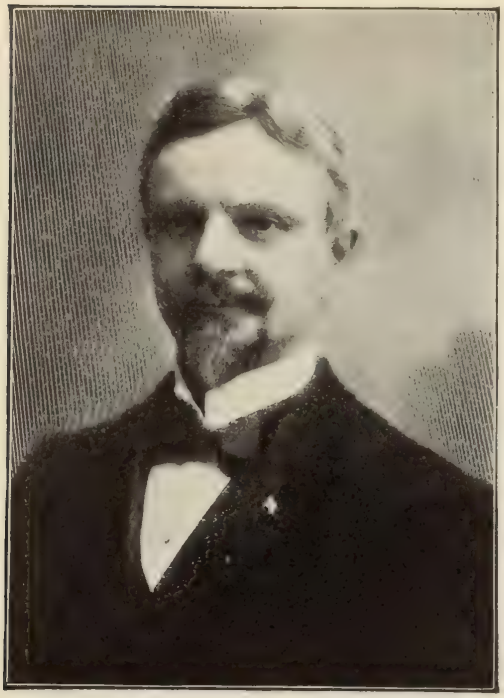
ber of distinguished foreign guests who have come to this country for a variety of reasons, but most of them drawn directly or indirectly by the exposition at St. Louis. The exposition itself was liberal enough to conceive the idea of bringing over to its scientific and educational conferences many of the foremost investigators and leaders of thought in European countries. The presence of foreign scholars has given especial interest to several gatherings already held, and will add similarly to others whose dates are set for the present month. Thus, the International Geographical Congress, which held meetings in Washington and New York last month, and about which a well-known expert, Mr. Cyrus C. Adams, writes for our readers in this issue of the REVIEW, was attended by a number of European explorers and scientific authorities of the first order of distinction. Similarly, the Society of Chemical Industry, which was originally an English organization, held its annual meeting in New York last month, under the presidency of Sir William Ramsay, and gave this country much that was fresh to think about in the great field of chemical research and of the application of chemistry to new forms of industry. We are fortunate, also, in having in this number of the REVIEW an article (apropos of this meeting) on the advance of chemical knowledge, from the pen of Prof. Charles Baskerville, the brilliant young Southern chemist who has just now come to New York and has entered upon his new work as professor of chemistry in the City College. Professor Baskerville is himself the discoverer of one or more new primary substances, or "elements," to use the chemical term; and he was a prominent figure in the recent meeting.

Some Famous Visitors.

Perhaps most distinguished of all the many esteemed visitors from overseas now in this country is the Rev. Dr. Davidson, Archbishop of Canterbury. In the feeling of welcome to such guests there are no ecclesiastical divisions. The archbishop will be a foremost figure in the triennial conference of the Protestant Episcopal Church, which meets at Boston in the early days of October, and of the results of which there will be some report in our next number. The Rt. Hon. James Bryce, who with many others has been attending the International Congress of Arts and Science at St. Louis, and who is about to give courses of lectures at Harvard and Columbia Universities, is on familiar ground and among hosts of friends when he comes to America. The announcement that the Rt. Hon. John Morley is also soon to come to this country has been hailed here with peculiar pleasure and interest.

Two Conferences for Law and Peace.

Eminent gentlemen from the continent of Europe attended the meeting of the Inter-Parliamentary Union,—this being its twelfth annual session,—which was held at St. Louis in the middle of September. It was presided over by the Hon. Richard Bartholdt, the well-known member of Congress from St. Louis, and among the speakers were Assistant Secretary of State Loomis and Congressman T. R. Burton, of Ohio. The meeting called upon the powers signatory to the Hague convention to intervene at the proper time for the purpose of helping to bring the war in the far East to an end. Its most important action was the adoption of a resolution asking the government of the United States in the near future to call a conference of the powers similar to the Hague conference, in order to carry still further the project of international arbitration. It would certainly be well worth while to call, at Washington, an international conference to deal, among other questions, with all matters that relate to the rights, interests, and duties of neutrals in time of war, and to procure a more general agreement touching such subjects as "contraband." A meeting on behalf of the cause of international peace is to be held at Boston dur-



HON. RICHARD BARTHOLDT, OF MISSOURI.

(Who presided over the Inter-Parliamentary Union, on occasion of its first meeting in America.)

ing the week which begins Monday, October 3. The gathering will be large, and will include an unprecedented number of distinguished European advocates of arbitration and of social progress and reform. Secretary Hay will represent the United States Government in welcoming the guests. The magnitude of the war in the far East, and the dreadful calamities that it entails, assuredly give reason for taking with the utmost seriousness such a gathering as that which philanthropic Boston is about to welcome.

An October Campaign.

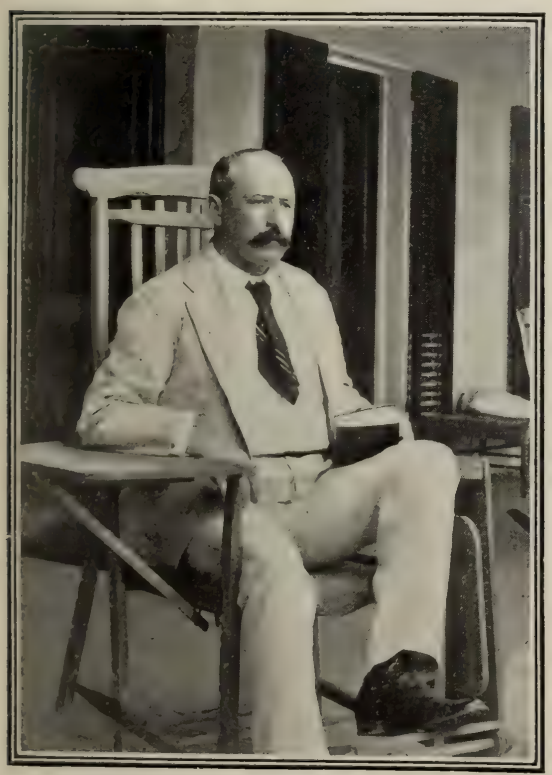
When the Chicago and St. Louis conventions were held, it was agreed on all hands that there should be a minimum of political activity during the months of July and August, and that the campaign ammunition should be expended very sparingly until the beginning of September. Later on, the date for opening hostilities in earnest was postponed until September 15. Finally, in the first week of September, the Republican managers agreed upon a further postponement, and October 1 was fixed as the date for the beginning of a period of active campaigning which should be restricted practically to a single month. In some former campaigns, we have had long and absorbing months of mass-meetings, torchlight processions, joint debates, and extreme party sentiment running rife. This year, by way of contrast, the political season has been apathetic beyond all previous experience. President Roosevelt, who is always prompt in everything that he does, could have issued his letter of acceptance at any moment when it was wanted for campaign purposes, but, although it was ready several weeks before it appeared, it was held back until Monday, September 12, nearly three months after he was nominated. Each party relies upon its officially compiled campaign text-book as the principal document to be placed in the hands of its workers and speakers. The Republican text-book was mostly written and put in type before the Chicago convention. It was not distributed, however, until about the 1st of September. The Democrats have been even slower than the Republicans, and their campaign text-book was not expected to be ready until the very end of September or the first week in October, the Hon. Josiah Quincy, of Boston, being the editor-in-chief. As for Judge Parker's letter of acceptance, which was looked forward to as his one great and final utterance upon public affairs and the issues of the contest, the date for its appearance was set as late as September 26.

Judge Parker as the Country Sees Him.

The campaign thus far has remained totally devoid of any squarely joined public issues. Nothing as yet has clearly disclosed Judge Parker's personality to the American public, and his selection of topics and mode of presentation have not revealed a very masterful grasp of national affairs, or any detailed acquaintance with them. But this was to be expected. Nothing has happened, or been brought out by his opponents, that in any manner takes away from the prevailing estimate of Judge Parker as an admirable gentleman of fine mental poise and political sagacity. But the progress of the campaign season has made more prominent the fact of his lack of experience in executive work, and especially the absence in his case of a background of experience and familiarity in public matters on the national plane. Thus, in discussing the question of trusts in his speech of acceptance, Judge Parker had said that his studies of the question had convinced him that the common law provided adequate remedies. Subsequently, lawyers of his own party called his attention to the fact that the common law has no application to matters of national concern, and that railroads and industrial corporations doing interstate business could only be dealt with from the national standpoint by virtue of the enactment of federal statutes.

Trusts and the "Common Law."

When this was pointed out to Judge Parker, he recognized his mistake readily enough, and it was understood that he would correct it in his letter of acceptance. The matter has importance only as illustrating a certain lack of convictions formed in consonance with the long history, at Washington,—so familiar to constitutional lawyers who have dealt with federal rather than merely State concerns,—of the struggle to bring railroads under public control and to find methods for the protection of the country as a whole against the larger forms of industrial monopoly. For more than thirty years these questions have been very prominent ones, and their consideration by able legal minds in both houses of Congress and in practice before the federal courts has formed a large part of the political and constitutional history of the United States. Judge Parker's experiences, having been confined to a local career on the State bench of New York, have so shaped his thinking that the national aspect of questions like those of the trusts happens to be unfamiliar. No one, however, will doubt his ability to adjust himself readily to the national viewpoint.



HON. ALTON B. PARKER.

(As he spent the summer on his porch at Esopus.)

"Self-Government" or Sovereignty?

Another illustration is to be found in Judge Parker's somewhat vague discussion of the Philippine question in his acceptance speech. He committed himself in that document to the idea of "self-government" for the Filipinos, and his most prominent supporters among the leading newspapers were divided in opinion as to whether by self-government he did or did not mean political independence in the sovereign sense. In order to clear up this point, he addressed a letter to the Hon. John G. Milburn, for publication, in which he declared himself for full independence, —not now, but at some appropriate future time. This does not differ, for any working purposes, from the position that is taken by President Roosevelt, Judge Taft, Mr. Elihu Root, and the Republican leaders. Judge Parker has, however, adopted the view of those who hold that while Philippine independence is a future affair, it is our present duty to express our intentions. This rather attenuated distinction may appeal to the hair-splitting minds of a few gentlemen of academic inclination; but people who are doing things and are in concrete touch with the real phases of such problems as we have on our hands in the management of the Philippine Islands know perfectly well that there is no real question involved in this theoretical discussion. The status of the Philippine Islands has already been fixed by the decisions of the courts. The intentions of the American people as to holding the Philippines were fully expressed in the campaign four years ago, when the subject was before the country. Judge Parker's discussion of the subject, as amended in the Milburn letter, savors somewhat of the attempt to do what Mr. Roosevelt terms "improvising convictions."



From the *World* (New York).

MR. PARKER AS HE APPEARED WHEN IN SEPTEMBER HE CAME TO NEW YORK TO DIRECT THE CAMPAIGN.

The Speech on "Extravagance."

Again Judge Parker had found an opportunity to help shape campaign issues when, on September 8, he was visited at Esopus by a steamboat-load of Democratic editors from different parts of the country who had been brought together at New York in order to consider how best to promote the interests of the party in this campaign. Judge Parker had carefully prepared a written address to the editors. His principal theme was the extravagance of the Republican government in national expenditures. He mentioned no specific instances of improper appropriation of public money, but merely compared the size of the budget during the past three years with its average size in Mr. Cleveland's first term. Judge Parker's advice to the Democratic editors was that they take this theme and ring the changes upon it through the campaign. As party fighting generally goes, this is as legitimate as anything else, provided the facts are stated fairly and not disingenuously. Judge Parker's presentation seems to come a little short of frankness, although no one will say that there was any intention to create a false impression. Thus, he cites the great expenditure of last year, which he gives as $582,000,000, and then says: "There is an inevitable result to such extravagance." This result, as he proceeds to declare in the next sentence, "is now a deficit of forty-two million dollars, instead of a surplus in the annual receipts of about eighty million dollars, which the present Executive found on assuming control."

Facts as to National Expenditure.

A fuller statement of our financial condition, however, would have to recognize the fact of enormous reductions of revenue caused by abolishing the taxes imposed at the beginning of the Spanish War. Furthermore, the exceptional outlay of last year was swelled by the inclusion of $50,000,000 paid to the French company and to Panama for the canal right of way. This is to be regarded as an investment rather than an item of current expenditure. The usual method would have been to issue bonds for such a purpose. Our government, however, was so well provided with money that it could make this valuable acquisition of property,—which includes the Panama Railroad, a large amount of canal excavation, and many other assets,—out of current cash on hand. This appropriation of money was made with the approval of the country at large, and was supported by the Democratic leaders of most of the States that will cast their electoral votes for Judge Parker this year. There has, indeed, since the first administration of Grover Cleveland,—a period of some twenty years,—been a very large growth in the national expenditure, but Judge Parker will have to go into much detail before he can convince the American people that this general growth of the budget is the mere result of extravagance, and that the Democratic party would take us back to budgets substantially like those of 1886, for example.

On Comparative Statistics.

Mr. Parker himself particularly invites comparison of the total yearly expenditure of Roosevelt's administration with that of Cleveland's first term. A more useful sort of comparison is one which would also include Mr. Cleveland's second administration. Speaking in round figures, the total ordinary expenditure of the Government in Mr. Cleveland's first administration increased from $250,000,000 a year to $300,000,000. Now, it happens that the average ordinary expenditure during Mr. Cleveland's second administration was $360,000,000. Every one familiar with the history of our finances is aware that expenditures would have averaged fully $400,000,000 in that period but for the fearful deficits in revenue caused by the failure of the Wilson tariff bill to produce anything like revenue enough to pay the most necessary public bills. The Government was obliged to sell bonds at disadvantageous terms, and, in a time of profound peace, to borrow enormous quantities of money in order to meet running expenses. Under these circumstances, it seems rather absurd for Judge Parker to invite comparisons in the matter of the management of public finances. The last four years of Democratic administration, which Judge Parker pronounces so superior in fiscal management, exhibited deficits exceeding $150,000,000,—an average yearly deficit of about $40,000,000.

How Figures May Prove Too Much.

If, then, as Judge Parker plainly holds, "reckless extravagance" is to be inferred from a total growth of the budget, how shall we characterize the wastefulness of the last Cleveland administration, when we remember that it used, in the ordinary expenses of administration, $360,000,000 a year, and by so doing ran in debt $40,000,000 a year, whereas the last Republican administration preceding the first Cleveland term,—namely, the Garfield-Arthur period,—had carried on the Government very comfortably at the rate of about $255,000,000 a year, and, at the same time, had piled up splendid surpluses of income amounting to much more than $100,000,000 a year, with which it paid off a large part of the country's interest-bearing public debt? Or, if the mere growth of the budget is to be pre-

sumptively regarded as due to culpable extravagance, what shall we say when we compare the second Cleveland administration with the first one? Judge Parker impressively informs us that "during Mr. Cleveland's first term the average annual expenditure was about $269,000,000." Why does he omit to tell us that the average annual expenditure during Mr. Cleveland's second term was $365,000,000? Nothing had happened to make any radical change in Uncle Sam's scale of living in the brief period between the two Democratic administrations, both of which Judge Parker praises for their superior management of Treasury affairs and their freedom from "reckless extravagance and waste of the people's money." Yet the second Cleveland administration was spending the people's money at the rate of $100,000,000 a year more than the first Cleveland administration, and, in order to have the money to spend, was borrowing a great deal at high rates of interest. There is precisely as much justice and value in this sort of comparative financial statistics as in the sort that Judge Parker presents in his address to the Democratic editors.

Uncle Sam's Scale of Living.

The general situation may be easily stated in a few bold figures. But for the failure of the income tax and the disappointing results of the Wilson-Gorman tariff, we should undoubtedly have seen in the last Cleveland administration a fairly well-balanced budget of about $400,000,000,—that is to say, national income on the one hand, and expenditure on the other hand, would have reached almost that figure. The growth of the country since that time, and the expansion of certain public services, have now increased Uncle Sam's housekeeping bill to a yearly average of about $500,000,000. He spent that much last year, and also purchased some valuable property with additional money that he had saved out of his recent income. Judge Parker does not in the least clarify the subject by trying to make it appear, when he mentions $582,000,000 as last year's expenditure, that the mere figures themselves are evidence of extravagant living. As respects the general increase of Uncle Sam's housekeeping bills, it will not do to say that this last advance from the $400,000,000 scale to the $500,000,000 scale is any more due to "reckless extravagance" than was the increase from the $300,000,000 scale at the end of Mr. Cleveland's first administration to the $400,000,000 scale at the end of his second administration. Doubtless, a small part of every year's expenditure is due to log-rolling methods in Congress, and represents some degree of extravagance. But it is well known that measures of that kind are not partisan in their origin or their support. Nearly all of the recent increase in government expenditure is to be accounted for, not by aimless or reckless action, but by the deliberate and careful adoption of certain lines of public policy.



JUDGE PARKER: "If I could only hook a real issue."
From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).

Naval Expense Increasing.

The naval bill alone accounts for more than one-half of the average annual increase of ordinary expenditure. The growth of naval expenses is not due to recklessness in the use of the money. It is due simply to the increase in the size of the navy. If Judge Parker is willing to come out and say that he would not only stop the increase of the navy, but would reduce the naval establishment to its size and strength in the period previous to the Spanish-American War, his argument will be heard with great interest. But certainly he would find, if he were at Washington, that if he were maintaining our naval policy he would have to foot the bills. Up to the present moment, this policy has been a national one, and in no sense a thing of party controversy. The platform that was carefully prepared on behalf of Judge Parker by his closest friends for adoption at St. Louis contained a plank just as unequivocal in its advocacy of the policy of naval growth as the plank in the Republican platform. This indorsement of the navy was in the platform as sent out to the country from St. Louis. Subsequently, in the compromises and revisions of the last hours of the convention, this plank was somehow dropped out. Nothing to the contrary was adopted, however, and there is ample reason for telling any intelligent foreigner who might ask questions on the subject that the recent policy of developing a strong navy in this country has had the approval of thoughtful public men in both parties,

and that it has gone forward with a remarkable steadiness, and with much useful and sensible coöperation at Washington, regardless of party lines. Let it be repeated, then, that this thoroughly indorsed national policy of creating a strong American navy accounts for more than one-half of the recent increase in Uncle Sam's annual expenditure of which Judge Parker asks Democratic editors to complain.

Growth of Army Bills.

In the last Cleveland administration, the army cost Uncle Sam just about an even $50,000,000 a year. This included coast defenses and all sorts of outlays under direction of the War Department. For as large and important a country as ours, the army was too small. It had to be greatly expanded for service in Cuba and the Philippines under Mr. McKinley's administration. It has been much reduced under Mr. Roosevelt's administration, and carefully reorganized under legislation which Congress has enacted with the most studied regard for the country's interest. The yearly expenditures of the War Department, including fortifications, coast-defense outlays, and other items, are now well on toward $100,000,000. The size of the army is reduced to the minimum point established by law. It is not likely that a Parker administration could materially reduce the War Department estimates. In other words, Mr. Parker's Secretary of War would ask for just as much money as Secretary Root or Secretary Taft has been asking for. Yet this inevitable and well-considered increase in the cost of the military establishment accounts for nearly all the rest of the added expenditure to which Judge Parker refers as indicating "reckless extravagance."

Postal Outgo and Income.

In those sessions of Congress when a river and harbor bill is passed, or an omnibus bill providing new post-offices or federal buildings for a good many cities and towns, there is likely to be some extravagance involved; but there is nothing in all the work of the government at Washington on so strictly non-partisan a basis as a river and harbor bill. It is to be noted that the newspapers which have a reason for wishing to make the current government expenditures appear especially large frequently add in the outlay of the Postal Department, and by such means they bring last year's total of appropriations up to $781,574,000. The rapid increase of free rural delivery, and the growth of the business of the postal service in other directions, have made a large recent growth in postal expenditures. Yet, in spite of the better service given to the public, there has been a corresponding growth in the postal revenue. Thus, it is always the endeavor of the postal administration to make the service as nearly as possible self-supporting. It now comes within, perhaps, 3 per cent. of that desired balance. In Mr. Cleveland's time, on the other hand, the postal deficit amounted to about 10 per cent. of the total postal receipts.

What Would Judge Parker Do?

Judge Parker is not, then, wholly justified in his view that the mere increase in the budget as compared with a period twenty years back can be cited as sufficient proof for his charge of reckless extravagance against the Roosevelt administration and the last two Republican Congresses. He must mention particulars, and say plainly whether or not he would radically alter the main lines of policy that the country has marked out. Uncle Sam is spending a large amount of money, but he is doing it upon a deliberate plan and system. He is not doing it through any reckless drift into spendthrift habits. He has the money to spend, and he desires the results that the money obtains. The one thing that Judge Parker has told us with precision and definiteness is his determination under no circumstances to be a candidate for a second term if elected this year. But he has also pointed out that even if he is elected the Senate will be sure to remain Republican during his term of office. Under such circumstances, it is not likely that his influence would avail to secure any change of existing military laws, nor is it probable that he could bring about very much reduction in the cost of the naval establishment, although he might be able to prevent its further increase. There has been remarkable and very valuable progress in a great number of the services of the United States Government. The Agricultural Department, in its varied and increasing activities, is, for example, costing much more than in former years: but every dollar Uncle Sam spends upon his Agricultural Department is worth a good many dollars to the people of the United States. It would be the height of stupidity to cripple such a department for the mere sake of trying to show that a Democratic administration could squeeze the government expenditures down to a point just a little smaller than those of the preceding Republican government.

The President's Letter.

The character of the work Uncle Sam has been carrying on, and the results that he has undertaken to secure for the expenditure of his money, are set forth with a masterly array of statement and argument in President Roosevelt's letter of ac-



ceptance, which was dated Oyster Bay, September 12. The document is not a short one, for it contains about twelve thousand words; but the reader who goes through it carefully will find it terse and condensed rather than diffuse. It is long because it deals with many topics, and because it embodies a vast amount of concrete information. On this matter of public expenditure, Mr. Roosevelt, having first shown the error of the statement that there was a deficit last year, proceeds, in a very spirited and suggestive enumeration of useful public services, to show the difference between a true and a false economy. Mr. Roosevelt's mature and statesman-like grasp of the national situation has never been shown to better advantage in any utterance of his than in this comprehensive argument in defense of Republican methods and policies. Above all, it is refreshing in its directness, its freedom from mere platitude, and its avoidance of vague and ambiguous phrasing. Mr. Roosevelt, of course, is presenting a party document for campaign use, and is dwelling upon the virtues and good achievements of the party and passing over its faults and defects. Nothing else was to have been expected. Taking up the Panama matter, he extols the policy that has been adopted and that has passed into history, and declares that his opponents can only criticise what has been done by first misstating the facts. He presents with fine cumulative effect the record of achievement in foreign policy.

Cross-Examining the Plaintiff.

The stage has been reached in the campaign where the country would like direct statements on the part of the gentlemen who are asking it to repudiate Mr. Roosevelt in order to put the reins of authority into their hands. Mr. Roosevelt, at least, appears to take the country entirely into his confidence. He tells what he believes and intends. The country would now like to know what the gentlemen of the opposition believe and intend. There must be some chance, in other words, to cross-examine the plaintiff. Would they sell the ships and discharge the enlisted men of the navy, and close the Naval Academy at Annapolis? Would they change the present law which fixes the minimum of the army, and reduce the force to the status that preceded the year 1898? If so, they would have to abandon the fortification and coast-defense policy which was the one great hobby of their former mentor, Samuel J. Tilden. They are trying to make scandal out of the acquisition of the Panama Canal property and to put the President in the position of a violator of law and of international good faith in that business. Obviously, the President was carrying out the instructions of law as embodied in the statute authorizing him to secure a Panama right of way if possible.

Panama a Non-Partisan Policy.

The Panama Canal solution has been accepted by the country, and by all the nations of the world, including Colombia itself, as a fact of history as little revocable as the Louisiana Purchase. What practical object has the "Constitution Club" in mind in slurring the President of the United States and casting reflections upon our State Department and our government in the matter of this Panama solution? It was, in fact, a non-partisan, patriotic, solution,—one which either party would have given almost anything to have been able to claim for itself as a party



PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT AS A PHRENOLOGIST.

"It is difficult to find out from our opponents what are the real issues upon which they propose to wage this campaign."—Roosevelt's letter of acceptance.

From the *News* (Nashville).

triumph. One of the best things about it was the evidence it gave that the people of this country are not so party-bound that they cannot from time to time act together sensibly in the accomplishment of a beneficent plan. It was the public opinion of the country, Democratic as well as Republican, that supported President Roosevelt in the honest, business-like, and loyal proceedings which have resulted in our entering upon the great Panama project. The President's position upon the supremacy of the Government and its relation to interstate commerce and the trust question is so well known that it is not necessary to do more than refer here to the restatement in his letter of what has been attempted in that direction, and also in the endeavor to secure justice and fair play for all citizens at home or abroad, regardless of race, creed, or economic condition.

Just What Is "Order No. 78?"

Some of those who have attacked Mr. Roosevelt on account of his pension order have managed to spread the impression that it is an order which places all veterans of sixty-two years of age on the pension roll. This is not the case. The pension order does not put all veterans of sixty-two on the government pay-list. It does not, indeed, put anybody on the list. It has no bearing upon any cases excepting those of manual workers dependent upon their own efforts who come forward with affidavits and positive evidence to the effect that they are partially disabled. In those cases, the Pension Office, under Order No. 78, will recognize the fact of advancing years as in itself a general evidence of declining physical ability and declining opportunity; and the experience of the office in dealing with this law for, now, a long period of years has simply shown that it is fitting and appropriate to establish the presumption that one-half disability begins at the age of sixty-two rather than at the age of sixty-five. The issuance of executive orders cannot change the law of Congress; and Order No. 78 does not, in fact, entitle any man to a pension since the issuance of the order who was not equally entitled to it before. In other words, if the semi-disability for which Congress undertook to provide does not actually exist, the applicant cannot properly be put on the pension rolls even though he be a hundred years old. If there is any real question to be raised at all, it should be one that does not touch the executive order, but rather the practical way in which, under Commissioner Ware and the working force of the Pension Bureau, such an order is executed in detail. If the opponents of President Roosevelt's administration are prepared to say that Commissioner Ware and the officials of the Pension Office are crowding the lists with new pensioners who have no right under the law to receive public money, let them say so. Mr. Roosevelt remarks, in his letter of acceptance, that "the order in question is revocable at the pleasure of the Executive," and, he proceeds, "if our opponents come into power, they can revoke this order and announce that they will treat the veterans of sixty-two and seventy as in full bodily vigor and not entitled to pensions." The President holds that in order to meet squarely an issue that they have raised the Democrats must state concretely what they themselves intend to do if they get the opportunity.

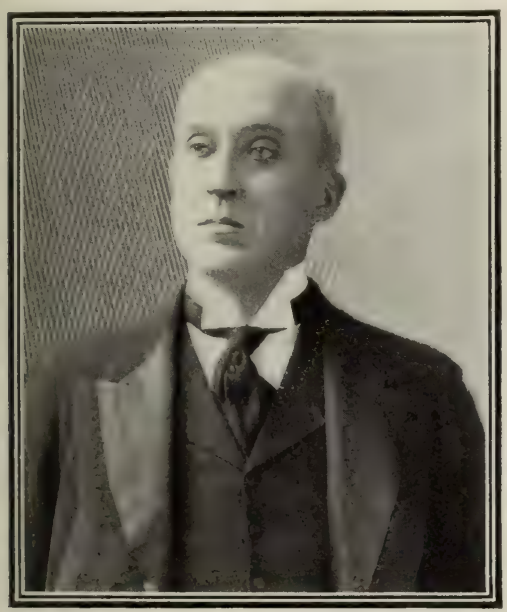
Roosevelt's Polemics.

In the President's rather extended discussion of the tariff question, he is avowedly controversial. He does not find, in comparing the various utterances, attitudes, and records of the Democratic party, any evidence of consistent intention as regards a tariff policy. He does not content himself, however, with throwing doubt upon the Democratic tariff position, but proceeds to present the subject in the light of his own present views. He believes in the maintenance of the protective policy, and in the rearrangement of schedules as conditions require. He makes a stout-hearted argument to show that the development of agriculture has been due to the growth of our varied industries under the protective system, and that the farmer as well as the wage-earner is to be regarded as a direct beneficiary of that system. His argument on the policy of the United States in the Philippines will not cause any relenting in the breast of a single member of the band of anti-imperialists. But it will impress the ordinary citizen, although, to be sure, the subject is one that was settled four years ago and is in no active sense before the people of the country this year.

Results in Vermont and Maine.

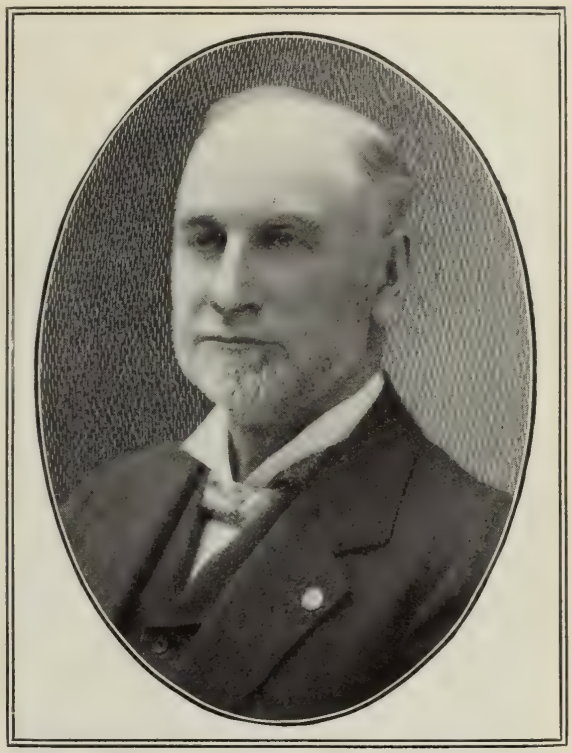
The Vermont and Maine elections, which occurred, respectively, on September 6 and September 12, were contested upon national issues and with the help of prominent speakers on both sides. It had been practically agreed in advance by all the political statisticians of both parties that the Democrats would have to bring the Republican plurality well below 25,000 in Vermont in order to feel at all encouraged as to the drift of Eastern sentiment. They were unsuccessful, however, and the Republican plurality exceeded 31,000, which was justly regarded as a very favorable sign of a general Roosevelt victory in November. Governor-elect Bell received 48,077

votes, and Mr. Porter, the Democratic nominee, polled 16,521. Even more importance was attached to the election in Maine. The Democrats had made up their minds to cut the plurality down to 15,000. The Republicans had hoped to maintain it at as high a figure as 25,000. It was the claim of the conservative Democrats who nominated Judge Parker that the great Republican majorities in the Eastern States four years and eight years ago had been rolled up by the sound-money Democrats voting for McKinley in order to defeat Bryanism. It was the prevailing argument of these gentlemen that



HON. WILLIAM T. COBB.
(Elected governor of Maine on September 12.)

the return to a "sane and safe" basis would bring all these Eastern Democrats back into the fold and assure to the Democrats, as against Roosevelt, a full victory in New York, New Jersey, and Connecticut, a possible victory in Massachusetts and Rhode Island, and the moral effect of greatly reduced pluralities in the September election of Maine. It was admitted that to justify the defeat, at St. Louis, of Hearstism and Bryanism from the standpoint of practical politics, the Maine plurality must be cut down to 15,000 or less. It is no secret that in August the Democrats were hoping to bring it down as low as 10,000. Party harmony had been restored in Maine, and there was no apparent local cause to prevent the securing of a normal party vote. The Republicans, on their side, felt that they must hold the Maine plurality up to 25,000 in order to make any impression upon



HON. CHARLES J. BELL.
(Elected governor of Vermont on September 6.)

the country. The returns, two days after the election, indicated a total vote of 78,460 for Mr. Cobb, the Republican candidate for governor, and a vote of 51,330 for Mr. Davis, the Democratic candidate,—making a plurality of 27,130. While, of course, this proves nothing final as to the way New York and Indiana will vote in November, it indicates a popular approval in the East of Roosevelt and the administration that is not likely to be completely reversed by anything that can be said or done in the month of October.

New York Republicans.

The political conditions in the State of New York are so complex that neither side can afford to rest in the assurance of victory. And since New York has so large a block of electoral votes (39), the whole of which may be carried one way or the other by the cast of a single ballot, the politicians all understand how well worth while it is to strive for so great a prize. It was a source of disappointment to many Republicans both in New York and throughout the country that Mr. Elihu Root decided that circumstances would not allow him to return to public life. He would have been unanimously nominated for the governorship of New York but for positive



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HON. FRANCIS W. HIGGINS.

(Lieutenant-governor of New York, who has been nominated for governor.)

declarations on his part that he could not and would not accept a nomination. Leading Democrats had privately expressed the opinion that with Mr. Root at the head of the Republican State ticket the Republicans would carry New York beyond a doubt, while with almost any other candidate running for governor it would be possible to raise a hue and cry against Plattism and Odellism, and thus to make the State probably Democratic. Mr. Root was declared by these Democrats to be the one New York Republican of great prestige, influence, and efficiency whose candidacy would not have been regarded as due to any influences except his own obvious fitness. His selection would have been ascribed to an overwhelming public opinion rather than to any political manager or managers. The withdrawal of Mr. Root's name from the list of eligibles led to the rapid elimination of all names except two. One was that of Mr. Timothy L. Woodruff, the leader of the Brooklyn Republicans, and for three terms lieutenant-governor of the State. The other was that of Mr. Francis Wayland Higgins, a successful merchant of Olean, in Cattaraugus County, New York, who secured the nomination.

Career of Mr. Higgins.

Mr. Higgins' official career in New York politics began with his election as a State Senator in 1893 from a district made up of the three counties lying at the extreme west end of the southern tier, bordering on Pennsylvania, these being the counties of Chautauqua, Cattaraugus, and Allegany. Incidentally, and for the benefit of young students of geography who are just resuming the year's school work, it is to be remarked that these counties of the State of New York belong to the Mississippi Valley. They are drained by the Allegheny River and its tributaries into the Ohio, and so into the Father of Waters. Mr. Higgins remained in the State Senate, serving four successive terms, until, two years ago, he determined to retire from politics. He was, however, nominated for lieutenant-governor on the ticket with Governor Odell, and was elected in November, 1902, to the office which he now holds. Mr. Higgins is admitted by everybody to be a man of excellent private character and untarnished public repute. His record in the State Senate was creditable in the highest degree. He belongs to the better class of intelligent business men fitted for the direction of affairs.

Is It a Strong Nomination?

It had been decided that the Republican convention at Saratoga should this year be an open one; that is to say, the convention itself should select the ticket rather than merely ratify a ticket arranged for it by the managers of the machine. It would be almost impossible, however, without a revolution in methods, to have a really free and open convention of either party in the State of New York. Where there is apparent clashing, it is between rival managers, and the members of the convention oppose one another only in their capacity as adherents of one manager or the other. In the Saratoga convention, this year, the Woodruff candidacy was backed by Senator Platt, and the Higgins candidacy by Governor Odell, who is also chairman of the State Republican Committee and the now unquestioned leader of the party organization. Mr. Woodruff withdrew before a ballot could be taken, and on his motion Mr. Higgins was nominated unanimously and by acclamation. In a negative sense, Mr. Higgins' candidacy is well regarded. It remains to be seen how much positive strength it can contribute this year to the Republican cause, and, further, it remains to be seen whether or

not the imputation that Mr. Higgins is Governor Odell's personal selection can be made to count anything against him with the voters. There seems every reason for the opinion that, if elected governor, Mr. Higgins would show decisive qualities. He is popular and esteemed in the western end of the State, and his chief deficiency, from the party standpoint, would seem to be the slight extent to which he is known to the voters in New York City.

Other Republican Candidates.

For lieutenant-governor, the convention nominated Mr. M. Linn Bruce, a New York lawyer, forty-four years old, Mr. Higgins being forty-eight. Mr. Bruce has not held office, but has been active as a political speaker, and served as chairman of the Republican County Committee of New York last year when Mr. Seth Low was running for mayor. When Judge Parker, on accepting the nomination for the Presidency, resigned his post as chief judge of the Court of Appeals, Governor Odell appointed Judge Edgar M. Cullen to that office. Judge Cullen is a Democrat, and has been on the State bench since 1880. He was designated by Governor Roosevelt, in 1899, for the Court of Appeals. The Republican convention at Saratoga confirmed Governor Odell's temporary designation by nominating Judge Cullen for Judge Parker's post as chief judge, this being an elective office. It was thought that the Democrats could hardly do otherwise than ratify this nomination of a good judge, well known to belong to their own party, although it was reported that Governor Odell had thereby embarrassed ex-Senator David B. Hill, the Democratic chief, who had previously mapped out a different programme. The Democrats, in their convention at Saratoga, on September 20, concurred in the choice of Judge Cullen, who will therefore succeed Judge Parker as chief judge of the Court of Appeals without opposition. For another vacancy in the Court of Appeals, the Republicans nominated Judge William E. Werner, who has been long on the State bench. Other names on the full State ticket are principally those of the present holders of the offices. The platform is orthodox in its party doctrines and praises President Roosevelt.



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MR. M. LINN BRUCE, OF NEW YORK.

(The Republican nominee for lieutenant-governor of New York.)

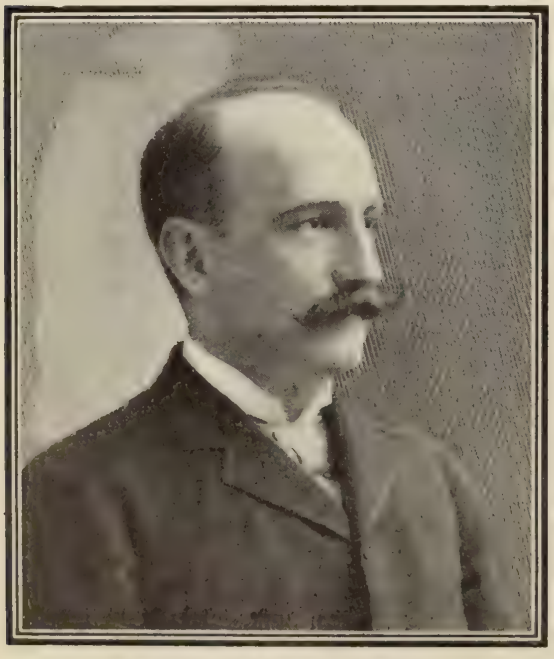


JUDGE EDGAR M. CULLEN.

(Who will succeed Judge Parker as chief judge of the New York Court of Appeals.)

New York Democrats.

It was evident that the Democrats, in their search for a winning candidate for the governorship, were waiting to see what the Republicans would do. If Mr. Root had been nominated, it seems to have been the plan to nominate either Mr. Lamont, formerly Secretary of War, or Mr. Edward M. Shepard. The selection of Mr. Higgins gave fresh impetus to the candidacy of Mr. Stanchfield, of Elmira, the unsuccessful nominee of two years ago, and there was a revival of interest in the idea of nominating the popular and aggressive district attorney of New York, Mr. William Travers Jerome. There was eager consultation among the Democratic leaders when it was found that Higgins would head the Republican ticket, and Judge Parker himself made a memorable trip to New York on the yacht of Mr. McDonald (Mr. Belmont's associate in the building of the underground railroad and in other large enterprises), where Mr. Parker established headquarters at the new Hotel Astor and held protracted conferences (stated to be of the most vital importance) with the national campaign leaders and the heads of the Democracy for the State and city of New York. It was supposed that as a result of these conferences the plans for carrying New York State had been thoroughly digested and the candidate for governor selected. The Democratic convention met at Saratoga on September 20, a week later than that of the Republicans. The great speech of the Republican gathering had been made by the Hon. J. Sloat Fassett in his capacity as temporary chairman. The corresponding oratorical effort at the Democratic convention was assigned to Judge William B. Hornblower, an eminent lawyer and public speaker.



HON. J. SLOAT FASSETT, OF ELMIRA.
(The orator of the Republican convention.)



JUDGE WILLIAM B. HORNBLOWER, OF NEW YORK CITY.

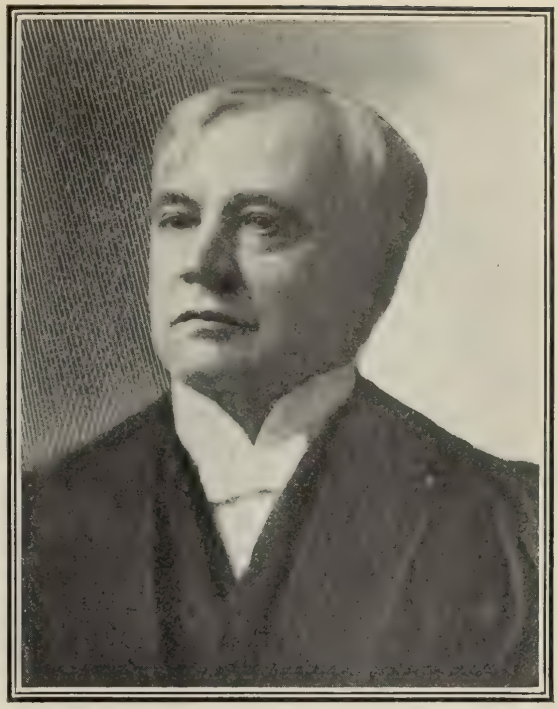
Judge Herrick's Nomination.

A candidate for governor was agreed upon only after protracted conferences. At one time it seemed probable that Comptroller Grout, New York City's chief financial officer, would be chosen, but he was opposed by Tammany. The choice finally fell upon Judge D. Cady Herrick, of Albany, for some years past a Supreme Court justice, and a member of what is known as the Appellate Division of the New York State Supreme bench. Before going on the bench, Judge Herrick was an active lawyer and a conspicuous Democratic politician of the city and county of Albany, where for many years he was the inveterate opponent within the party of the leadership of David B. Hill. Lately, however, there seems to have been full reconciliation. Judge Herrick has long been upon particularly cordial terms with Tammany Hall, and the final agreement upon him on September 21 was said to be due to the belief of Judge Parker and the campaign managers that the candidate must be a man in the fullest sense agreeable to that organization. For lieutenant-governor, the man selected was Mr. Francis Burton Harrison, now a Tammany

Representative in Congress, a son of the late Col. Burton Harrison, and of a mother who is one of our best writers of fiction.

National Prospects.

The Democrats are counting New York with their reliable assets. The Republicans have the State in their doubtful column. The Democrats can figure no way to elect Judge Parker without New York, whereas the Republicans feel fairly confident of carrying enough other States to elect Roosevelt even if the Empire State should return to its normal Democratic allegiance. Hitherto, the Tammany cohorts have not been zealous for Parker, nor have they been tactfully treated by the managers. Usually, however, before election time, Tammany is pacified by some sort of practical consideration, and so it is likely to be this year. More dangerous than the possible Tammany dissatisfaction is the scarcely veiled willingness of the Bryan-Hearst elements to see Judge Parker lose New York and the country. Both these leaders propose to maintain their party regularity and to give ostensible support to the ticket ; but the Hearst newspapers have been somewhat less than convincing and irresistible in their work for Parker. They have, on the other hand, treated the Populist candidate, Mr. Thomas E. Watson, with much consideration.



JUDGE D. CADY HERRICK, OF ALBANY.

(Nominated by the Democratic convention at Saratoga, on September 21, for governor of the State of New York.)



GOVERNOR ODELL AT THE SARATOGA CONVENTION OF THE NEW YORK REPUBLICANS.

(He is managing the New York State campaign of his party.)

Watson and His Campaign.

The only metropolitan newspaper that printed Watson's great speech of acceptance in full was the New York *Evening Journal.* Let us here call attention to Mr. Walter Wellman's remarkable tribute to Mr. Watson in this number of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS. In our July number appeared an article on the Republican candidate by a friend and supporter eminently qualified to present Mr. Roosevelt's character and his public and private qualities to the country. In our issue for August, the personality and fitness of Judge Parker were set forth by Mr. Creelman, whose relation to Judge Parker and his candidacy gave him better qualifications than any other writer. Instead of selecting as the writer of a sketch of the Populist candidate one of his political supporters, we have called into service the pen of a fair-minded but independent political writer, Mr. Walter Wellman, whose high estimate of Mr. Watson is, therefore, the more significant. It is not possible to make any sort of estimate of the strength at the polls that the Populist ticket will secure, but there is a fair chance that Mr. Watson may win the votes of a considerable percentage of the men who have hitherto followed Mr. Bryan devotedly, and of those who hoped to nominate Mr. Hearst at St. Louis.

Rival Party Management.

President Roosevelt returned to Washington from his sojourn at Oyster Bay on Thursday, September 22. He has kept in touch with the campaign situation, but has not interfered in any way with the full authority of Mr. Cortelyou as chairman. The operations of the Republican campaign have been carried on, under Mr. Cortelyou's direction, with a perfection of system and a lack of friction that may well have aroused the envy of the opposition. The Democrats have not been so fortunate in securing perfect system or entire harmony in their managerial work. Mr. Taggart, the chairman, has been under constant criticism, and last month he was said to have been practically superseded at the New York headquarters, Senator Gorman, of Maryland, being brought in as the real manager,—Judge Parker himself opening headquarters at the new Hotel Astor, in order to spend a number of days each week in close touch with his managers. It was understood last month that the Democrats would try to broaden their efforts and make them more aggressive.



WILLIAM L. DOUGLAS.
(Democratic candidate for governor of Massachusetts.)

In Eastern States.

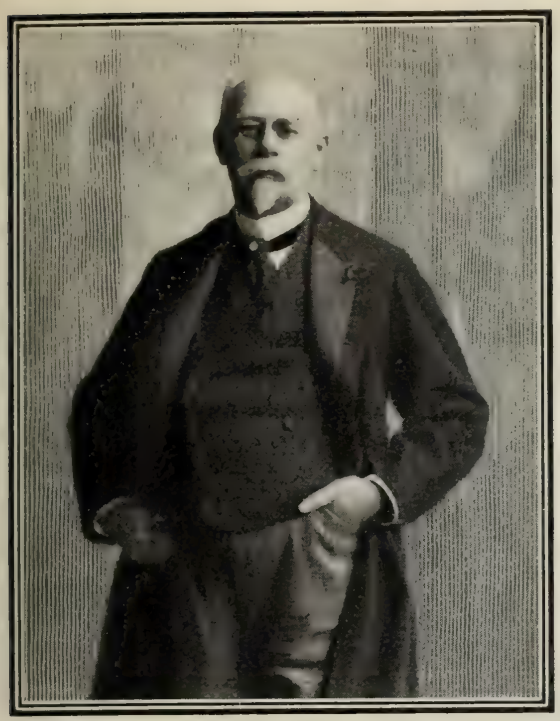
Thus, besides their fight in the group of States nominally admitted to be doubtful, they were planning to push the war resolutely into other States. In Massachusetts, they secured for their candidate for governor a very popular business man, Mr. William L. Douglas, of Brockton, the shoe manufacturer, whose face is familiar to all newspaper readers. The Connecticut Democrats, who will make a strenuous effort to carry their State, have nominated Judge A. Heaton Robertson, of New Haven, for governor. The Republican convention met a week later at Hartford, in the middle of September, and nominated Lieut.-Gov. Henry Roberts, of that city, for the governorship. The Bryan men are said to be not well pleased with the Connecticut Democratic ticket. Like New Jersey, however, Connecticut must be included in the forecasts of a Parker victory. The Republicans in New Jersey have nominated for the governorship a well-known State leader, ex-Senator Edward Casper Stokes. The Democratic convention had already nominated Mr. Charles C. Black, of Jersey City. In Delaware, the Democrats are running Hon. Caleb S. Pennewell, of Dover, for governor, and there are two Republican tickets, with compromise probable.

In States Farther West.

The prospects in Indiana and Illinois did not seem bright, but Mr. Taggart maintained his air of cheerfulness and confidence with respect to his own portion of the country. Great hopes were placed by the Democrats, furthermore, upon the situation in Wisconsin. They have put in nomination for governor Hon. George W. Peck, the journalist and humorous writer, of Milwaukee, who served as governor from 1891 to 1895, and who has many elements of popularity. The breach between the rival factions of the Republicans had not been lessened last month at the time of our going to press. There had been no decision rendered by the State Supreme Court as to the question what faction had the right to use the Republican name and emblem on the official voting paper. Governor La Follette's campaign is said to have steadily developed strength and to have won adherents especially from the Populists and Bryan Democrats. It is claimed, on the other hand, that, in order to defeat La Follette, many of the "Stalwart," or conservative, Republicans will vote for Peck on the Democratic State ticket, while marking their ballots for Republican Presidential electors. The State is strongly claimed for Mr. Roosevelt.



THE NEW HOTEL ASTOR, AT BROADWAY AND FORTY-FOURTH STREET, NEW YORK CITY, OPENED LAST MONTH, WHERE JUDGE PARKER HAS HIS HEADQUARTERS.



HON. GEORGE W. PECK, OF WISCONSIN.
(Democratic nominee for governor.)

Our Neighbors North and South.

Our neighbors to the north are on the eve of a national election, in which the railroad interests will play an important part. The Canadians are also soon to receive their new governor-general, Lord Grey, a character sketch of whom will appear in this REVIEW next month. To the south, Mexico is prospering. Her continuance of the Diaz *régime* is evidence of a desire for peace and commercial progress. President Diaz was about to start on his travels around the world, during which he will spend some time in the United States; and the REVIEW OF REVIEWS will have something to say to its readers about these travels later on. On the Isthmus, and in the new republic of Panama, quiet was unbroken, save by the hum of activity on the canal strip. Minister Barrett has been useful in enhancing the republic's amicable relations with the United States, and apparently with the rest of of the world, for the new little nation. The arbitrary action of the Venezuelan Government in seizing the asphalt lakes had caused some righteous indignation in the United States, but a satisfactory adjustment of the matter seemed probable in the near future. Several South American countries, notably Uruguay and Paraguay, were having serious revolts.

Recent History in Europe.

The session of the British Parliament which closed in August was not very fruitful in important legislation. The General Licensing Act, the campaign of Mr. Lloyd-George against the application of the Education Act to Wales, the ecclesiastical deadlock in Scotland over the "Free Church," and Mr. Chamberlain's preferential-tariff agitation were the topics of interest to the British electorate. Contrary to universal expectation, the Balfour ministry survives, but several by-elections have resulted in practically Liberal victories. Across the Channel, Premier Combes is continuing his campaign for the disestablishment of the French Church. Ambassadors have been withdrawn by Vatican and republic, and, while the Pope believes that his control over the French bishops is vital to the interests of the Church, and shows no disposition to yield, the republic, on the other hand, is evidently about ready to repeal the Concordat and bring about the absolute separation of Church and State. Holland has had her problems. In reopening the Dutch States-General, on September 20, Queen Wilhelmina pointed out the need for greater enterprise in competing with foreign industry, and declared that the finances of the nation needed strengthening. Germany has been enjoying a season of unusual prosperity, largely due, it is whispered in England, to the fact that German trade with the Orient has been permitted by Russia to thrive at the expense of English trade. Closer bonds have been drawn between the Russian and German empires by the recent commercial treaty. The Bismarck tradition has finally passed away from German political life with the death, on September 18, of Prince Herbert Bismarck, the eldest son of the Iron Chancellor.

The Near East.

As usual, "there is trouble in the Balkans." Outrages by irresponsible troops continue, and on September 17 Turkish soldiers sacked and pillaged the port of Salonika. It was announced in August that the Turkish Government had practically agreed to the demands made by Secretary Hay for equal recognition with the subjects of European powers of American citizens in Turkish dominions, with special reference to schools under American auspices. It is interesting to note, in passing, that Murad V., the Sultan of Turkey, who was declared insane and deposed twenty-eight years ago to make room for his younger brother, the present Sultan, Abdul Hamid, died late in August. It was generally believed that the political programme of the Young Turkish party included the restoration of Murad V.



QUEEN HELENA OF ITALY AND HER TWO DAUGHTERS.

(The little Italian princesses are Yolanda, born June 1, 1901, and Mafalda, born November 19, 1902. A son, who is to be christened Humbert, Prince of Piedmont, was born September 15.)

Italy's Industrial Crisis.

On September 16, it was announced that the Italian Socialists had decided on a general strike as a protest against a conflict between strikers and the police in Rome, in which two strikers were killed. The striking began at Milan, and several conflicts had occurred between the populace and the military, in which two of the gendarmes were killed. The day following, the reserves were called out by the ministry to reënforce the civil authorities. The heavy taxation, with its consequent burden on the poorer classes (perhaps nowhere so poor as in Italy), and the strongly organized, widespread labor organizations of the kingdom, which are practically identical with the Italian Socialist party,—these are facts which had made the friends of Italy fear that grave developments, perhaps even a revolution, were pending. The censorship on the news also indicated the gravity of the situation. The rest of the world will not soon forget the Italian bread riots of 1898, when literal civil war was waged in Milan, Genoa, and other cities for several days. The King and Queen are very popular with Italians, but conditions of life are severe on a large proportion of the population, and the little prince, who was born on September 15 and is to be christened Humbert, Prince of Piedmont, arrived in troublous times for his country.

Labor Troubles in Europe.

While the industrial situation in this country is improving (Mr. Yarros' article on another page of this issue recounts the signs of improvement), last month saw mutterings of labor discontent in several widely separated sections of Europe. The economic and industrial conditions in Russia are graphically described by Dr. E. J. Dillon in his article in the REVIEW, this month (on page 449). The Czar had promised a great many industrial reforms in celebration of the christening of the young heir to the throne. His appointment of Prince Sviatopolk-Mirsky to succeed the late Minister von Plehve may be taken as an indication of his desire to mitigate the rigorous policy heretofore pursued in the department of the interior, but keen business distress, and in certain sections of the empire almost revolutionary labor conditions, grow worse in Russia. The great strike of the miners and dock laborers in southern France still keeps Marseilles in almost a state of siege, and just as Italy, like Russia, was preparing to celebrate the birth of an heir to the throne, a strike threatening to involve the entire country had broken out in Rome.

The Affair of the "Lena."

The reality of the war was brought suddenly and with startling effect to our very doors by the arrival, on September 11, of the Russian auxiliary cruiser *Lena*, thirty-one days out from Vladivostok, in the harbor of San Francisco, causing great excitement among the Japanese on the Pacific Coast, and considerable speculation throughout the country as to the purpose of her visit. Was she endeavoring to escape from Admiral Togo's victorious fleet, or had she been sent out to prey upon American-Japanese commerce in our own waters? The *Lena*, which was formerly the *Kherson* of the Russian volunteer fleet, is a steel English-built ship capable of steaming twenty-three

knots, which would permit her to overhaul any vessels of the Japanese line or of the American and British Pacific Mail lines. She is known as a transport, but carries twenty-three guns. Her captain had announced that her engines and boilers were in need of repairs, and asked permission to dock at San Francisco. Admiral Goodrich, of the Pacific squadron, had at once notified Washington, and by order of the President a thorough examination was made of the Russian vessel, which showed her to be unseaworthy. At the request of and by agreement with her captain, she had been taken into custody by the naval authorities at the Mare Island Navy Yard. There, by order of the President, she was completely disarmed, and her captain gave a written guarantee that she would not attempt to leave San Francisco until peace had been concluded. The officers and crew will probably remain in San Francisco until some understanding has been reached as to their disposal between the United States Government and both belligerents. Thus was our complete and impartial neutrality demonstrated.

The Siege of Port Arthur.

The defense, as well as the siege, of Port Arthur will doubtless pass into history as one of the most remarkable of modern times. For five months, up to the middle of September, General Stoessel, the Russian commander, had maintained himself with a dwindling force,—originally some 40,000, and now, according to the best reports, less than 12,000,—against from 80,000 to 100,000 Japanese, under one of the Mikado's greatest commanders, General Nogi, a sketch of whose gallant career appears in this number of the REVIEW. Up to September 20, all reports which reached the outside world told of the suffering and destitution of the garrison. It was said that while there were provisions for a month or more, these were of the "half-ration" order. More serious was the shortage of ammunition, reports agreeing that the Russian fire had not been as vigorous as formerly, and that the powder was of an inferior quality, as the shots did not carry so well. On August 27, during a violent thunderstorm, the Japanese made a fierce attack on several flank positions, but were repulsed. On September 1, they attacked again, and were likewise repulsed, but on September 12 one of the most important forts on the slope of Golden Hill was captured. On September 16, General Stoessel declares, he repulsed another Japanese attack. The city could now be reached from almost every direction by the Japanese guns. Fires have been frequent, and many buildings have been destroyed. People lived chiefly in bomb-proof houses. Several Russian officials and a number of Chinese had been saying that early in September, when they escaped from the fortress, the Russians were prepared to blow up the ships and the town in case of a successful Japanese assault; also, that the besieging army was tunneling under the Russian forts, with the intention of blowing them up. The ferocity of the warfare at Port Arthur is described by Prince Radziwill, who recently succeeded in escaping, as almost beyond imagination. He declares that the white flag was spurned by both sides; that the wounded were abandoned, and that the dead of both sides lay unburied in the streets and trenches for weeks.

Was the Long Defense Justified?

The Japanese general staff has not concealed its belief that the fall of Port Arthur has been to a large extent dependent upon the departure of the Russian Baltic fleet for the far East. The menace from this now appears to be a negligible quantity, and, while the Japanese have not renounced the hope of carrying the fortress by direct assault, its capitulation will probably be brought about by starving out the garrison. Has the long defense of Port Arthur been justified? Captain Mahan, as quoted in one of our "Leading Articles" this month, believes that it has. It was a grave error, he holds, for Russia not to send the Baltic fleet to the far East some months ago, but that error has to a large extent been atoned for by Stoessel's stubborn defense of Port Arthur.

The Baltic Fleet Starts and Stops.

After the crushing defeat sustained by the Russian Port Arthur fleet on August 10, and the Vladivostok squadron four days later, the naval situation in the far East had remained uneventful until the actual departure of the much talked of Baltic fleet from Cronstadt. On September 11, the seven battleships and five cruisers of this armada, under command of Vice-Admiral Rojestvensky, began their long voyage with much pomp and ceremony. After a few hours' sail, however, orders were received to put into Reval, and at this writing (September 20) the fleet remains in this Baltic port. The ships of the Baltic fleet are mostly modern in type, the *Kniaz Suvaroff*, the *Alexander III.*, and the *Orel* being each of more than thirteen thousand tons, with heavy armament. The long delay in the departure of this fleet, and its return to port after sailings, have lent color to the suspicion that it is not as formidable as the Russian admiralty would have us believe. Supposing it to really sail for the Pacific, at least two months, and probably



Stereograph. Copyright, 1904. H. C. White Co.

FIELD MARSHAL MARQUIS OYAMA, COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF OF THE JAPANESE ARMIES IN MANCHURIA; MARCHIONESS OYAMA, LADY HISAKO OYAMA, THEIR DAUGHTER, AND TWO SONS, IN THE GARDEN OF THEIR TOKIO HOME, JUST BEFORE THE DEPARTURE FOR THE FRONT.

three, would be consumed in reaching the scene of the war, and there can be little doubt of Admiral Togo's ability to defeat, if not destroy, it in the event of its reaching the vicinity of Port Arthur. The British Government, meanwhile, had directed its outposts, colonies, or protectorates on the road to refuse any assistance whatever to belligerent ships on their way to engage an enemy; and, in reply to a charge that the Russian admiral intended to coal and remain at Corunna, Spain, for a longer period than is permitted by international law, the Spanish Government had declared that it would not permit a belligerent act by either power within its jurisdiction.

Great Britain Finds Red Sea Raiders.

After much parleying, the Chinese authorities had effected the disarmament of the *Askold* and the *Grozoroi*, the two Russian ships which took refuge in the harbor of Shanghai after the Port Arthur battle of August 10, and it was reported that the *Diana*, which took refuge after this battle in the harbor of Saigon, French Indo-China, had been ordered by the Czar to disarm. The cruiser *Novik*, which escaped from Tsingtau on August 12 or 13, was intercepted by Admiral Kamimura and sunk off the coast of Sakhalin. An effective and rather dramatic ending to the cruise of the Russian Red Sea raiders, the *Smolensk* and the *Petersburg*, had added to the interest of the naval situation. The government at St. Petersburg, replying to the protest of the British Government that the interruptions to British commerce were continuing even after the agreement by the Russian Government that they should cease, announced that the *Smolensk* and the *Petersburg* had not received orders to desist, and that it was impossible to locate them. The British Government then offered to find the raiders and deliver the orders of the Russian Government. Several fast British cruisers were then supplied with cipher messages from the Russian admiralty to the commanders of the *Smolensk* and the *Petersburg* ordering them to desist from further captures, and these British vessels, after a week or more of unsuccessful search, finally located the Russian volunteer raiders off Zanzibar, Southeast Africa, and delivered to them the orders from their home government.

Russia and Contraband.

In the matter of the seizure of vessels declared to carry contraband of war, the interesting development had been the protest of the United States Government to Russia in the case of the steamer *Calchas*, captured by the Vladivostok squadron *en route* from Puget Sound to Japan, already noted in these pages. An appeal from the judgment of the Vladivostok prize court had been taken to the imperial court at St. Petersburg. The British and American contention is that freight seized cannot be deemed contraband from the mere fact that it was bound for the ports of a belligerent power, but that it is necessary to prove it to have been destined for the use of the army or navy of one of the belligerents. The Russian claim had been that "foodstuffs consigned to an enemy's port in sufficient quantity to create the presumption that it is intended for the use of the government's military or naval forces is *prima facie* contraband and sufficient to warrant holding it for the decision of a prize court." The Russian Government, however, on September 16, replied to the British note, agreeing to view foodstuffs and fuel as of

a conditionally contraband character, and stating that supplementary instructions to this effect had been issued to Russian naval commanders and prize courts. The sinking of the British vessel the *Knight Commander* was justifiable, Russia, however, claims. On September 19, the Russian Government replied to the American protest in the *Calchas* affair. The Russian note is substantially the same as that addressed to Great Britain, except that the Russian Government declines to accede to the American contention that coal, railway materials, and machinery should also be included among articles which are conditionally contraband.

Battles of Liao-Yang.

The long-expected great battle of Liao-Yang has been fought, and General Kuropatkin, the Russian commander-in-chief, on ground of his own choosing, has been conclusively defeated, although not routed, by the combined armies under Field Marshal Oyama. In nine days of perhaps the most desperate fighting of modern times, beginning August 23, the Japanese forced the Russian commander out of the fortified city of Liao-Yang and compelled him to retreat northward. By September 20, the entire Russian army had reached the sacred city of Mukden, the capital of Manchuria, and was still going slowly to the north, with the Japanese in pursuit. Several rear guard actions had taken place, with a probability that Mukden, forty miles north of Liao-Yang, would be the scene of the next battle.

How the Forces Were Drawn Up.

The great battle, in which more than four hundred thousand men were engaged,—a struggle which has been one of the greatest in the world's history,—was begun on August 24 by attacks on the Russian positions at An-Shan-Chan (by General Nodzu) and Anping (by General Kuroki). Up to the middle of August, the three Japanese armies had been conducting separate campaigns, Kuroki's being known as the first, Oku's as the second, and Nodzu's as the third, army. At Liao-Yang, these armies were united, under the supreme command of Field Marshal Oyama, aggregating, according to the most generally accepted reports, 240,000 men, with from 800 to 900 guns. In this battle, Kuroki's army (160,000 men) became Marshal Oyama's right flank; General Nodzu's (50,000 men) the left flank, and General Oku's (30,000 men) the Japanese center. Opposed to these were approximately 200,000 to 210,000 Russians, under General Kuropatkin, who himself commanded the Russian center, with his right flank, facing General Nodzu, under Generals Stakelberg and Meyendorff successively; and his left, facing General Oku, under the Cossack generals Mistchenko and Rennenkampf. The Russian forces were posted in strongly intrenched positions on the hills, in a semicircle around the city of Liao-Yang—about six miles from their center—with both wings resting on the Tái-tse River, which flows almost exactly east and west a little north of the town. Around this Russian army the Japanese formed an outer circle about two miles distant. For months the Russians had been fortifying and provisioning Liao-Yang, which had been General Kuropatkin's headquarters from the beginning of the war, and in which he had gathered vast quantities of military stores. Liao-Yang is an ancient walled city, which the most eminent of Russian engineers had been fortifying since May 1, surrounding it with line after line of trenches and pitfalls. Some twenty miles to the south and east of Liao-Yang, the Japanese, in their enveloping movements, had emerged from the mountains and entered the great plain of the Liao River. It seems clear that General Kuropatkin had deliberately chosen to fight on this plain, with the strong Liao-Yang fortifications at his back. On this plain, said the Russians, our superiority in cavalry will be effectively demonstrated.

Kuroki and Nodzu Attack.

On August 24, General Kuroki attacked Anping with his left and center, reserving his right flank for another movement not at that time foreseen. At the same time, General Nodzu attacked the Russian right flank, forcing it to retire from Anping to Liao-Yang, closely followed by his and General Kuroki's forces. Meanwhile, the Japanese center, under General Oku, in a series of brilliant, desperate infantry charges, was pounding away at the Russian center. Here it was that the greatest loss of life took place. For two days, Oku hurled his splendid infantry against the Russian breastworks, fortified with every device that time and ingenuity could provide, but, despite their valor (more than one correspondent has characterized Oku's infantry as the best in the world), the dogged resistance of the Russians was too much for the bayonet charges of Oku's men, and this stage of the contest may fairly be said to have been favorable to Kuropatkin. So fierce were the Japanese attacks, however, that even behind their breastworks, the Russians are said to have suffered more severely than their assailants. Meanwhile, a tremendous artillery duel was in progress, the six hundred Russian guns replying to the seven hundred or eight hundred Japanese cannon incessantly for three days, ending August 29.



THE WAR AREA IN THE FAR EAST, SHOWING DISTANCES FROM JAPAN.

Kuroki Flanks the Russians.

On the last day of August, Kuroki's missing right flank effected a crossing by pontoon bridges over the Tai-tse River, at Sakankankwantun, and began to turn the Russian flank. It was the favorite Japanese plan,—pound your enemy in front, and while he is engaged there, creep around to the rear and cut his communications. It became necessary for Kuropatkin to meet this movement of Kuroki, while at the same time his center and right wings were still being engaged by Nodzu and Oku. With part of his forces to the north of the river, Kuropatkin attacked Kuroki with desperation, endeavoring to cut off that part of the Japanese flank which was on the north side of the Tai-tse and annihilate it before the other portion could join it. But by desperate fighting, during which Kuroki's fate was in the balance for three days, the Japanese general succeeded in getting his entire force across the river, and General Kuropatkin, instead of succeeding in his Napoleonic feat of crushing the Japanese army in detail, was forced to begin a general retreat to the north. On Sunday, September 4, the Japanese armies entered Liao-Yang.

Terrible Suffering and Loss.

After several enveloping movements on a large scale, in which the Russian rear guard, under General Stakelberg, narrowly escaped capture by the Japanese (General Orloff's detachment being nearly annihilated), the Russian forces, by September 8, had reached the Yen-Tai coal mines (one of Russia's only three sources of supply in Manchuria), on a branch of the Trans-Siberian, south of Mukden. Here they were again attacked by Kuroki and forced to retire still farther north. After an engagement at the mines, the fighting ceased, and the exhausted soldiers on both sides rested. In the ten days' fighting, ending September 3, the Russian losses were 2 generals, 22,000 men, 133 guns, and fortifications costing $30,000,000. According to General Kuropatkin's official report of the fighting with Kuroki, 4,500 men were killed and 17,000 wounded. Marshal Oyama reported a loss of 17,000 in killed and wounded. But these figures evidently do not apply to all the ten days already considered, the losses of which British correspondents put at 30,000. General Kuropatkin declares that he saved his baggage and his baggage trains, and

succeeded in destroying all the stores in Liao-Yang before the city fell into the hands of the Japanese. Marshal Oyama, on the other hand, reports to Tokio that he secured vast and valuable stores in the city, including many thousand rifles and a great quantity of forage for horses. Between the evacuation by the Russians and the occupation by the Japanese, it is reported that bands of Russians, Chinese, and Japanese successively looted the town, and correspondents describe the city and surrounding country as one vast scene of carnage and desolation. More than twelve hundred guns had been roaring incessantly for three days, the cannonading being sixty shots a minute for more than forty-eight hours. The battle was made up of a great artillery duel, during which the Japanese shrapnel searched every square foot of the high Chinese grain in which the Russians were hiding; of desperate bayonet charges by Oku's men, which resulted in frightful Japanese losses, and which were really Russian triumphs; and in dashes of Cossack cavalry which repulsed the Japanese attackers many times.

A Great Victory for Japan.

As the great battle recedes into the proper perspective, it becomes more and more certain that, while the Japanese gained a decided victory, the Russians were not decisively defeated. It has been generally assumed that it was the purpose of Marshal Oyama to surround and annihilate General Kuropatkin. The latter, however, was able to escape with the bulk of his army. The Russian war office maintains that Kuropatkin's retreat is merely the "carrying out of a well-defined idea," and that the Russian general's escape was really a strategic defeat for the Japanese. The facts remain, however, that a stronghold which the Russians were a year in fortifying, and of whose impregnability they boasted, has been given up to the Japanese after one of the most desperately fought battles of history, and that the Russian commander-in-chief is now in disastrous, if not demoralized, retreat. Liao-Yang, the Russians and their sympathizers had hoped, would disclose some weakness,—a lack of staying qualities or some other inadequacy inherent in the military character of the Japanese,—that might reverse the decision based upon their preceding victories. A general engagement of the first class, however, has settled forever the question of the military science of the Japanese commanders and the courage and endurance of the Japanese soldier, measured even by European standards. If ever a war was run on thoroughly scientific, business-like principles, Japan is now waging such a war.

A Masterly Retreat.

It has been said that in military history a great retreat ranks next to a great victory. General Kuropatkin has certainly made a masterly retreat. It may be said that, from the standpoint of actual fighting, he won the race. By his energy and determination, the Czar's commander-in-chief prevented the victors from turning defeat into a catastrophe, and saved his armies for another campaign. A trap was laid for him, but he was clever and strong enough to burst through or evade it. It is true he was not responsible for all the conditions under which he fought. He, however, allowed himself to be coerced into the occupation of Liao-Yang, when it is probable that he himself desired to leave southern and central Manchuria and concentrate at Harbin. He fortified Liao-Yang at his leisure, and made it so strong, with guns and stores, that it equalized for him the numerical superiority of the Japanese. It must have been his own fault if his position was not so well chosen and defended as to render him more than a match for his assailants, who, though they were somewhat more numerous, had the difficulty of attacking. Kuropatkin himself attributes his defeat chiefly to the failure of Major-General Orloff to carry out his orders in the Russian movement over the Tai-tse, which was meant to destroy Kuroki. Our character sketch on another page of this issue outlines Kuropatkin's really remarkable career, and shows him the well-rounded man that he is. The Russian journals, while deploring the defeat and admitting the Japanese ability to win on equal terms, attribute the reverse chiefly to interference with Kuropatkin's plans by Viceroy Alexieff. A number of these journals demand that entire military control be now given to Kuropatkin, and, early in September, it had been announced in St. Petersburg that Admiral Alexieff had been relieved of the military and naval command, and that thereafter he would be responsible only for the political and diplomatic representation in the far East, with headquarters at Harbin.

What Will Oyama Do Now?

The experts are telling us that the next battle will be at Harbin, three hundred miles to the north of Mukden; that the Japanese armies will then invade Siberia proper, if Kuropatkin is not meanwhile reënforced sufficiently to assume the offensive. This is, of course, mere speculation. In the opinion of a thoughtful Japanese of this city, however, who has good grounds for his views, Japan will not be tempted into an invasion of Siberia. She will most probably stop at Mukden, no matter what her success is, or, possibly, at Harbin. If

Japanese armies can fortify these strong posts and annihilate Kuropatkin's army, they will simply sit down and wait, meeting and destroying whatever armies may come over the Trans-Siberian as they appear. Meanwhile, the Japanese Government is likely to say to China: That is your property. Take it; fortify it; keep out the Russians. If the Chinese plead inability or lack of experience, Japan will say: Well, this is for you; we will do it if you will foot the bill. Under your direction and authority, our engineers will build fortifications, and our generals will hold these positions. This would be in line with Japan's unvarying recognition of China's authority in those portions of Manchuria which have now come under Japanese control. As at Newchwang, every city the Japanese forces take is turned over to Chinese administration, subject to only a minimum of military control.

Will There Be Intervention?

It is pretty generally admitted, even in Russia, that the Japanese have won the present campaign, and as all the world,—with the possible exceptions of the belligerents themselves,—assumes that both armies will very shortly go into winter quarters, talk of peace is rife. Each government had announced that overtures must come from the other side—that each expects a long war and will fight to the bitter end. The Inter-Parliamentary Union, recently in session at St. Louis, was planning to request President Roosevelt to propose that the neutral powers which were represented at the Hague Peace Conference attempt, by joint intervention, to put an end to the war. Simultaneously, there had been a revival of the report that the German Emperor was planning to bring about a concerted interposition by neutrals. It may be confidently asserted that no offer of mediation or intervention will be made by the United States Government under any circumstances at present, nor at all, unless there should be some reasonable expectation that such offer would be acceptable to both nations involved. As for European intervention, it would seem to be an impossibility. France and England are both disqualified for taking the lead in such a movement by reason of their alliances with the contending powers. Germany is looked upon by Japan with strong suspicion as being pro-Russian, and the United States is very generally regarded in Russia as having interests in the far East which are substantially identical with those of Japan. Indeed, the Russian newspapers contain more articles directed against England and America than against the Japanese. According to all the testimony that reaches us from the interior of Russia (as is strongly borne out by Dr. Dillon's thought-provoking article in this number of the REVIEW), the war is regarded by the Russian people as undesirable and disastrous. The general view, according to trustworthy correspondents, is that the war was desirable for Japan, but not so for Russia. Japan is calmly facing the possibility of a long war, and, as Baron Kaneko points out in his thoughtful article on another page of this issue, she may surprise us by her ability. This feeling is shown in the remarkable article in a recent number of the *Novoye Vremya*, of St. Petersburg, which we reproduce in another department. There seems to be, however, no feeling in favor of making terms until Russia is victorious.

British-Tibetan Treaty.

The British "mission" to Tibet has accomplished its labors, and by the middle of September it had been announced that the troops had begun the return march to India. It will be remembered that in March last the British-Indian government sent an expedition under Colonel Younghusband to compel the Tibetan authorities to carry out certain trade agreements made with British commissioners, and to ratify a definite treaty that would open up their country to Europeans. It was generally believed,—indeed, Viceroy Curzon had intimated it in a recent article in a British review,—that Russian influences had been blocking negotiations for years, with a view to establishing Russian ascendency at Lassa. After an arduous march from the Indian frontier, with some fierce fighting by the way, on August 7 Colonel Younghusband finally reached the sacred mysterious capital, Lassa. Tubdan, the Dalai Lama, the spiritual head of the Tibetan Buddhists, fled to Mongolia. After a month's negotiations, during which the British succeeded in appointing a new head Lama friendly to Great Britain and in restoring much of the power of the Amban (the representative of Chinese suzerainty), a treaty was signed binding the Tibetans to grant trading facilities, to demolish all the forts between the Indian frontier and the town of Gyangtse, to repair all dangerous passes on routes of travel, and to pay an indemnity of $2,400,000. In addition, the Tibetans agree not to dispose of any Tibetan territory without Great Britain's consent, nor to permit any foreign power to be concerned in the administration of the government. A force of British troops is to remain on Tibetan soil until the agreements are carried out.



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CAMP OF THE TWELFTH NEW YORK REGIMENT ON THE FIELD OF THE MANASSAS MANEUVERS, IN VIRGINIA, SEPTEMBER 5–10.

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From August 21 to September 20, 1904.)

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

August 22.—The Philippine bond issue is oversubscribed nine times; the accepted bid is $101.410.

August 23.—Delaware Republicans (Addicks) nominate Henry C. Conrad for governor....Texas Republicans nominate J. C. Lowden for governor.

August 25.—Utah Republicans nominate John C. Cutler for governor.

August 30.—The South Carolina Democratic primaries result in the renomination of Gov. D. C. Heyward ....Minnesota Democrats nominate John A. Johnson for governor.

September 1.—Wisconsin Democrats nominate ex-Gov. George W. Peck for governor....Governor Odell appoints Justice Edgar M. Cullen chief judge of the New York Court of Appeals, to succeed Judge Parker, resigned.

September 3.—Connecticut Populists nominate Judge Joseph Sheldon for governor.

September 5.—Hawaiian Republicans nominate Jonah K. Kalanianaole for Delegate to Congress....Jefferson Davis (Dem.) is reëlected governor of Arkansas.

September 6.—Republicans carry the Vermont election by a plurality of 31,000....Delaware Democrats nominate Caleb S. Pennewell for governor.

September 7.—Connecticut Democrats nominate A. Heaton Robertson for governor....New Hampshire Democrats nominate Henry F. Hollis for governor.

September 8.—Wyoming Democrats nominate ex-Gov. John E. Osborne for governor....Montana Republicans nominate William Lindsay for governor....Utah Democrats nominate James H. Moyle for governor.

September 12.—Maine Republicans carry the State and Congressional elections by pluralities of over 30,000 .... President Roosevelt's letter of acceptance of the Republican nomination is made public.



PRINCE JOHN OBOLENSKY.

(General Bobrikoff's successor as governor of Finland.)

September 14.—Connecticut Republicans nominate Henry Roberts for governor ....Colorado Republicans renominate Gov. James H. Peabody.

September 15.—Montana Democrats renominate Gov. Joseph K. Toole....New Jersey Democrats nominate Charles C. Black for governor....New York Republicans nominate Frank W. Higgins for governor.

September 20.—New Hampshire Republicans nom-

inate John McLane for governor....New Jersey Republicans nominate Edward C. Stokes for governor....The New York Democratic State convention meets at Saratoga.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

August 23.—A manifesto of the Russian Emperor grants measures of relief to the people of Finland and accords amnesty for all political offenses except those in which murder has been committed....The New South Wales Parliament opens....The new premier of Western Australia outlines his policy. Sir W. Whiteway announces his return to public life in Newfoundland.

September 3.—The war minister of Uruguay reports a decisive victory by the government troops over General Saraiva.



GENERAL BARON MEYENDORFF.

(Commanding the First Russian Army Corps, the rear guard after Liao-Yang.)

September 7.—It is announced that Prince Sviatopolk-Mirsky has been selected to succeed the late M. Plehve as Russian minister of the interior....Paraguayan rebels capture Villa Encarnacion.

September 11.—Many persons are injured and houses and shops pillaged in Russian anti-Jewish riots....A defeat of the government troops is reported from Uruguay.

September 13.—President Palma sets October 1 for the beginning of the payment of one-half of the claims of the Cuban revolutionary forces.

September 14.—Turkish militia battalions are called out to suppress another Albanian outbreak....Anarchist plots are discovered in Barcelona and Madrid, Spain.

September 17.—Premier Combes opposes a proposition to submit the question of separation of Church and State in France to popular vote.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

August 22.—The status of American Jews in Russia is set forth in the statements made public of Secretary Hay's instructions to Ambassador McCormick.

August 23.—The Tibetans release two Sikkimese British subjects imprisoned as spies....Sir Francis Burpee, British ambassador at Rome, is appointed to succeed Sir Edmund Monson as ambassador to France.

August 24.—The German frontier police arrest many Russians attempting to leave their country to avoid military service....Father Ambroise Agius is chosen Apostolic Delegate to the Philippines.

September 2.—United States Minister Barrett reports to his government the prospect of an early settlement of differences with the republic of Panama.

September 16.—Russia grants the contentions of the United States and Great Britain regarding the conditional contraband character of foodstuffs and fuel.

September 19.—All the powers except Russia instruct their ministers at Belgrade to attend the coronation of King Peter.

September 20.—Russia, it is announced, protests against the Anglo-Tibetan treaty.

THE RUSSO-JAPANESE WAR.

August 22.—The consuls at Shanghai decide to refer the case of the Russian cruisers to the Peking government....The British steamer *Comedian* is stopped eighty miles from East London, South Africa, by the Russian cruiser *Smolensk*, and after examination of her papers is allowed to proceed.

August 23.—The Taotai requests the British consul-general to require the Shanghai Dock Company to cease work on the *Askold;* Sir Pelham Warren notifies the Russian consul that he officially demands the disarmament of both the *Askold* and *Grozovoi*....The finding of the naval court on the sinking of the *Hipsang* is delivered; it considers that the captain acted correctly, and that his ship was sunk without just cause or reason....The Japanese warships *Nischin* and *Kasuga* steam into Port Arthur and silence the Lao-lui-chui forts.

August 24.—The Czar orders the disarmament of the Russian warships at Shanghai; the flags of both vessels are accordingly lowered.

August 25.—Two Russian destroyers come on mines at the entrance of Port Arthur; one of them is sunk.... The liner *Asia*, bound for Calcutta, reports being detained for two hours by the Russian steamer *Ural* off Cape St. Vincent and her papers and cargo examined.

August 24-September 2.—The great battle of Liao-Yang is fought between the Russian army under General Kuropatkin and the three Japanese armies under the supreme command of Field Marshal Oyama; the battle begins with attacks on the Russian positions at An-Shan-Chan by General Nodzu, and at Anping by Kuroki, General Oku in the meantime attacking the Russian center; and on August 31 Kuroki's right flank crosses the Tai-tse River, and by turning General Kuropatkin's flank, forces a general Russian retreat; it is estimated that in the ten days' fighting more than 200,000 Russians and 240,000 Japanese are engaged.



LIEUTENANT GENERAL SAKHAROFF.

(General Kuropatkin's chief of staff.)

September 4.—The Japanese armies enter Liao-Yang, the Russians retreating to Mukden.

September 8.—General Kuropatkin reports the arrival of his entire army at Mukden without the loss of a gun.

September 11.—Russia's Baltic fleet sails from Cronstadt for the far East....The Russian cruiser *Lena* arrives at San Francisco for repairs.

September 15.—The Japanese issue a proclamation to



THE LATE PRINCE HERBERT BISMARCK.

the Russian troops at Port Arthur demanding their surrender....The Japanese proclaim a protectorate over Kamchatka.....The Japanese begin a severe bombardment of Port Arthur.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

August 24.—The meeting of the British Association at Cambridge comes to an end....The Czarewitch is christened in the church of the Peterhof Palace.

August 25.—Writs are issued for the arrest of twenty-eight citizens of Cripple Creek, Colo., for their participation in the deporting of union men and sympathizers.

August 27.—The United States battleship *Louisiana* is launched at the Newport News shipyard.

August 29.—Fire destroys the city of Binang, in the Philippines, causing the loss of one hundred lives.

August 30.—The settlement of the ocean rate war is announced.

September 5.—The striking butchers in and around New York City apply to be taken back at the packing-houses on the open-shop plan.

September 6.—The threatened strike on the New York elevated railway lines is averted by an agreement by which the subway motormen are to receive $3.50 for ten hours' work.

September 7.—International Geographic Congress is opened at Washington (see page 467)....The military maneuvers on the battlefield of Manassas, Virginia, are begun.

September 8.—The National Executive Board of the Amalgamated Meat Cutters and Butcher Workmen orders an end of the great beef strike at Chicago.

September 14.—The American Bankers' Association meets in New York City (see page 427).

OBITUARY.

August 21.—Prof. George Pirie, of the University of Aberdeen, 61....Judge B. H. Bill, of Rockville, Conn., 75.

August 22.—John Lowber Welsh, of Philadelphia, 62....N. N. Whitney, founder of the Pacific *Commercial Advertiser*, Honolulu, 80....Miss Kate Chopin, writer of Creole stories.

August 23.—Dr. Anton Drasche, of the Austrian Sanitary Council, 77.

August 24.—Sir Henry Stephenson, a well-known philanthropist of Sheffield, England, 77.

August 25.—Dr. William Rice Pryor, a well-known New York surgeon and gynecologist, 46....William Weightman, the wealthiest resident of Philadelphia, 91.

August 26.—Prof. Charles Woodruff Shields, of Princeton University, 79....Robert Parrott, discoverer of the famous copper mine which bears his name at Butte, Mont., 75.

August 27.—The Very Rev. S. Reynolds Hole, Dean of Rochester, 85.

August 29.—Vice-Admiral W. R. Rolland, R.N. (retired), 87....Amurath V., former Sultan of Turkey (deposed in 1876).

August 30.—Charles B. Spahr, a well-known New York journalist (disappeared from a Channel steamer off the coast of England), 44....Gen. Milo S. Hascall, a veteran of the Civil War....Maurice Phillips, for many years connected with the New York *Home Journal*, 70.

August 31.—Dr. Thomas Herran, former Colombian minister to the United States, 61.

September 3.—Charles Finney Clark, president of the Bradstreet Company, 68....Clark Caryl Haskins, electrical inventor and writer, 77.

September 4.—Daniel Magone, formerly collector of the port of New York, 75....Col. William Augustine, said to have been the oldest surviving graduate of West Point, and veteran of three wars, 89.

September 5.—James Archer, a well-known British portrait painter, 82.

September 8.—Rev. George C. Lorimer, D.D., of New York City, 66.

September 9.—Judge Kirk Hawes, of Chicago, 65.

September 11.—Leo Stern, the violincellist....James Lowther, M.P., 64....Francis White, for many years identified with the financial, educational, and philanthropical institutions of Baltimore, 80.

September 18.—Prince Herbert Bismarck, 55....Prof. Daniel Willard Fiske, formerly of Cornell University, 73....Emil Thomas, formerly one of the best-known comedians on the German stage, 65....Gen. Russell Hastings, 69.

September 20.—Ex-Justice William L. Learned, of the New York Supreme Court, 83.

SOME CARTOONS OF THE CAMPAIGN.



HE'D SINK EITHER OF THEM.—From the *North American* (Philadelphia).
(Neither party, this year, wishes to run the risk of associating itself with the trusts.)



THE DEMOCRATIC DONKEY: "I hope they don't arbitrate before election."—From the *News-Tribune* (Duluth).



CHAIRMEN CORTELYOU AND TAGGART AFTER THE LABOR VOTE.
From the *Post* (Washington).



THE REPUBLICAN ELEPHANT SHOWING THE NEWS TO THE DEMOCRATIC DONKEY.—From the *Post* (Washington).



"WHAT IS ONE MAN'S MEAT IS ANOTHER MAN'S POISON."

(The cartoonist wishes to convey the idea that Roosevelt wants to talk and that Parker is quite happy to be silent.)—From the *News* (Baltimore).



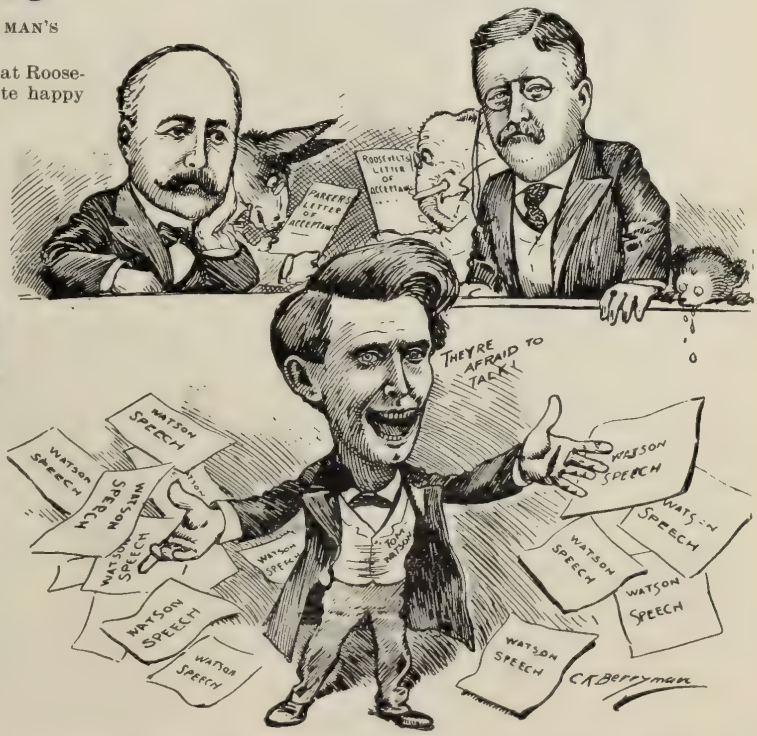
INDORSED BY THE MAINE FARMERS.

From the *Evening Telegraph* (Philadelphia).



PARKER'S POLITICAL SCHOOL NO. 1.

And then, the whining schoolboy, with his satchel, and shining morning face, creeping, like a snail, unwillingly to school."—From the *Ohio State Journal* (Columbus).



POPULIST CANDIDATE WATSON CHALLENGING THE OTHER PRESIDENTIAL CANDIDATES TO TALK.—From the *Post* (Washington).

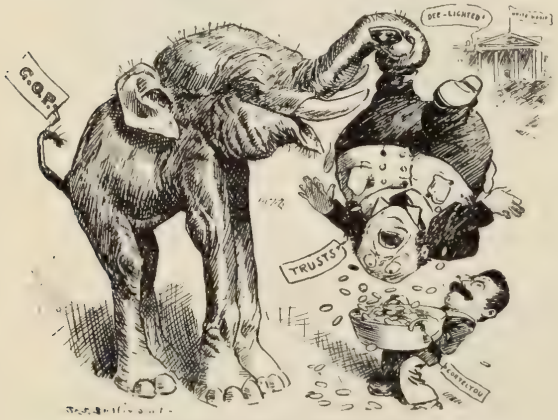


A FALSE ALARM.

CHORUS OF DEMOCRATIC OWLS: "Too-whit, too-whoo! Constitution in danger! Too-whit, too-wh-o-o-o-oo!!"
From the *Globe* (New York).



MESSRS. BELMONT, CLEVELAND, AND TAGGART: "Shall we invite Bryan to speak?"—From the *Mail* (New York).



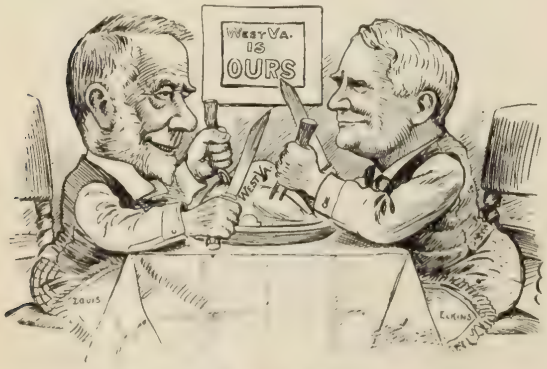
CAMPAIGN FUNDS COMING EASY.

"We are not refusing any offers."—Chairman Cortelyou.
From the *American* (New York).



CLEARING THE WAY TO VICTORY.

DAVID B. HILL (to Mr. Parker): "Ta-ta, Alton!"—From the *News* (Baltimore).



ALL IN THE FAMILY.

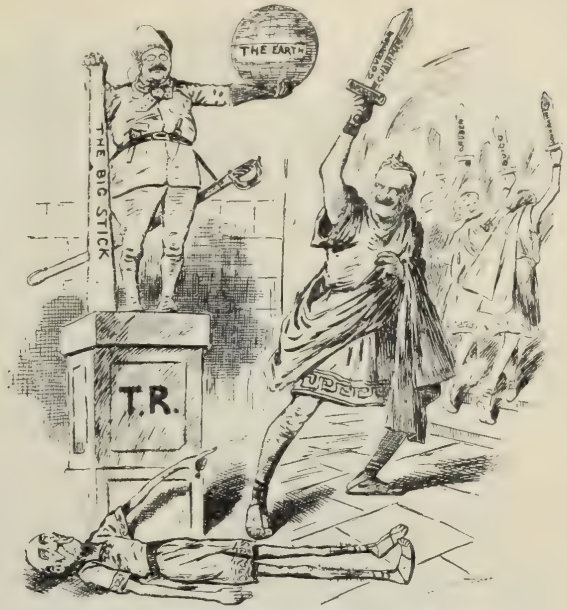
(Candidate Davis and his Republican son-in-law, Senator Elkins, are able to take a cheerful view.)
From the *Post* (Washington).



POPULIST CANDIDATE WATSON COAXING THE CHICKENS FROM THE DEMOCRATIC BARNYARD.
From the *Post* (Washington).



GOVERNOR ODELL: "Platt thinks just the same as I do. Don't you, Senator?"—From the *American* (New York).



CÆSAR PLATT TO BRUTUS ODELL: "Et tu, Brute?"

"This was the most unkindest cut of all;
For when the noble Cæsar saw him stab,
Ingratitude, more strong than traitors' arms,
Quite vanquish'd him: then burst his mighty heart;
And, in his mantle muffling up his face,
Even at the base of Pompey's statue,
Which all the while ran blood, great Cæsar fell."

From the *World* (New York).



GOVERNOR ODELL, OF NEW YORK.
From the *Herald* (New York).



SENATOR PLATT, OF NEW YORK.
From the *Herald* (New York).



PATCHING UP A PLATFORM.

Judge Parker will use his letter of acceptance to reënforce his famous Sheehan telegram over the hole in the Democratic platform—where the money plank is missing.—From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).



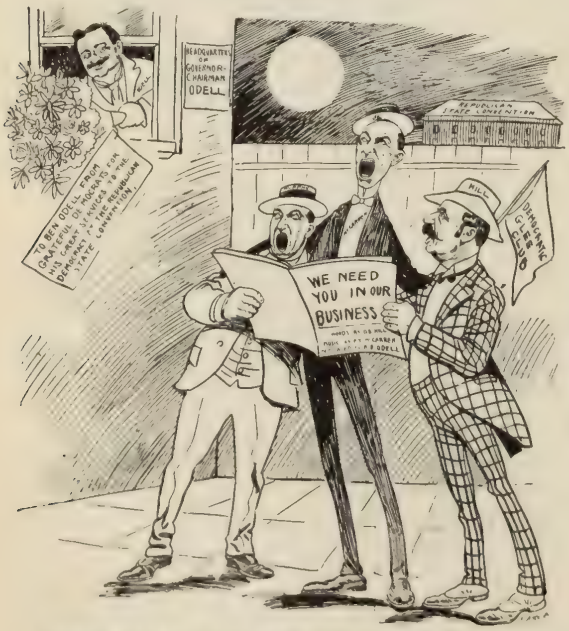
SOME OF THE PILGRIMS TO THE NATIONAL DEMOCRATIC MECCA IN THE NEW HOTEL ASTOR, NEW YORK.



PARKER AND HILL AS SINDBAD AND THE OLD MAN OF THE SEA.—From the *World* (New York).



DAVID B. HILL: "This is my last furrow!" From the *Brooklyn Eagle* (New York).



MESSRS. MURPHY, M'CARREN, AND HILL SINGING A SARATOGA SERENADE TO GOVERNOR ODELL. From the *Brooklyn Eagle* (New York).



MISS DEMOCRACY (to David B. Hill): "That awful man I can't lose him!" From the *Mail* (New York).

THOMAS E. WATSON,—POPULIST CANDIDATE.

BY WALTER WELLMAN.

TOM WATSON is a great man. The Populist party is not strong enough to elect him President of the United States, but he is one of the greatest Americans of his day, just the same. He is not a great man because the Populists have nominated him for President. He is a great man in his own right and way and genius, just as Theodore Roosevelt was a great man before the Republican party and fate put him in the White House. True greatness is not adventitious; it does not come from without; if it is anywhere, it is in the man himself,—in his works, his genius, his achievements.



HON. THOMAS E. WATSON, OF GEORGIA.

And Tom Watson is surely a genius. He has certainly achieved. He is so much of a genius, and has achieved to such good purpose, that his name and fame are known in parts of the world where the Populist party of America was never heard of. Among his own countrymen, he is known to and admired by millions who must confess to the most narrow prejudice against the Populist party and the most elaborate ignorance as to what the Populist party really is and stands for. I have no prejudice against the Populists; as a non-partisan newspaper writer, I cannot afford the luxury of prejudices against any political party. To my mind, the Populists are admirable in their earnestness and sincerity, whatever may be said about their practicality. But just now they are chiefly admirable because they have made Tom Watson their standard-bearer.

Who can withhold admiration from a man who has fought his way through all sorts of obstacles to success—who has run the race heavily handicapped from the first, and won it? That is what Tom Watson has done. Let us have a rapid glance at the story of his life. Perhaps at the very outset we hit upon the secret of



MRS. THOMAS E. WATSON.

his success,—it was in the blood, good Quaker blood, from his ancestors who migrated from North Carolina and established a colony on forty thousand acres of land between the Savannah and the Ogeechee rivers, in Georgia, a century and a half ago. Among these Quakers were Watson's ancestors on both sides—the Watsons and the Maddoxes. They were landowners from the first; and they must have been fighting Quakers, too, for they took part in political and military affairs as occasion demanded, and they adopted one of the very first resolutions against British oppression passed by a public meeting in the Colonial days. A Thomas Watson was one of the signers. Members of the family served in the Revolution. The father and uncles of the present Thomas Watson fought in the Confederate army.

AS COUNTRY SCHOOLMASTER.

The Civil War ruined the Watsons, as it did pretty nearly every one in the South. They lost all of their slaves and most of their land. The remnant of the latter which they saved out of the wreck went by sheriff's sale in the panic of 1873, and the family were driven from their old plantation home, where they had lived for many generations. Tom Watson was then in a Baptist school where no tuition was charged. He had been admitted as "poor and deserving," under the Jesse Mercer endowment,—a frail, freckled, red-haired, dreamy-eyed lad of seventeen. But he had to pay board, and when his people could no longer do even that much,—for the wolf was at their door,—he left the college and went out into the field to work. In a few months he got a chance to teach school,—a rural school, rejoicing in the title of "Academy." I shall here quote from the contract which young Watson signed with the trustees,—a quaint document, written, we may be sure, by one of the custodians of the district's educational interests:

Rules adopted by the trustees of the Centrial Warrian District Accadamy to be enforced by Thos. E. Watson as teacher.

Rule 1st—There shall be no studant admitted into this school that does not come under theas obligations.

Rule 2d—All abusive language such as cursing and swearring is attually forbiden.

Rule 3d—There shall no studant be alowed to carry conseald weppons.

Rule 4th—There shall be no climbing of fences, resling or throwing rocks at each other alowed.

Rule 5th—No studant is alowed to fight in school or on there way too or from school, nor no news to be carriade too or from school.

Rules for the government of Teacher Watson were set down as follows:

To keep a good and holsome disciplin at all times.

To take in school at least by one½ hours by sun in the morning, to alow as recess in the forenoon at least 15 minuts, at noon one hour, and 15 minuts recess in the afternoon, and to turn out in the afternoon at least one hour by the sun.

The said Teacher shall not be alowed to correct no studant in any way only by a switch the skin not to be cut and not to be abused otherwise.

To think that "the said Teacher" of this "Centrial Accadamy" should afterward win fame as the writer of "The Story of France!"

ADMITTED TO THE BAR.

For two years young Watson taught the school and did his best to live up to the rules laid down by the exacting trustees. But the school was not enough to engross his energies. He wanted to read law; the trouble was, he had no law book, and not enough money to buy one. He was boarding with a farmer, James Thompson, and Thompson lent him money to buy Blackstone. Evenings, young Watson studied his Blackstone by the light of Thompson's pine-knot blaze. Determined to be a lawyer, he became a

lawyer; was admitted to the bar at nineteen; and in 1876, when twenty years old, returned to his old home, the village of Thomson, and hung out his sign. Mr. Watson once confessed to me that at that time he had scarcely a decent change of clothing. He had been working as a farm-hand,—torture for one of such slight physique,—between school terms. At this juncture came a lift from a friend—"the kindness which really gave me a chance for life," as Mr. Watson says. One of his former schoolteachers, Robert H. Pearce, agreed to trust him for a year's board while the stripling lawyer was "getting on his feet."

PROFESSIONAL SUCCESS.

Somehow or other, he obtained business. The first twenty dollars he earned he exchanged for a gold piece and sent it to his mother. The first year, his earnings were $212 gross, and he paid his board bill out of that. The second year, he did better, and bought back, largely on credit, one of the old homes of his family and installed therein his father and mother and younger sisters and brothers. The young lawyer lived with them; and every morning he took his dinner in a bucket and walked three miles to his law office, and walked back again to the farm in the evening. This year, his income was $474. The third year, he again doubled his income, and from now on his business increased, till he was soon earning $12,000 a year, and was able to buy back several thousand acres of the lands which had formerly belonged to his family. Is not this a sweet story—this story of struggle, sacrifice, and success?

IN POLITICS—FROM DEMOCRACY TO POPULISM.

In 1880, there was a hot fight in a Democratic State convention in Georgia. At the climax, a little, pale-faced, red-haired chap made a speech on the losing side. First, the audience was hostile; then it went wild with delight over the little fellow's nerve and eloquence. Every one asked, "Who is he?" "Tom Watson, of MacDuffie County," was the answer. Such was the *début* on the political stage of this poet, lawyer, orator, historian, novelist, nominee for President. Strange that a Georgia country lawyer should send to the press a history of France and a life of Napoleon that astonished and captivated the world. But if it's in the man, it will come out; and you never can tell what sort of man the divine fire burns within. Wallace Putnam Reed knew Watson in those days,—had been drawn to him by the future historian's poems on "Josephine" and "Napoleon,"—and has written of him: "Twenty-five years ago, the poet's slight figure, flashing eyes, and feverish enthusiasm suggested 'a soul of flame in a body of gauze.' He looked like a man who would 'live in a blaze and in a blaze expire.'" But it is easy to see genius in a man after he himself has convinced the world that it is there.



MR. J. DURHAM WATSON.
(Mr. Watson's son.)



MISS AGNES WATSON.
(Mr. Watson's daughter.)

We need not dwell long on Mr. Watson's political career. In 1882, a Democratic member of the Legislature; in 1888, a Cleveland elector and a Cleveland stumper; in 1889, leader of a fight against the jute bagging trust, which so pleased the farmers that they insisted, the next year, on electing him to Congress, and after election espousing the principles adopted by the Farmers' Alliance at Indianapolis, greatly to the disgust of his Democratic friends; defeated,—"counted out by the Democrats," he claimed,—for reëlection in 1892 and 1894, and denied his seat by the House on contest; in 1896, reluctantly accepting the Vice-Presidential nomination on the Bryan ticket, and afterward claiming that the Democratic managers did not deal fairly with their Populist allies; and in 1904, accepting an unsought nomination as the Populist candidate for President, reluctantly yielding, he says, because the Democracy had completely turned its back upon its former friends and sur-

rendered to Wall Street, and with both of the old parties standing substantially for the same thing, it was high time to resurrect the Populist party and make an effort to save the country.

It will not do to omit mention of the fact that this many-sided man belongs also to the noble profession of journalism. For years he published, at Atlanta, *The People's Party Paper*, and this journal had a tremendous circulation among the men and women of the Populist faith. In its columns, week after week, Watson poured out his soul, championed the cause of the masses against the classes, wrote with the power and the earnestness which mark all his work, and soon became a force at hundreds of thousands of humble firesides. This paper, doubtless, did more than his service in Congress or his activities in the political field to make him the chosen leader of the Populist host.

Of two of his achievements during his one term in Congress Mr. Watson is justly proud. He led the debate on the bill requiring railroads to put automatic couplers on their freight cars within five years, and the bill was passed.

On February 17, 1893, he introduced in the House and secured the passage of an amendment providing ten thousand dollars for an experiment in the delivery of mail outside the cities, towns, and villages. The members of the farmer party naturally lay great stress upon their claim that their candidate is the father of rural free delivery in the United States.



HICKORY HILL, MR. WATSON'S HOME, AT THOMSON, GEORGIA.

ROOSEVELT AND WATSON,—SOME INTERESTING CORRESPONDENCE.

In those days there was a prevalent impression that Mr. Watson belonged to the "poor white trash" class of the South—that he was a "Georgia Cracker"—an impression which the Southern Democrats were not unwilling to spread after Watson left their party. Incidentally, this belief brought on a most interesting discussion between Theodore Roosevelt and Mr. Watson. In an article on the Vice-Presidency published in the AMERICAN MONTHLY REVIEW OF REVIEWS in September, 1896, Mr. Roosevelt spoke of Mr. Watson as one "whose enemies call him a Georgia Cracker," and characterized him as a typical Populist of the period.

As a result of the publication of this article, the Georgian addressed a letter to Mr. Roosevelt which the latter printed in the REVIEW OF REVIEWS of the following January, and characterized it as "a very manly and very courteous letter." Some of Mr. Watson's paragraphs are worthy of quotation here.

> You merely obey a law of your nature which puts you into mortal combat with what you think is wrong. You fight because your own sense of self-respect and self-loyalty compels you to fight. Is not this so? If in Georgia and throughout the South we have conditions as intolerable as those which surround you in New York, can you not realize why I make war upon them? . . .
>
> If you could spend an evening with me among my books and amid my family, I feel quite sure you would not again class me with those who make war upon the "decencies and elegancies of civilized life." And if you could attend one of my great political meetings in Georgia, and see the good men and good women who believe in Populism, you would not continue to class them with those who vote for candidates upon the "no undershirt" platform.
>
> The "Cracker" of the South is simply the man who did not buy slaves to do his work. He did it all himself—like a man. Some of our best generals in war, and magistrates in peace, have come from the "Cracker" class. As a matter of fact, however, my own people, from my father back to Revolutionary times, were slave-owners and landowners.

Mr. Roosevelt disclaimed any intention to characterize Mr. Watson offensively, and added :

I was in Washington when Mr. Watson was in Congress, and I know how highly he was esteemed personally by his colleagues. Moreover, I sympathize as little as Mr. Watson with denunciation of the "Cracker," and I may mention that one of my forefathers was the first Revolutionary governor of Georgia at the time that Mr. Watson's ancestors sat in the first Revolutionary legislature of the State. Mr. Watson himself embodies not a few of the very attributes the lack of which we feel so keenly in many of our public men. He is honest, he is earnest, he is brave, he is disinterested. For many of the wrongs which he wishes to remedy, I, too, believe that a remedy can be found, and for this purpose I would gladly strike hands with him. All this makes it a matter of the keenest regret that he should advocate certain remedies that we deem even worse than the wrongs complained of.

Surely this is a most interesting correspondence between two literary politicians who are now confronting each other as rival candidates for the Presidency.

MR. WATSON AS AN HISTORIAN.

After the campaign of 1896, Mr. Watson abandoned politics and turned his attention to the work of his life, to the dream of his youth,—the writing of history. His "Story of France" astonished the world. Foreign critics praised it, and marveled that such a work could come from the brain of a backwoods lawyer in an American State of which few of them had ever heard. But Watson has a genius for history; and genius will have its way. His college professor says that he was "a history hog," literally devouring every book in the library, reading night and day. Mr. Watson himself says that his "Story of France" grew out of some sketches which he wrote for his newspaper, the purpose being to show how class legislation, or the greed of the few, had wrecked the French monarchy and caused the revolution, "just as I believe they will wreck our own republic unless checked by measures of peaceful reform." Foreign critics found Watson's style "not the most brilliant or polished," but they gladly recognized his power, his vividness. He is ever the champion of the under-dog; he sees through the eyes and feels through the heart of the proletariat. To write history, he does not go into the palace and the castle and chronicle the dynastic and military changes of those who make pawns and victims of the people in the valleys round about. Instead, he goes down among the tillers of the soil, and, standing beside them, looks up at the palace and castle, and searchingly inquires what have they in the seats of the mighty done for humanity. To him, "Louis the Grand," with his fifteen thousand bedizened idlers, eating up one-tenth of the national revenues, laying all the burden upon the bent back of the peasant, was the precursor of the revolution. Napoleon was incomparable and irresistible as long as he battled for democracy, for the modern idea of the people against feudalism (Napoleon himself said, at St. Helena, in his melancholy retrospection and self-justification, "Friends and foes must confess that of these principles I am the chief soldier, the grand representative"), but defeat and ruin came when he attempted to found a dynasty leagued with European monarchies and aristocracies. According to Mr. Watson, had Bonaparte remained true to the Populist faith, there would have been no St. Helena.

Mr. Watson never lifts his feet from his rock of principle. In "The Life and Times of Thomas Jefferson," his underlying text is a desire to show how a government of the whole people, instead of a government of the privileged few, must be formed. He does more in his "Jefferson,"—he brings out vividly that the American Revolution was of the South as well as of the North, that it was not simply a New England affair. He does this justly to both sections. And, speaking of North and South, it may be news to the readers of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS that the poet, the orator, the lawyer, the politician, the lecturer, the historian, the Presidential candidate, has now turned novelist. Just coming from the press is his "Bethany: A Story of the Old South." It is a story of the Civil War, and it will be found most fascinating. Many of its incidents and tales are from real life, for the author's people were in the war, and were by the war ruined. Here again is an underlying purpose,—justice to both North and South, abatement of sectionalism.

A PEN PICTURE OF THE POPULIST LEADER.

Tom Watson is physically a mere mite of a man. He is small of frame, and the flesh upon him is meager. He is painfully lean and hungry-looking, with a cadaverous, raw-boned face, and eyes which shine at you. His hair is long, straight, a yellowish red. He has a strong jaw,—the jaw of a fighter. He has little sense of humor,—he is all earnestness, all sincerity. His voice rasps, but the fires of fervency and purposefulness, and his command of language, make him a debater and speaker of power and charm. He loves music, plays the fiddle (he would scorn to call it a violin), and plays it well. He is shy of men, prefers books to bipeds, has little social tact, yet is beloved by all who really get to know him. He has a family, a fortune, owns half of the county he lives in, and works, works, works.

CHEMISTRY AS A MODERN INDUSTRIAL FACTOR.

BY CHARLES BASKERVILLE, PH.D., F.C.S.

(Professor of chemistry, College of the City of New York.)

THE Society of Chemical Industry, with its home in England, met this year in the United States, under the presidency of Sir William Ramsay, who is known for his brilliant researches in the field of pure chemistry. The medal of this society, given every two years for the most valuable contribution to applied chemistry, was presented to a distinguished American teacher, President Remsen, of Johns Hopkins University, who has no direct association with the industrial applications of chemistry. An American manufacturer was selected as the new presiding officer.

This unusual state of affairs offers an interesting explanation.

Germany—an inland confederation, the marvelous result of Bismarck's far-seeing policy—within twenty-five years rivaled England's hitherto unapproached commercial supremacy. England's concern was shown by the temper of the daily press and the technical journals. This society was started similar to the Verein Deutscher Chemiker. Continued efforts on the part of scientific men in public, and the meetings of the various societies, aroused Great Britain from its serene security in the control of the world's commerce. A royal commission was appointed, and its report showed that there was not only much to fear, but more to learn.

Germany's marvelous commercial growth furnishes its own explanation. A well-defined policy was outlined and followed consistently. The end aimed at was high,—the highest rank in the commerce of the world,—the means, to learn the best and make it, to invent the new and stimulate a call for it. "It is evident enough that no art or science can be known until learned, and to learn most rapidly and thoroughly, one must be taught." The state provided the technical schools and the best instruction. The manufacturers appreciated the value of such scientifically trained individuals and employed them. It is not to our point to discuss the economic conditions and methods of education, production, and distribution as followed by the German Government during this interval, nor are we willing to affirm that such are now or have ever been suitable for the United States. Suffice it to say that Mr. Gastrell, the British commercial attaché at Berlin, saw fit to place the causes for Germany's commercial prosperity in the order given.

Ten years ago, the need for such a society was felt by progressive spirits in New York



MR. W. H. NICHOLS, THIRD PRESIDENT OF THE SOCIETY OF CHEMICAL INDUSTRY.

(Mr. Nichols is president of the General Chemical Company of America and founder of the Nichols Medal for chemical research.)

City. The American Chemical Society, which corresponds to the London Chemical Society and the Deutsche Chemische Gesellschaft, should deal more with the strictly scientific side. Instead of organizing a new society, a charter for the New York section of the English society was sought and readily granted. Now the membership of that section, which includes the

area of the United States, constitutes one-fourth of the entire society. Sections have been established in Australia and Canada, and during the recent meeting there was some talk of the formation of a Berlin section. The society is therefore becoming international in character, and why should it not?

Science speaks a universal language and knows no geographical, political, or social boundaries, otherwise Humphry Davy would never have been so cordially entertained by his French colleagues when the shores of England and France bristled with bayonets in bloody antagonism. Sir William Ramsay gracefully phrased the English-American relationship in response to a toast at a dinner given him at the Century Club by President Finley, of the College of the City of New York, as follows: "Intimate chemical combination or union results from two causes, explosion and fusion. We had the explosion a century ago; we shall enjoy the fusion now."

To be sure, there is a reverse side of the shield. One of the characters to be observed thereon is the reluctance of the manufacturers of one nation to allow proprietors or employees of like plants of a competing people to inspect their works. It may be mentioned in this connection that it is a point of honor among the members of the Society of Chemical Industry not to visit the works of another in the same line of production. The writer is unable to say what would be the outcome of a breach of this high standard of ethics, but it is not difficult to imagine.

The second apparent incompatibility of this meeting in particular was the character of the presiding officer. He is an investigator in the field of strictly pure science; he deals with theories, the most advanced; he is a teacher of the greatest success.

That the discoverer of five unique chemical elements, of absolutely no practical or commercial value, as far as we know, should be elevated to the highest position of honor among industrial chemists may at first glance seem odd, but, in fact, there was nothing inappropriate in it at all. In the first place, we do not know when some one may apply these lazy elements of Ramsay's to important commercial, medicinal, or other uses. Thorium oxide was known half a century before it was utilized as the basis of the Welsbach mantles, used now by the million as a means for attaining the softest and most economical gaslight. In the second place, it but emphasized the axiomatic truth so forcibly demonstrated by the recent history of Germany,—namely, the interdependence of pure and applied science.

During the last quarter of the nineteenth century there has grown up an arbitrary division of chemistry, called physical. By many, even college presidents, it has been looked upon as dealing largely with abstract questions and one merely played in the laboratory. By the application of only a portion of the results obtained in this amusement, the United States now markets annually over one hundred millions of dollars of products in the form of aluminum, carborundum, sodium, bleaching powder, etc.

The converse is equally true. Demands on the part of manufacturers for improved processes or products, utilization of waste, etc., have stimulated and facilitated pure investigation. Only two instances need be cited, although examples might easily be multiplied. The drug trade demanded a quinine devoid of the bitter taste but retaining its anti-malarial properties, and it was made tasteless. The waste material from pitchblende was thrown away after the removal of most of the uranium until the Curies extracted radium from it. The radium business is rather profitable at the present time, whether it eventually prove to possess its heralded medicinal value or not.

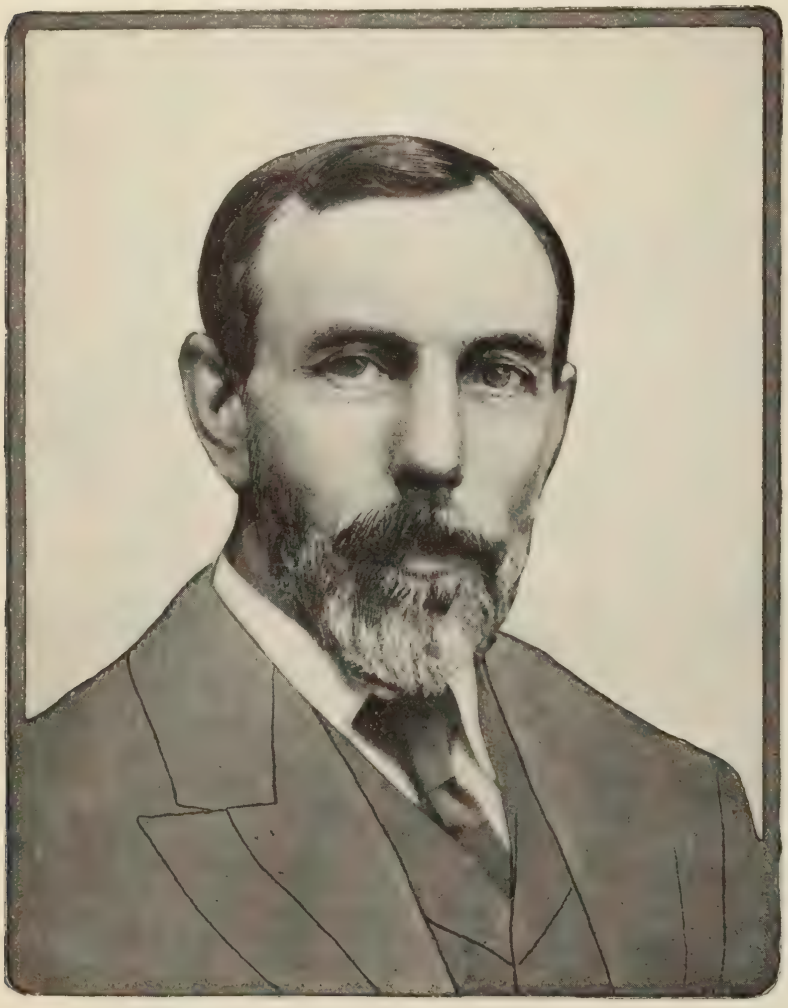
Sir William Ramsay, in his retiring address, spoke on chemical pedagogy, most appropriately and clearly, from thirty years' experience. The future of any nation's industries must be looked after by those who learn to-day. Practically all forms of productive activity, from the cultivation of the soil for the growth of cotton to the finished tinted fabric, from the digging of the ore to the engines which distribute our commerce in its most varied ramifications, rest upon chemical phenomena. The manner and method of training of the men who will apply these phenomena are matters which have to do, not only with the future of the chemical industries concerned, but with the very vitality of nations.

The limits of this article and the patience of the reader, who may have followed us thus far, will not admit of a full exposition of the wisdom of expenditures for research. To some, it is apparent; to others, it may be said that the framing and execution of our pure-food laws is mainly the outgrowth of the researches of Dr. Wiley and his colaborers in Washington. But a few days ago a manufacturer showed the writer a part of his plant where he carried out on a commercial scale one research he had pursued in his private laboratory. He knew little of the materials when he began work on this particular problem, but he had the attitude of mind from his training. He produced a product better suited to the purpose than any yet

made, and although it has been on the market but a short time, he receives an annual income of fifteen thousand dollars from it.

Twenty-five years ago, Prof. Ira Remsen, of Johns Hopkins University, as the result of a strictly scientific investigation, discovered a compound known technically as benzoic-sulphimide, or saccharine, possessing the property of sweetness to taste to an exceeding degree. It is well known that he never received one cent for this discovery, which has proved a boon to sufferers who must avoid sugar as a food.

It has happened that medals have been given by purely scientific bodies to men who have discovered commercially successful processes. It was quite fitting, therefore, that a society given to the practical applications should recognize him who has had to do only with teaching and investigation, especially when one of the results of his investigation had subsequently been successfully exploited on a commercial scale by others.



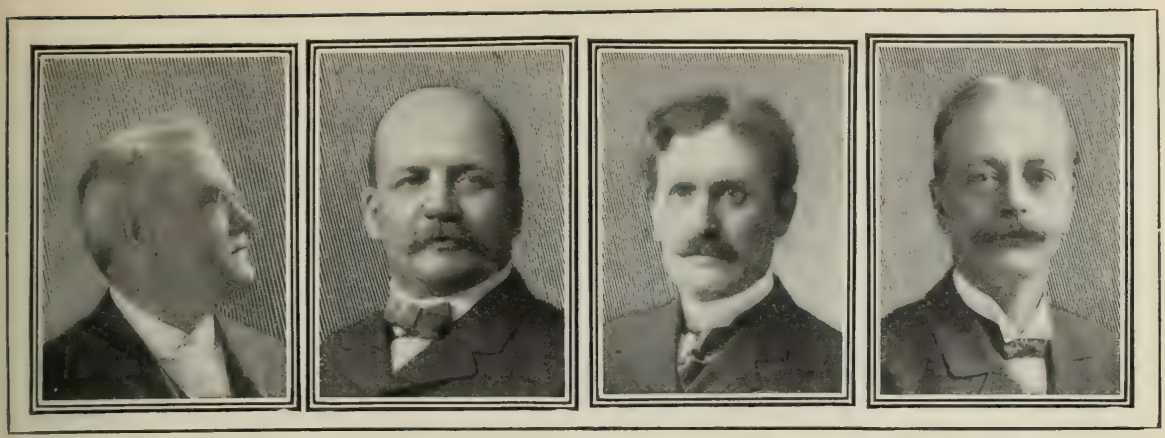
SIR WILLIAM RAMSAY, K.C.B., LL.D., F.R.S., RETIRING (SECOND) PRESIDENT OF THE SOCIETY OF CHEMICAL INDUSTRY.

(British chemist, discoverer of five new elements, member of most of the world's scientific societies, and author of text-books and many articles.)

Touching American conditions, it may be remarked that great forward strides have been made and are making along the lines mentioned. On the occasion of the twenty-fifth anniversary of the founding of the American Chemical Society, a report of a special census committee was submitted. The writer had the honor of being chairman of that committee, and the amassed data passed through his hands. A conservative statement, averaging all, is that the accommodations for students, teachers, and chemists in America have increased in the proportion of one to twenty-five.

It is a fact, established by reliable statistics, that those sections of our country which have been most progressive, or have grown most rapidly, utilize most extensively the services of chemists. This is largely an economic problem, for twenty-five years ago profits were large and wastes enormous; now, with competition, local and foreign, the value of waste is appreciated, and chemistry regulates the control of that waste. There are not a few instances where the old waste by-product has become the main material of the factory. Witness the extraction of oil from cotton seed in the Southern States, where the pressed cake is used for cattle food and fertilizer purposes.

The presiding officer of the Society of Chemical Industry is now the most successful American manufacturer of chemicals, Mr. W. H. Nichols, president of the General Chemical Company. He interweaves production with investigation; employs the best, produces the best.



MR. JAMES R. BRANCH, OF NEW YORK.
(Secretary of the American Bankers' Association.)

MR. WALKER HILL, OF ST. LOUIS.
(President American Exchange Bank.)

GOV. MYRON T. HERRICK, OF OHIO.
(President Society of Savings, Cleveland.)

MR. F. G. BIGELOW, OF MILWAUKEE.
(Retiring president of the Association.)

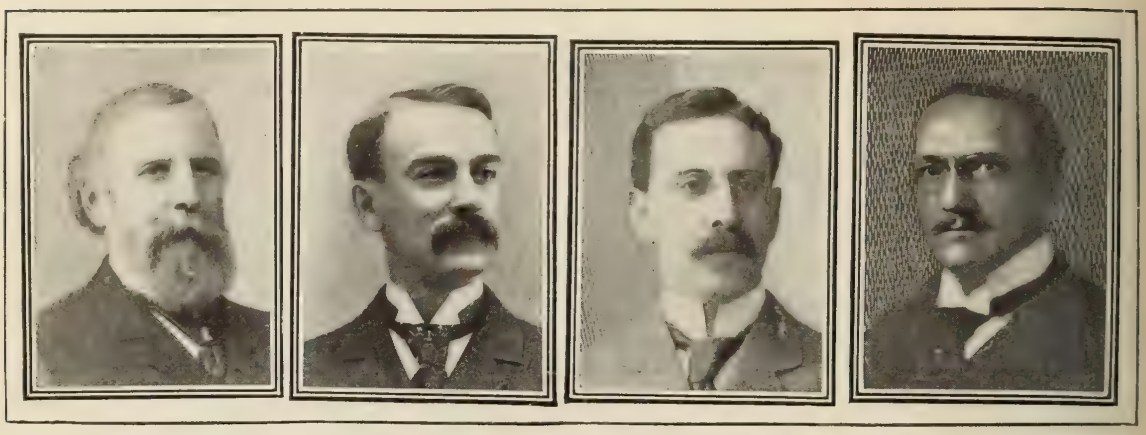
THE BANKERS' CONVENTION AT NEW YORK.

BY WILLIAM JUSTUS BOIES.

THE thirtieth annual convention of the American Bankers' Association, held in New York City, September 14, 15, and 16, attracted the largest assemblage ever gathered at a banking conference in this country. The thirty-two hundred delegates and their friends represented every variety of financial institution, from the little cross-roads concern that is glad to accommodate the owner of a donkey with a twenty-dollar loan to the heavily capitalized Wall Street bank that thinks nothing of underwriting a twenty-million-dollar venture. Never in the history of American banking has a more curious, complex, and unique attendance been secured at a banking function than that which brought together the custodians of more than eleven billion dollars of capital, surplus, and deposits. More than one multimillionaire bank president, whose office atmosphere is usually near zero, received a new impression of country deposits from shaking hands with the backwoods contingent. "You see," said a rural banker, "the big bugs are not the only factor in American banking after all. These conventions demonstrate that. We country fellows carry pretty heavy balances in New York, and in more than one way exert considerable influence in the financial affairs of the country. Wall Street covers only half a mile of the distance between the Atlantic and the Pacific. The great city bankers should never forget that. These gatherings are helpful in proportion as they make us better Americans by making us less provincial. While we country bankers may not have as many pearl pins and black satin cravats as our city friends display, we try to keep in close enough touch with what is going on to avoid making unsafe loans. And I think," added the speaker, with a reminiscent smile, "that in the long run we succeed quite as well as our city friends do."

That was the attitude with which the corner-grocery bankers met the financiers of the principal cities, and it is difficult to tell which gained the most from the interview. Both were enthusiastic about the success of the convention, which did a great deal of serious work besides enjoying the entertainments provided for the afternoons and evenings.

And so, in this spirit of good-fellowship and frank discussion, the city did lose a little of its provincialism, as James Stillman, president of the New York Clearing House, in his welcoming address, expressed the hope that it would do. And the country, too, went home better enlightened about the status of Wall Street in financial affairs, and with less dread, perhaps, of the city's greedy outreaching for interior business. This, in fact,—the convention's human side,—with the spirit of coöperation that it promoted, was its distinct contribution, which will be remembered longer than the formal proceedings. But there was serious work accomplished, and for the first time in banking history the trust-company movement met the banks in close-range discussion of the needs for a cash reserve and the enactment of proper legislation



HON. LYMAN T. GAGE, OF NEW YORK.
(President of the United States Trust Company.)

MR. JOHN F. THOMPSON, OF NEW YORK.
(Vice-president of the Bankers' Trust Company.)

MR. ALBERT H. WIGGIN, OF NEW YORK.
(Vice-president of the Chase National Bank.)

MR. CLARK WILLIAMS, OF NEW YORK.
(Vice-president U. S. Mortgage and Trust Company.)

governing both classes of institutions. The discussions were held in separate rooms, and at different hours, as were also the deliberations of the savings-bank section, for the association long ago recognized the wisdom of organizing the various banks in separate groups, so as to admit of proper specialization. But each section held its conference at hours which did not conflict with the programme of the general convention, which was open to all delegates, and of peculiar interest because of the five-minute addresses by representatives of various sections.

The formal proceedings included, as usual, a discussion of the ever-present currency question, with the usual suggestions concerning its cause and cure. A. B. Hepburn, of New York, gave an expert's view of the case, and a committee appointed at San Francisco a year ago told the results of its Washington investigation into what was practical and possible of accomplishment. Similar attention was given to the means of eliminating panics and preventing such periods of disturbance as caused the hardships of 1873 and 1893. Here the suggestions were of such general interest that I give four of the safeguards indicated in Mr. Andrew J. Frame's crusade against wild-cat banking,—(1) prohibiting, by federal statute, the operation of any banking institution not having a definite paid-in capital, except in the case of mutual savings-banks, which ought to accumulate a surplus ; (2) such an amendment to the national banking act as would permit banks to make individual loans up to a fixed percentage of capital and surplus, instead of restricting such accommodation to one-tenth of capital, as is now done ; (3) forcing all financial institutions (trust companies included) to maintain a definite cash reserve against demand liabilities, with proper provision for preventing too hasty withdrawal of savings accounts when depositors become panic-stricken without cause ; (4) permitting each bank to adjust its own interest rate, with the suggestion that the public be warned against doing business with such institutions as offer excessive terms for new business ; and (5) giving proper scope to the present system of banking supervision as practised successfully by State and federal governments.

Mr. Frame added this word of warning, which has peculiar significance in view of the excesses of the recent period of speculation, from the burdens of which the great city banks have only just recovered :

> National calamities are not born in country towns. Panics are bred in great cities, where colossal promotions flourish ; where most, not all, banks fail to reduce interest-paying rates when money is easy ; where the cashier is discharged (according to Secretary Shaw's witticism) when the board of directors find him with fifty thousand dollars surplus reserve ; where the reserves are loaned to the stock-jobbers that ought to be held to meet the call of the country banks for their own deposits to move the crops. Then, when the stock-jobber is called upon to liquidate, he must attempt to rob Peter to pay Paul, but, because of the lack of a proper cash reserve generally, stocks decline on forced sales to obtain cash and general liquidation takes place. Conservative people in all pursuits do not allow a little surplus cash to burn in their pockets when they know that extraordinary payments will soon require its use, and bankers ought to be the leaders in conservatism.

These were plain words that caused some bankers to wince at the recollections of 1901. The country delegates chuckled at the discomfiture of their city friends. But, for all that, the appeal for conservatism was effective in this as in other addresses. The informal discus-



MR. A. B. HEPBURN, OF NEW YORK.
(President of the Chase National Bank.)

MR. JOSEPH C. HENDRIX, OF NEW YORK.
(Former president of American Bankers' Association.)

MR. GEORGE W. YOUNG, OF NEW YORK.
(President U. S. Mortgage and Trust Company.)

MR. JOSEPH G. BROWN, OF RALEIGH, N. C.
(President of the Citizens' National Bank.)

sions were of more general interest, and touched a greater variety of topics, than those mentioned on the official programme. They contributed the varying views of different sections on the question of branch banks,—about which the country contingent is still up in arms,—uniform laws, asset currency, and the establishment of a satisfactory money-order system. In the private discussions, one theme that received general attention was the development of the financial department store. That picturesque institution is preëminently the product of twentieth-century American banking. No other country has it, but if we keep on organizing ten-million-dollar and twenty-five-million-dollar banks this country will soon not be able to get along without it in the large centers. In New York City, there are four or five of these great money shops. They usually have one or two trust-company attachments, besides half-a-dozen smaller banks in near-by communities. These institutions do in a day what the old-fashioned bank formerly took a week to accomplish. Their business is splendidly organized, and managed by men who are experts in the art of shaking hands and making the out-of-town contingent feel at home. One of these banks has an "interior department" which does nothing but "keep tabs" on country bankers and the possibility of securing their accounts. This department has a complete list of the out-of-town correspondents of rival institutions, and full data covering such facts as average balance, usual accommodation required, class of business carried, and available details concerning the interior banker's family history. Just as soon as a consolidation is talked of in New York, or a radical change in ownership takes place, letters are sent broadcast throughout the country inviting the clients of the New York bank in question to transfer their accounts to the rival institution, which "will offer every facility."

"Department-store banking" was in special evidence at the convention. You encountered it in the lobbies of the hotels, at the theaters, and at dinners and luncheons. Even the wives and daughters of the delegates saw something of it in the flowers and fruit that were rushed to their rooms. One Wall Street bank that has several hundred out-of-town accounts delegates one of its officers for "reception committee" duty. This official keeps in close touch with the movements of out-of-town clients, and sees that they are properly entertained on reaching the city. He makes a study of the bank's out-of-town accounts, and looks after the welfare of its customers in every way possible.

The association conducts an ambitious scheme of educational work through its American Institute of Bank Clerks, which now has twenty-eight chapters in different sections of the country. Under the auspices of this institute, a plan of official examination has been devised which is intended to centralize the various lines of instruction and maintain a definite system of banking education. The savings-bank section, having nearly six hundred members, devoted its session to the discussion of technical problems having reference to its special type of banking. The trust companies considered topics of more general interest, of which the question of maintaining a proper cash reserve was the most important.

THIS YEAR'S STRIKES AND THE PRESENT INDUSTRIAL SITUATION.

BY VICTOR S. YARROS.

STRIKES, deadlocks, lockouts, and threatened conflicts between capital and labor—or, to be more exact, between employers and employed—have for many weeks and months filled the pages of the daily press. While at any time since May 1 it might truly have been said, "Sufficient unto the day is the [industrial] evil thereof," it will generally be admitted that troubles even graver than those actually experienced have been apprehended in several parts of the country. Men of affairs seriously and anxiously spoke of a "crisis" in the economic life of the United States due directly to the attitude and activities of the labor organizations. And facts and figures could be freely cited to sustain this pessimistic view.

But there has been a decided change in the situation—a gratifying and reassuring change. The industrial sky is clearer, and the clouds are disappearing. Peace does not reign all along the line; there are several centers of storm and disturbance to which the improvement has not extended, and even where fairly normal conditions prevail once more the equilibrium is perhaps unstable. Still, things are very much better than they were during the summer, and there is reasonable hope of a period of industrial quiet and order and harmony. On the eve of a national election, and in view of the readiness of certain classes of so-called practical politicians to "make capital" out of any industrial dislocation, the change in question is doubly welcome. The strike for political effect is, happily, rare.

It is, of course, virtually impossible to ascertain the actual number of strikes and strikers (regarding the lockout as the employers' strike) in a country so vast as the United States. Recent estimates for which absolute precision cannot be claimed have placed the number of working men and working women idle on account, not of restricted production due to business causes, but of disputes and conflicts between employers and employed, at about one hundred and fifty thousand. Even this number would be an insignificant percentage of the great army of American wage-workers, but since these estimates were put forth, one great strike and several minor contests have been "mended or ended," and a new "census" would probably yield a total not exceeding seventy-five thousand men and women.

CHICAGO, "THE CITY OF STRIKES."

To take Chicago first, as the city which has long had a bad eminence in the matter of labor difficulties, a few weeks ago no fewer than eighty-nine strikes were in progress, involving a daily loss in wages alone of nearly sixty-seven thousand dollars. The "distribution" of these troubles was shown in the following table, which appeared on Labor Day in the Chicago *Tribune*:

	Number on Strike.
Packing trades, including butchers, teamsters, and twenty-eight allied trades	26,620
Garment workers, including cutters, bushelmen, examiners, and trimmers	400
Woodworkers, including men employed in furniture factories	3,000
Machinists, including men employed in machine shops, railroad shops, etc	1,350
Printing trades, including Franklin union, and other printers	100
Bakers—strike at Coyne and Heusner plants	100
Boilermakers at Illinois Steel plant and railroad shops.	100
Laundry drivers	10
Miscellaneous, including bricklayers and other trades (estimated)	500
Total	32,180

All the important strikes have since been brought to a close. The packing trades surrendered to the employers after obtaining slight concessions and a promise of a careful study of alleged grievances and the elimination of whatever abuses might be found to exist. This dispute was essentially "sympathetic" on the part of the skilled men. They walked out to secure recognition for their unskilled brethren and the restoration of a wage-rate which the packers, in the present state of the labor market, deemed excessive. Uncertainty as to collateral and subsequent issues renders it difficult even now to point any definite, plain moral for the benefit of either party.

The packers were charged with attempting to destroy unionism in the yards, with deliberate violation of the terms of a settlement based on the principle of "no discrimination" against unionists or sympathetic strikers as such, and with taking advantage of a temporary depression to force wages down below the level of subsistence according to American standards. On the other hand, the strikers were accused of Quixotic sentimentalism in so completely and recklessly subordinating their own welfare, and

that of their families, to the interest of unskilled laborers; of breach of contract in failing to abide by the provisions of an arbitration agreement; of a willful refusal to arbitrate the differences in the first place; of laying down their tools regardless of binding contracts expressly excluding sympathetic strikes, and of all manner of unreason and unfairness generally.

"FUNDAMENTAL ERRORS OF UNIONISM."

Now that the struggle is over, President Donnelly, of the butcher workmen's union, frankly admits that "many fundamental errors of unionism" have been disclosed in the process, and that it will be necessary for the chastened and defeated men to reorganize on "sounder principles." A bill of particulars would doubtless be instructive and enlightening, but who will demand its production? As for the packers, an appeal to their humanity and sense of fair play (an appeal made by three women identified with social settlement work) induced them to reënter into negotiations with the strike leaders, and they know full well that conditions in the stock yards were by no means ideal. But exactly what the strike has taught them will remain their own secret. The "third party," the great public, can only cry, "Peace, conciliation, mutual concessions," and hope that some benefit will result from the confused and confusing *dénouement*.

In some of the smaller strikes which Chicago has endured or is still enduring, greater and clearer issues have been presented. Foremost among them, beyond all question, is the open shop *versus* the union, or closed, shop. Just now, thanks to circumstances which cannot be set forth in this article, the question seems to have been postponed. There are many "closed shops" in Chicago by virtue of agreements which will not expire until next May. But the powerful and secret Employers' Association of this city (which association, it is stated, has assisted in the organization of a dozen similar bodies in the surrounding territory) has declared war on the closed shop, and within the past several months notice has been served on certain trade-unions that the closed-shop feature will not be tolerated as part of future contracts. Judging the future by the past, this decision will not be acquiesced in by the stronger unions without stubborn resistance.

Few of this year's strikes in Chicago were for increased wages or a shorter workday. Nearly all the grave and formidable ones, at all events, were due to the unwillingness of the employers to enter into closed-shop contracts. Most of these have been lost, but several are still in progress, and they include the locals of the National Garment Workers' Union. There is reason to believe or fear that the "open shop" issue will in the near future constitute the paramount "labor" question in the Western centers of industry. The head of one of the largest businesses in Chicago was lately quoted as saying: "Some day the unions and the business community will have to fight it out to see who owns Chicago."

At present, however, to repeat, a state of calm and quiet characterizes practically every leading industry of Chicago. No trade has suffered more than printing; but after a year of war, of lawsuits, injunctions, small riots, and assaults on person and property (at least, if newspaper reports are to be relied on), there is a fair promise of peace for the next sixteen months, agreements having been concluded that run for a year from next January. The Chicago courts have less "labor" business than at any time in several years, and, in view of local tendencies, this is a telling piece of evidence.

LABOR CONDITIONS IN NEW YORK.

In New York, the conditions, at this writing, are not equally satisfactory, but the indications of an early improvement are strong. It is an interesting fact, by the way, that New York takes its labor troubles with a lighter heart than does Chicago. Its newspapers do not dwell on the subject, and when they deal with it they display a more philosophical temper. This may be an effect of age and riper experience,—Chicago would probably attribute it to a different and less creditable cause,—but the contrast itself is noteworthy.

An agreement just reached between the Interborough Rapid Transit Company on the one hand and the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers, the Brotherhood of Locomotive Firemen, and the Amalgamated Association of Street and Electric Railway Employees on the other is believed to insure tranquillity for the next three years on both the subway and the elevated roads.

Minor controversies aside, the difficulty which has involved serious losses and permanent injury to unionism is that which has partially paralyzed the building industry. Less than a year ago, after a protracted and wasteful fight, a settlement was effected whereby the Employers' Association achieved a notable victory at the expense, not of the principle of labor organization, nor even of the unions then in existence, but of certain practices and elements of the building-trade unions. The "Sam Parks" affair is still within the general recollection, and the Employers' Association was established for the avowed purpose of uprooting "Parksism." The employ-

ers themselves, it will not have been forgotten, prepared an arbitration agreement which not only accorded full recognition to the unions but accepted and perpetuated the "closed shop" principle. Sympathetic strikes were barred, and it was stipulated that the representatives of the unions should not serve in the capacity of business agents,—an anti-blackmail provision.

ARBITRATION AND THE CLOSED SHOP.

This rather remarkable arbitration agreement never wholly commended itself to the unions, though many employers in other cities regarded it as excessively generous, if not improper in principle. A few months ago, certain of these organizations declared sympathetic strikes, in violation of the agreement, asserting that controversies had arisen which could not possibly be arbitrated. Repeated efforts at a settlement failed, and early in August a general lockout was declared by the employers in the building trades.

Even then, however, the arbitration plan was not abandoned by the employers, and hundreds of strikers have returned to work under it, signing it individually, while retaining their membership in the unions. The strike is expected to fail, but it is doubtful whether advantage will be taken of the probable failure to repudiate the closed shop. Without prejudging pending proceedings, it seems that blackmail has not been eliminated in the building trades, and what the new act (secured by District Attorney Jerome) will accomplish in this direction remains to be seen. This legislation renders those paying blackmail equally punishable with those demanding or receiving it.

The strike, it should be added, has not been attended by any violence or disorder, which circumstance possibly accounts for the neglect of it by the editorial writers of the daily newspapers.

THE GARMENT WORKERS.

The unsuccessful strike of the New York garment workers, now a thing of the past, cannot be passed over without a word or two. It was caused by what appears to have been a purely Platonic resolution against the closed shop adopted by the National Association of Clothing Manufacturers. In this resolution the open shop was proclaimed to be the logical corollary of the principle of equal liberty and equal opportunity. At the same time, it was explicitly stated in less formal declarations that no practical change in the conditions prevailing in the shops was intended or contemplated. No union men were to be discharged, and no non-union men engaged in vindication of the new policy. This disclaimer did not prevent the organized garment workers from quitting work as a protest against the open-shop principle, contrary to the earnest advice of their general secretary, Mr. Henry C. White, who resigned his position in consequence of this action, which he deemed unwise and unnecessary.

While the strike has not been called off, so many of the men have returned to work that the employers treat it as a negligible affair. New York expects to be as free from industrial disturbances in a week or two as Chicago is already.

THE OLD-FASHIONED STRIKE IN FALL RIVER.

From the view-point of mere numbers, the Fall River strike of the cotton-mill operatives is the greatest now in progress in the United States. From the beginning, it promised to be one of the most determined contests that the Massachusetts city has ever seen. This dispute, regrettable as it is, presents no bewildering complications. It is, so to speak, an old-fashioned sort of contest. The operatives refused to accept a 12½ per cent. wage-reduction which the mill-owners asserted was dictated by the inexorable condition of the market for their commodities and the market for their raw material. The mill-owners pointed to the high price of cotton, consequent upon the Sully speculation, on the one hand, and the decreased demand for their product on the other. Though they had reduced wages 10 per cent. last fall, and had also curtailed production, they could not "make both ends meet," and profits were out of the question. In spite of this absence of any return on the capital, they further averred, they did not wish to suspend work altogether, and they asked the operatives to make some sacrifice in their turn. But the latter pooh-poohed the representations of the mill-owners, alleging that the market conditions had merely reduced profits instead of wiping them out, and that there was "money enough in the business" to pay reasonable dividends as well as to maintain the old scale of wages.

Here was an issue of fact, not of principle, and it is impossible for a fair-minded outsider to decide, absolutely, whether the mill-owners or the thirty thousand operatives who, with practical unanimity, voted to strike were right. It has been suggested that low wages are better than no wages at all, and that a few weeks' idleness will represent a heavy loss that can never be recovered; the leaders of the striking unions meet this argument by saying that it would apply to any and all reductions of wages, no matter how gratuitous and needless they might be, and that its logical conclusion is that men ought to work for any wages employers choose to pay,

since crumbs are preferable to no bread at all. Neither side having urged a reference of the issue of fact,—the ability of the mill-owners to pay the old rate without surrendering all profits or incurring positive losses,—resumption was in no way provided for, and the mills may remain closed until October. This strike, too, is thoroughly orderly and pacific.

THE UNUSUAL SITUATION IN COLORADO.

From Fall River to the mining districts of Colorado is "a far cry." It is likewise a far cry from the passive (whether wise or unwise) resistance of the cotton-mill operatives to a proposed reduction to the sort of troubles which have disgraced Cripple Creek, Telluride, and other Colorado districts. It is not necessary to review the whole difficulty, with the outrages that have accompanied or followed, in this article. Newspapers and magazines have familiarized readers with the salient features of the situation, and here it is only proper to state that, while the conditions are gradually and slowly undergoing a change for the better (there could hardly have been, at certain times, a change for the worse), much is still left to be desired.

When Governor Peabody declared military law in the affected districts to be at an end, he intimated also that the Western Federation of Miners might do its part by calling off the strike, originally caused by a controversy over an eight-hour bill. The federation's answer was that there was no connection between the executive's action and the merits of the strike. To the people at large, however, the Colorado conflict has for a long time presented other than purely industrial aspects. The law and order issue has obscured and overshadowed every other. The eight-hour legislation has been completely lost sight of, as have been questions of the responsibility of certain individuals for certain offenses. Even allowing for exaggeration, some Colorado counties for a time reverted to barbarism and civil chaos; what we call civilization was unknown there.

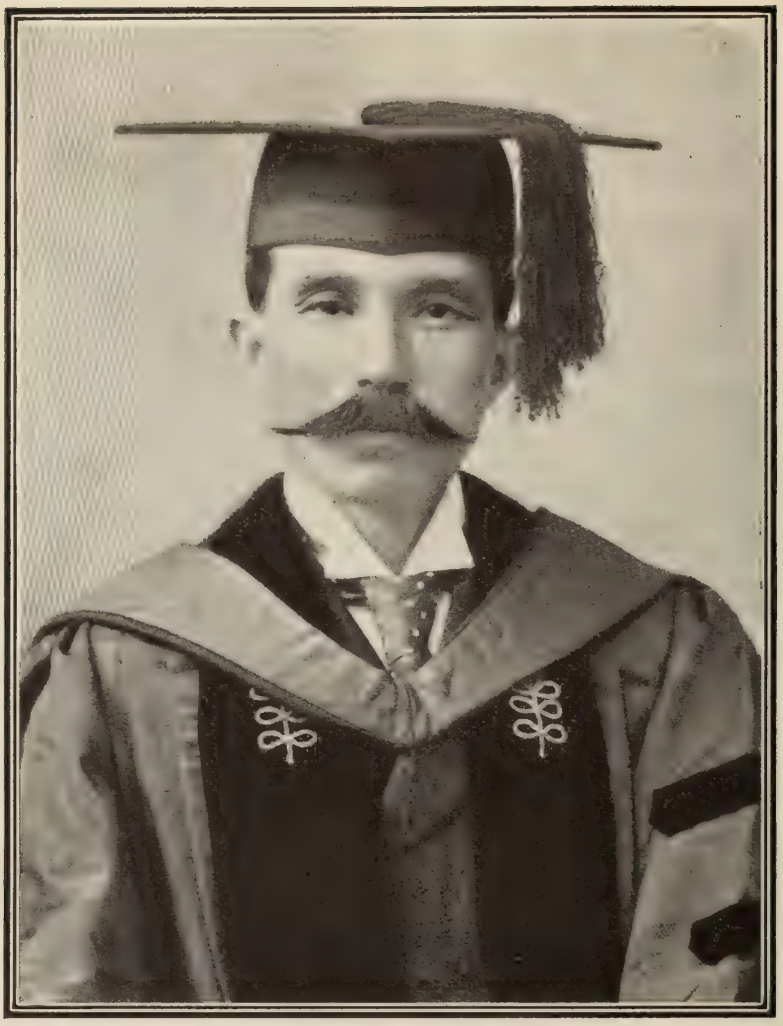
A renewal of violence and outrage was reported in the press some weeks ago, and a statement has been published alleging a confession by one of the deported miners in regard to one of the dynamite plots; but no further intelligence of an alarming character has been received. Non-union and ex-union men are working or applying for work in the mines, and it is probable that the final phase of the trouble will be political—in a partisan sense. In the meantime, the federal courts are acquiring jurisdiction over some of the constitutional "premises" of the contest, and questions of vital importance will eventually be settled in this connection.

SAN FRANCISCO UNIONS AND POLITICS.

A rather peculiar situation exists in San Francisco,—the "unionized city *par excellence*," according to certain accounts. Not that much actual warfare has occurred there of late; quite the contrary. The impression prevails, however, that a crisis is approaching. The manufacturing and business interests are profoundly discontented; they complain of the arrogance and tyranny of the unions, and of the hostility of the "labor mayor" and the city government generally. The employers, the country has been told, have not been in a position to oppose the unions even where opposition would have been unquestionably justifiable, for the authorities systematically favored labor and could not be depended on to give capital the protection it had the right to demand. But it seems that the unions are by no means satisfied with the *status quo*. One labor organ affirms that the San Francisco unionists "are through with politics," and that the effect of taking the industrial problem into municipal politics has been largely to transfer the direction of the labor movement to the hands of men who would subordinate the interests of labor to the schemes of a political machine. The lesson of San Francisco's experience is said to be that "the best thing a trade-union can do after getting into politics is to get out again as quickly as possible."

In the great coal industry, peace reigns. The bituminous miners accepted a reduction of wages and entered into an "interstate" agreement with the operators. In the anthracite region, there has been some friction, but, on the whole, the award of the Gray arbitration board has been faithfully observed. Last summer, a strike seemed to be imminent; better counsel prevailed, however, and the dispute,—one involving no principle,—was referred to Judge Gray for determination.

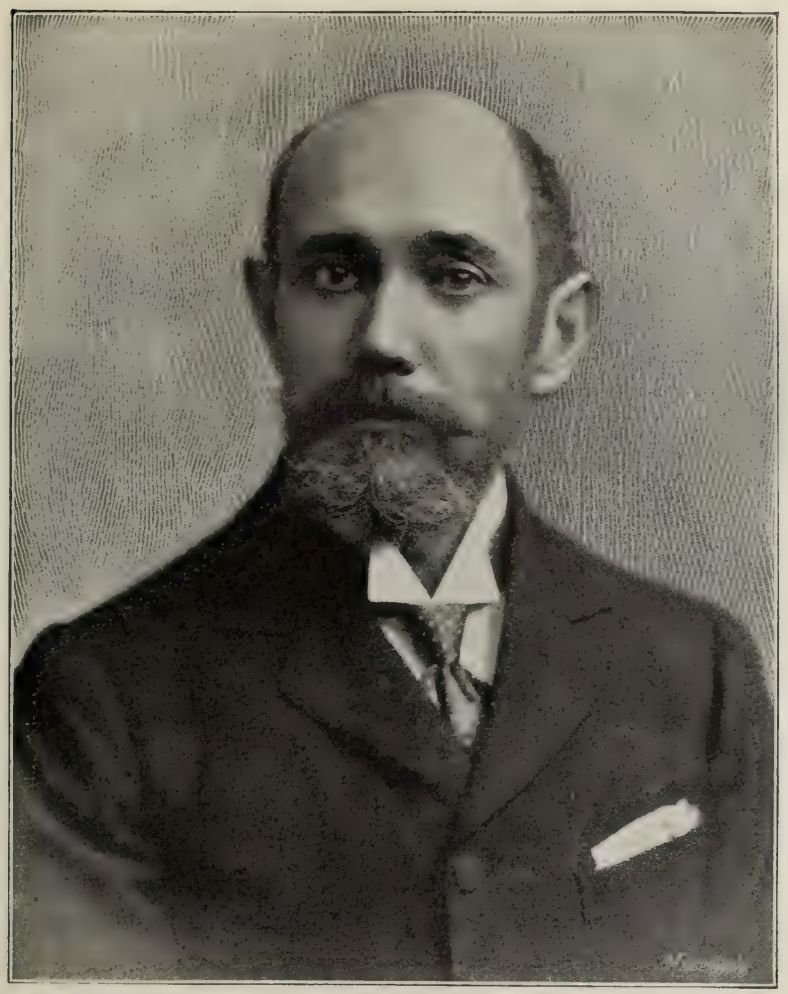
To sum up, the industrial developments of the last few months have resulted in a distinct improvement. The period of active contention and strife is closed, the falling market and the number of unsuccessful strikes having doubtless hastened the change. At no time, however, did the labor movement bristle with more questions of moment and interest than now. This side of the subject requires separate treatment.



BARON KENTARO KANEKO.

THIS Japanese statesman, who has been in the United States for several months, making a tour of the country and studying economic conditions, with special reference to American progress as shown at the St. Louis Exposition, is a Samurai and a distinguished member of the Japanese House of Peers. Baron Kaneko has been intrusted by his government with a very important mission, making him virtually a special ambassador to the American people. His strong and informing article on Japan's ability to finance a long war, which we publish this month (on page 454), is the authoritative word on the subject.

Baron Kaneko graduated from the Harvard Law School in 1878, and later became professor of law in the Imperial University, at Tokio. He then entered the foreign department of the government, and rose to the position of minister of state for agriculture and commerce. He has also been chief secretary of the House of Peers, and minister of justice. In June, 1899, he was again in this country, and then received the degree of LL.D. from Harvard University. In conferring the degree, President Eliot addressed the baron thus: "Kentaro Kaneko, Harvard bachelor of laws, formerly chief secretary of the Imperial House of Peers in Japan, minister of agriculture and commerce, life member of the House of Peers, the type of those scholars of two hemispheres through whom West would welcome East to share in the inheritance of Hebrew religion, Greek art, Roman law, and nineteenth-century science."



DR. E. J. DILLON, JOURNALIST AND TRAVELER.

DR. EMILE JOSEPH DILLON, whose article dealing with the effects of the present war on Russian conditions begins on page 449 of this number of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS, was born in Ireland about fifty years ago. His mother was English and his father Irish. Dr. Dillon received his university education on the Continent, at the Collège de France, Paris, and at the Universities of Innsbruck, Leipsic, Tübingen, St. Petersburg, Louvain, and Kharkoff, where he attended lectures on philology, theology, historical criticism, and philosophy. It is said that he is the only writer in the ranks of London journalism who can compose an article with equal facility in English, French, German, or Russian. He is the master, also, of many other languages. Dr. Dillon married a Russian lady in 1881, and since that date has lived much of the time in St. Petersburg. He first attracted attention as the writer of a series of brilliant articles on Russia in the leading English reviews. Later, he became the St. Petersburg correspondent of the London *Daily Telegraph*, and on special commissions for that newspaper he achieved noteworthy journalistic triumphs in Armenia in 1895, in Spain on the eve of the Spanish-American War, in Crete, in France during the Dreyfus excitement, and in China after the Boxer insurrection. Dr. Dillon is the author of many books on philological and literary topics, and is a man of marvelous erudition and versatility, but his reputation in England and America is chiefly based on his intimate knowledge of Russian economic, social, and political conditions,—a knowledge which is shared by few other writers.

THE SALVATION ARMY'S LATEST PROBLEM.

GENERAL WILLIAM BOOTH, commander of the Salvation Army, made a motor-car tour of England, from Land's End to John o'Groat's House, during August and September. The spectacle of the aged general—General Booth was seventy-five last birthday—reviving energies exhausted by delivering nearly sixty speeches in the three weeks' congress of the army by motoring through Britain on a kind of twentieth-century episcopal inspection of his diocese, struck the public imagination. Everywhere crowds turned out to see the man whom the English King delighted to honor, and to see the most remarkable religious leader of his day and generation. But although the multitudes who lined the course of General Booth's more than royal progress northward naturally thought of the past and its achievements, the old man eloquent was thinking altogether of the future and its possible triumphs.

The general has inspected the planet. He finds it empty in spots, sparsely peopled in many places, and densely overcrowded in others. He finds many men working for starvation wages in one place, and employment offering in vain huge wages in another place. In a well-regulated planet such anomalies would not exist. For the ideal of a well-regulated state is that every citizen should know how to make the best of himself, and how to take his labor to the best market. To do this it is necessary that he should know where that market is, and how to get there. That implies an up-to-date labor bureau and intelligence department, served by honest, zealous agents all over the world.

"It is not enough," said General Booth, "that the individual should be told that somewhere or other, thousands of miles off, somebody wants to hire him. It is necessary to do more than that. You have to bridge the distance between the worker and his work, to bring him to his work, and in the case of a new country, to see to it that the newly transplanted worker is not flung out into the wilderness to starve, but is carefully planted and tended and supplied with the society and social necessities which have come to be to him indispensable. I do not mean that you must cosset and pamper the man. But you must realize what kind of being he is, what he really needs. Man is a social animal, and if you plant out a man reared in this crowded country in the back settlements, with no neighbor within five miles, and that neighbor a man who cannot talk English, failure is the inevitable result."

"Where does the Salvation Army come in?"

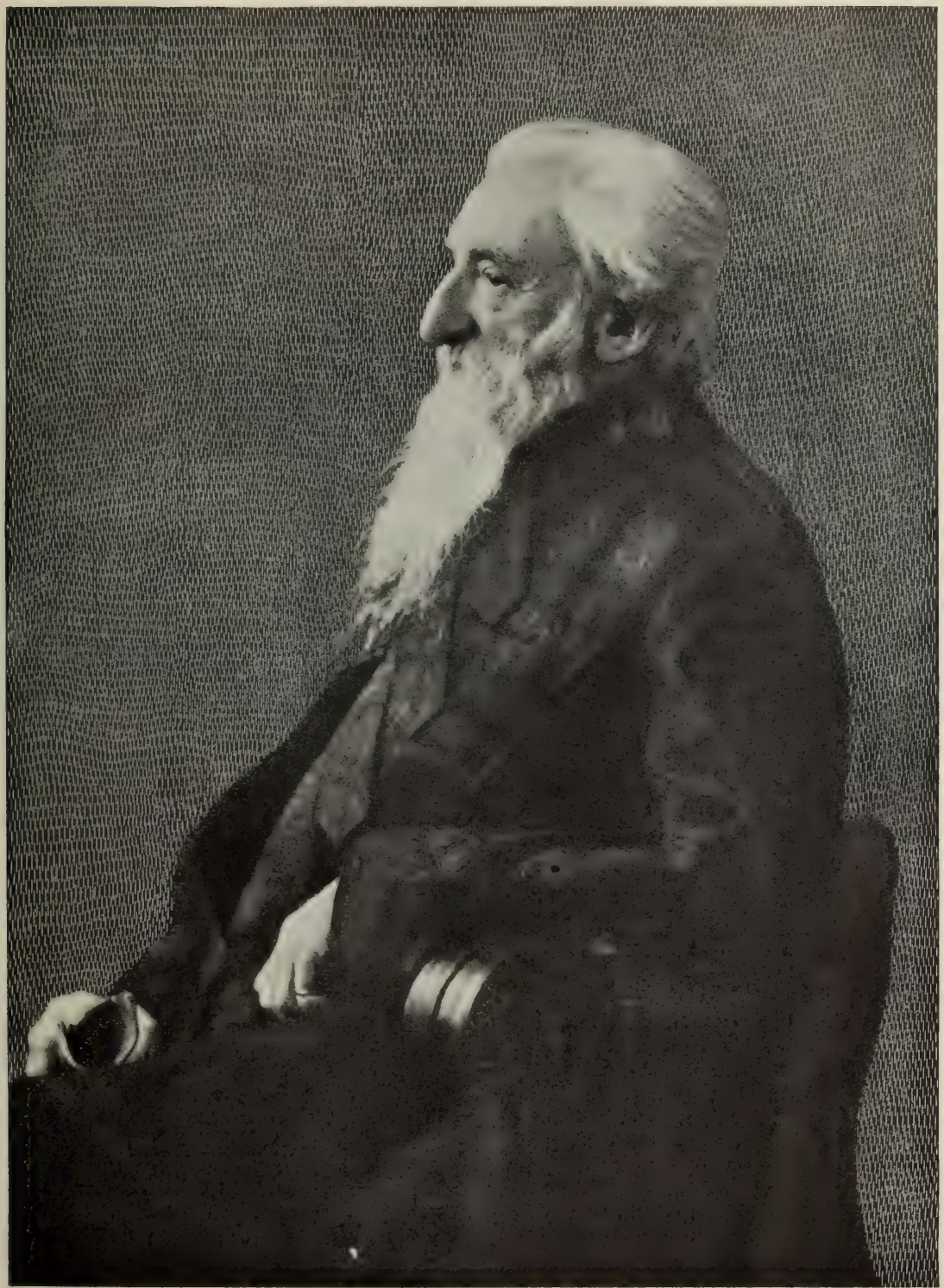
"The Salvation Army comes in right here: that the one indispensable thing in attempting any of this labor-bureau work is the character of the agency which seeks to bring the workless worker into fertilizing contact with those who want his labor. Everything depends upon the character of the agency. It must be honest. It must not be partisan. It must side neither with trade-unionist nor capitalist, but it must be trusted by both. Then, again, it must not be a parochial institution. It must have branches everywhere; its agents should permeate the planet. It must be an agency with a heart in it, a heart to love, to care for, and to understand the needs of men."

"In other words, it must be the Salvation Army?"

"I do not say that," said the general. "But if the Salvation Army fills the bill, woe be unto us if we do not use it to meet this great oppressing need. We want to help people. We are helping people. But we want to help more people. And this is one of the ways for doing it. Why do not those colonies which want immigrants make us their immigration agents? We would do the work for them far better than they can do it for themselves. But it is too much to expect us to do the work at our own cost. We would not charge them anything for commission—only out-of-pocket expenses—and the necessary advance to transfer the willing worker from the place where no one wants him to the place where everybody is clamoring for him. They would get it all back over and over again. They might even get it back in direct cash repayment. For the right kind of man pays back what is lent him. We have sent out hundreds and hundreds, and we find they expect to repay it. Only we cannot afford to stand out of the money that ought to be borne by those who want the men."

"Then do you think there are the right kind of men to be got in this country?"

"Heaps of them. Heaps. They only want a chance. The men who won't work are very few. The people who need someone to give them a helping hand are very many. They are very good fellows; only they need leading—directing. They are ready enough to obey. But they need a lead."



THE REV. WILLIAM BOOTH, COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF OF THE SALVATION ARMY.

[This recent portrait of General Booth (who is now seventy-five years of age) represents him as he appeared when he was summoned to court to receive the congratulations of King Edward during the meeting of the Salvation Army's International Congress in London, last July.]



THE JUNGFRAU RAILWAY, IN SWITZERLAND.

THE STEEPEST RAILWAY IN THE WORLD.

THE JUNGFRAU RAILWAY,—A TRIUMPH OF SWISS ENGINEERING SKILL.

BY HUGO ERICHSEN.

WHEN the Jungfrau Railway is completed, it will unquestionably be the steepest railway in the world, for its grade is within 2 per cent. of forty-five degrees.

The Jungfrau, one of the most beautiful mountains in Europe, is one of the chief peaks of the Bernese Alps, and rises far above the limits of perpetual snow. For many years, all efforts to render this virgin mountain more accessible proved unavailing, until the late Guyer-Zeller, of Zurich, solved the problem that had puzzled so many engineers. In 1894, he obtained a concession, extending over eighty years, from the Swiss Federal Council for what is unquestionably one of the most stupendous engineering feats ever attempted.

The difficulty of the project was increased by the fact that the Eiger and the Moench had to be pierced before the Jungfrau could be entered, in order to obtain the required grade. But by August, 1896, all preliminary obstacles had been surmounted, the line of the railway had been decided upon, and rail-laying had been begun. And in September, 1898, the first section was opened.

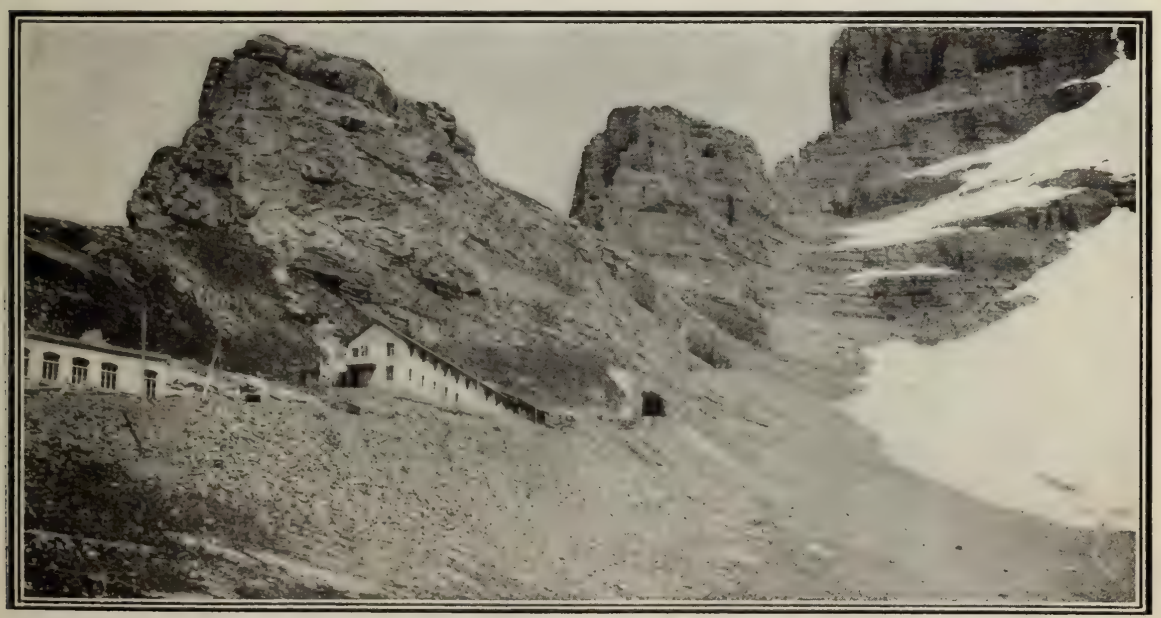
The starting-point of the railway is at Scheidegg, on top of the Wengernalp, which may be conveniently reached by rail from Interlaken. From here, an electric car takes you to the Mer de Glace station, which has been just completed and is the present terminus of the road, ten thousand seven hundred and twenty feet

above sea level. The trolley line runs first on open ground, gradually ascending on the slopes of the great snow-capped Eiger. When the mountain-side is reached, the line plunges into the rock at a grade of 25 per cent. Thus far, only four miles of the six-mile tunnel have been completed, the length of the entire road, as projected, being eight miles. The work of tunneling is very slow, owing to the tenacious character of the calcareous rock. At the present rate of progress—two yards a day—it will be several years before the remainder of the task will be accomplished. Three hundred Italians delve in the hearts of these mountains all the year round, being cut off from the world during the winter months, — exiles in the snow.



THE EIGER GLACIER.

At Rothstock, the second station, which is two miles from Scheidegg and three-fourths of a mile from the point where the line enters the mountain-side, and at the Eigerwand station, as well as at the terminus, there are transverse galleries abutting on large openings from which tourists can admire the magnificent Alpine scenery, secure from the dreadful ava-



THE GLACIER STATION AND THE EIGER TUNNEL.



TOURISTS DESCENDING FROM THE JUNGFRAU THROUGH A LABYRINTH OF ICE.

lanche. These stations are lined with wood, heated and lighted with electricity, and provided with all the comforts of a modern hotel.

The electric power required to run the road is furnished by two turbine power stations, one being located at Lauterbrunnen and the other at Grindelwald, on the banks of the White and the Black Luetchine, respectively, two mountain streams from which the water power is derived. One good feature of this arrangement is that the finer the weather, the greater the quantity of melted snow, and the greater, also, the capacity of the line to take care of an increase of traffic.

Until the tunnel is reached, the current is transmitted over wires on poles in the usual manner. But in the tunnel, the wires are suspended from its roof. Every precaution has been taken to render travel over the line absolutely safe. In the tunnel, there is a heavy center rail—a Riggenbach rack and pinion affair—in addition to the usual rails. The line is a single one in the tunnel and a double one at the stations, where the locomotives pass one another.

Ultimately, the terminus of the railway will be located on a plateau just below the summit, where a permanent meteorological observatory will be established. From here, tourists will be taken to the summit by means of an elevator, a distance of about two hundred and fifty feet. And, standing upon the top of one of the highest mountains in the world—thirteen thousand six hundred and seventy-one feet above sea level—they will enjoy a superb view taking in the Aletschorn, Finsteraarhorn, Weisshorn, Dent Blanche, Monte Rosa, and Mont Cervin.

When the line is completed, the tourist will no longer be obliged to make a dangerous ascent, over glaciers abounding in perilous crevasses and up sheer precipices, at an expense of three hundred and sixty francs for himself and two guides. Instead of being under way for a hundred hours, he will make the journey in two, at the comparatively small expense of nine dollars for the round trip.

Although the projectors of the road have already expended over eight million francs in the undertaking, they expect to be able to realize annual dividends of 5 per cent. when it is entirely completed.

GENERAL KUROPATKIN, HEAD OF THE RUSSIAN ARMY.

BY CHARLES JOHNSTON.

THE events around Liao-Yang have at last shown General Kuropatkin and the Russian army under his command in a truer light, making clear, at the same time, the immense difficulties Kuropatkin has had to face and the splendid efforts he has made to overcome them. It is by no means easy for the general reader to gain an intelligent understanding of complicated strategical movements from the fragmentary telegrams and imperfect maps within his reach; but there has been something so dramatic and so titanically simple in the great Liao-Yang battle that even the most careless reader has begun to understand what has actually taken place, and the magnitude and significance of the problems involved. Even the man in the street now sees how wonderful was General Kuropatkin's achievement, though he was technically vanquished in the great fight. The tremendous forces of intellect and will which he brought to bear are fully realized, and we are all better able to take the measure of the man.



GENERAL ALEXEI NICOLAIEVITCH KUROPATKIN.
(Commander-in-chief of the Russian army in the far East.)

Yet this great achievement is only the logical outcome of the man's whole career; at every point, he has shown the same qualities of insight and determination, the same high personal courage. No officer living has more hard-earned distinctions for valor. Few officers have an equally high record for military science and erudition.



GENERAL KUROPATKIN'S HEADQUARTERS AT LIAO-YANG.
(Showing pagoda outside West Gate.)

KUROPATKIN BORN A SOLDIER.

General Kuropatkin is a born soldier. His father was an officer, who retired from active service when Kuropatkin was of school age and settled down on his landed estate at Pskov, near St. Petersburg. Kuropatkin went to the military school of the cadet corps, and then to the Pavlovskoe military college, graduating and gaining his commission as sub-lieutenant when he was eighteen. At this time, one great chapter of Asian history had just been closed, and another had been opened. Count Muravieff had added to the Russian Empire the immense territory along the Amur of which Vladivostok is the capital, and General Chernaieff had completed the first two years of the Turkestan war. Thus, Kuropatkin grew up in an atmosphere of Russian expansion in the East, and as soon as he had his commission, hastened to the scene of conflict in Central Asia. He reached the front in 1866, being then eighteen years old, and for two years took part in the most severe fighting against the warlike descendants of Tamerlane's hordes, in battles in which the Russians were for the most part outnumbered ten to one. In 1868, the conquest of Bokhara was complete, and Kuropatkin returned to St. Petersburg, with the rank of lieutenant, several wounds, and two decorations "for distinguished valor." The campaign had added the cities and territories of Chemkent, Tashkent, Khodjent, and Samarkand to the Russian Empire, with the status of semi-independent protected states.

Kuropatkin spent the six years from 1868 to to 1874 in hard study at the Academy of the General Staff, at St. Petersburg. This period included the Prussian advance on Strasburg and Metz, the disaster of Sedan, and the siege of Paris ; in a word, the revelation of von Moltke's military genius, and painfully elaborated preparations, all of which Kuropatkin followed with the most minute attention. At the end of his six years' studies, he distinguished himself remarkably in the examination hall, coming out at the head of his class, with unusually high marks all around. It is customary to give a special reward to the best student in each year. In the case of Kuropatkin, it took the form of a special traveling grant, to enable him to continue his military studies abroad.

HIS SYMPATHIES WITH FRANCE.

The sympathies which afterward ripened into the Franco-Russian alliance were doubtless already at work, for Kuropatkin, instead of going to victorious Berlin to study von Moltke's theories and methods at the fountain-head, stayed only a short time at the Prussian capital, and then went on to France. Here he came into close relations with two very remarkable men,—Marshal MacMahon, then president of the French Republic, and the Marquis de Galliffet, who only three years ago resigned from Waldeck-Rousseau's "Ministry of all the Talents," to give place to General André. The marquis, though born to royalist traditions, had warmly espoused the cause of the republic ; he had fought valiantly against the Prussians, and had gained lasting fame by his vigorous military measures against the Commune, which saved France from anarchy. Kuropatkin was associated with him first in drawing up plans for a reconstruction of the French cavalry arm from the *débris* of the Franco-Prussian War, and, secondly, in planning a part of the great maneuvers held in the neighborhood of Metz. Though he was only twenty-six at this time, Kuropatkin's assistance was deemed so efficient that the French Government rewarded him with the cross of the Legion of Honor.

France was then consolidating her power in Algeria, where her total territories are somewhat larger than California, and where problems had to be faced very like those which Russia was then facing in Turkestan. Kuropatkin obtained permission to join General Laverdeau's expedition, and spent about a year going through the length and breadth of France's chief African colony. He wrote a book on Algeria, in French, and later in Russian, which gained him a second degree of the Legion of Honor and the gold medal of the Imperial Geographical Society of St. Petersburg.

HIS APPRENTICESHIP WITH SKOBELEFF.

Returning to Russia, Kuropatkin was once more sent to Central Asia, where he joined the staff of the immortal Skobeleff, with whom he fought two famous campaigns in later years.

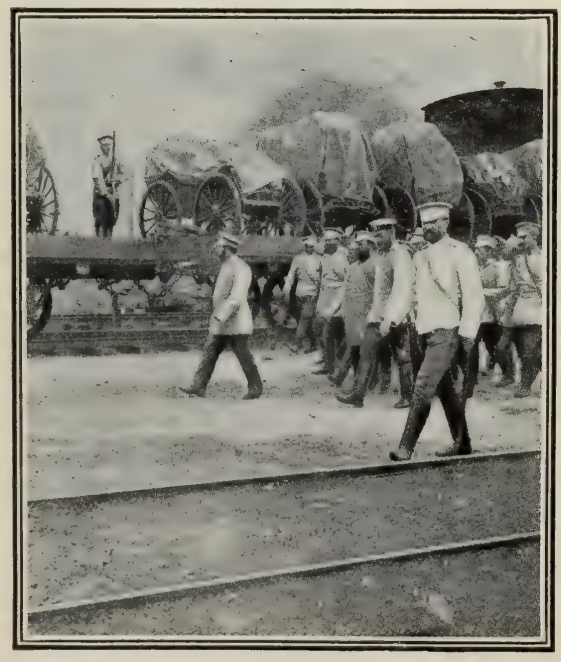
While Kuropatkin was studying at St. Petersburg and traveling in France, another of the Central Asian khanates had been conquered,—Khiva had gone the way of Bokhara, and a territory as large as Texas, made up from the two khanates, was gradually becoming Russianized under General Kauffmann. A third khanate remained, that of Khokand, stretching to the north of the Pamir plateau, and touching the Chinese Empire on the east, at Jungaria. Kuropatkin was joined with Skobeleff in the conquest of this khanate, and then went on a special mission, occupying a year, into the wilds of Tartary and western China, the regions from which had emerged Genghis Khan, and his two grandsons, Kublai and Batu Khan, one of whom conquered China, while the other invaded and subdued Russia. In this wild and desolate region Kuropatkin did some fighting,—being once more wounded,—and more exploring, the result of which, in another book, entitled "Kashgaria," won him another gold medal from the Imperial Geographical Society on the bank of the Neva River. Kuropatkin had now reached his twenty-ninth year, and had three years of fighting, two years of exploration in eastern Asia and Africa, and six years of study to his credit. He had written two books, won a number of Russian decorations "for valor," as well as two degrees of the Legion of Honor, and had received many wounds, from sword and bullet alike.

THE RUSSO-TURKISH WAR OF 1877–78.

If we imagine the Armenian massacres and the recent Macedonian atrocities multiplied tenfold, we have the conditions in the Balkans which led Russia to declare war against Turkey in April, 1877. The armies of the Czar, having no fleet to guard transports which might take them to the Sultan's door, were forced to go thither on foot, passing through the dominions of the Prince of Roumania, who had signed an alliance with Russia. It took the Russian forces nearly two months of hard marching to reach the Danube, where the war practically began. They had three obstacles before them on their march to Constantinople,—first, the wide and deep Danube; second, the plain of Servia, with its Turkish garrisons; third, the snowy ridges of the Balkans. Skobeleff set the example of reckless daring by riding on his white horse into the Danube and swimming across. But the entire Russian army could hardly follow suit. The Danube was patrolled by Turkish gunboats, ironclads, and monitors, commanded by a renegade Englishman, Hobart Pasha, who had many English and American officers in his fleet. Two men gained lasting renown by their torpedo attacks on the Turkish ironclads—Skrydloff and Makaroff—both of whom have since sent their names ringing round the world.

The next difficulty was the Servian plain. Osman Pasha had seized a naturally strong position at Plevna, with sixty thousand veteran troops, armed with American Peabody-Martini rifles, and well supplied with ammunition. He threatened the Russian line of communications, and it was impossible to go on until Osman was put out of the way. This is the situation which gave rise to the three assaults on Plevna, of which General Kuropatkin has written admirably, though very technically, in his book on Skobeleff's Division. Kuropatkin was then chief of staff to Skobeleff, and he took part in one remarkable exploit which does not receive justice in his own book. It was during the third assault on Plevna, when Skobeleff was attacking a group of redoubts on the extreme right of the Turkish position, along the famous line of the Green Hills. Gen. Francis Vinton Greene, who was present at the battle, thus records the part played by Kuropatkin in one striking episode:

> The Russians had lost three thousand men in the assault, which lasted little less than an hour. But the fight did not in the least abate. The middle redoubt, which the Russians had taken, as well as the eastern one, which was still in the hands of the Turks, were, properly speaking, not redoubts at all, since they were only built up on three sides; the front side of each was sim-



GENERAL KUROPATKIN INSPECTING A BAGGAGE TRAIN AT TA-CHE-KIAO, BEFORE HIS RETREAT TO LIAO-YANG.

ply an increased height to the strong line of trench connecting the two and extending to the west (left) of the middle one; the other two sides were properly mere traverses to this line; and the fourth side, the rear, was wholly open and exposed to the fire from the trench of the camp only six hundred yards off. The ground was hard and rocky, and there were no spades at hand for digging. While the Turks, therefore, kept up an incessant fire from this camp, and from the eastern redoubt, which was still in their possession, a force of one or two battalions sortied from the redoubt on the left of the Russians and advanced to the attack of the left flank. Seeing this, Colonel Kuropatkin, chief of staff to Skobeleff, and the only one of his staff not killed or wounded, took about three hundred men and went forward to meet these Turks in the open. A desperate fight at short range took place, in which the Russians lost the greater part of this little force but drove the Turks back to their redoubt.

Kuropatkin spent the next month in hospital at Bucharest, but he was back with Skobeleff again at the fierce fight of Sheinovo, which General Greene well calls "one of the most splendid assaults ever made." Kuropatkin was again wounded, and emerged from the campaign with three more decorations "for valor," and with two more volumes to his credit.

FROM GENERAL STAFF TO WAR MINISTRY.

With one interval, Kuropatkin spent the next twelve years at St. Petersburg, as professor of military statistics at the Academy of the General Staff. It was, perhaps, at this time that he drew up a plan for an invasion of India, as an academic exercise; but the truth seems to be that Kuropatkin was profoundly convinced that a successful invasion of India by Russia under existent conditions was quite impossible.

He was presently to see some hard fighting not far from the frontier of India, however. The Turcomans, inhabiting a tract as large as the Austrian Empire, beyond the Caspian Sea, had been guilty of endless acts of brigandage and pillage, and a series of abortive Russian campaigns had brought the whole region into a condition of anarchy. To Skobeleff and Kuropatkin the task of restoring order was intrusted, and they did their work drastically and well. Kuropatkin once more distinguished himself by blowing up the gate of the chief Turcoman fortress, while under heavy fire, and emerged from the campaign with the rank of major-general and the cross of St. George, for valor. An admirable account of this Turcoman campaign has been written by the brother of the late Vassili Verestchagin, the painter, who went down with Makaroff in the *Petropavlovsk*. This younger Verestchagin was also on Skobeleff's staff at Plevna, and he tells, with feeling, how Skobeleff laughed at him because he "squealed" when he was wounded.



GENERAL KUROPATKIN AT LIAO-YANG.

In 1890, Kuropatkin, who had gone back to his professorship of military statistics, was appointed governor of the great Trans-Caspian region, some two hundred thousand miles in extent, and was also promoted to the rank of lieutenant-general. In Trans-Caspia, General Kuropatkin pursued the policy which has brought fame to Lord Cromer, in an area just double that of Trans-Caspia, in Egypt. Both seized the idea that a main duty of the government is to husband and increase the material resources of the country governed, developing it as a wise business man develops a productive enterprise, and looking for results of the same kind. Lord Cromer is seven years older than Kuropatkin, and began his work seven years earlier; the territory he administered was about twice as large, but otherwise there is a close parallelism between the methods of the two men and the results they attained. From Trans-Caspia, General Kuropatkin went to the war office, at St. Petersburg, first as acting,

then as actual, minister of war, and this post he held until his departure for the far East, last spring.

IN JAPAN AND MANCHURIA.

While minister of war, General Kuropatkin made a prolonged visit to the far East, going first to Japan and afterward to Port Arthur and Manchuria. He was preceded by Minister de Witte, who has written at length and admirably of Manchuria, but it is not certain that the memoirs of Kuropatkin have seen the light. He was in Japan in the spring of 1903, and was *fêted* and dined by the court, the ministers, and the generals. He visited the Japanese garrisons, saw the recruits at drill, and, we may well believe, gained some insight into the methods and efficiency of the Tokio general staff.

It is difficult to speak with certainty on a subject about which General Kuropatkin was naturally very reticent; but many indications point to the fact that he was from the outset strongly against the present war. He was at no time on cordial terms with Admiral Alexieff, and when Kuropatkin visited Port Arthur the relations between him and the viceroy were strained and formal. Alexieff held the extreme naval view, that the Korean Peninsula, as it cut the Russian Siberian fleet in two, must inevitably become Russian territory, in order to give the Russian fleet a free passage through the Korean Strait. Alexieff made no secret of his views, and we cannot doubt that this extreme naval ambition aroused the antagonism of Japan. The Japanese had, however, decided that war with Russia must come, as early as 1896, when Russia drove them out of Manchuria; and as early as the spring of 1900, Japanese statesmen had made quite specific prophecies as to the conduct of the war, which have since been remarkably verified. It was, from the first, a question of incompatible ambitions, only to be decided by armed force.



From the *Illustrated London News.*

A RECENT SKETCH OF GENERAL KUROPATKIN AT THE FRONT.

General Kuropatkin's task has been immensely more difficult than his critics at first understood. The troops in the field were largely Siberian regiments, containing many Asiatics, and more invalids, who were victims of various Asian maladies. The first reënforcements were green troops, who, like General Orloff's division at Yentai, could not be trusted to stand fire. From these yielding materials, and with a very inferior commissariat, Kuropatkin had to form an army to meet Japan's war veterans, splendidly led, and with better rifles and greatly superior artillery. Kuropatkin's task was to hold them back indefinitely until he could get his army hammered into shape, adding such reënforcements as could gradually be brought in from Russia over the thousands of miles of the Siberian Railroad. But we may gain some idea of his achievement as Liao-Yang if we remember that in one hour, during the assault at Plevna already described, the Russians lost three thousand men, the greater part of whom were killed outright. At Plevna, the Turks had sixty thousand men. At Liao-Yang, the Japanese had probably three times as many, and the fighting was distributed over an immensely longer front. That Kuropatkin's losses should have been so slight is in itself the best praise that this great general could receive. Seven days' hard fighting advanced the Japanese army only some twenty miles on their road to Harbin, though they excelled the Russians in numbers, equipment, rifles, and artillery. The same Fabian policy is likely to be continued.

It is assumed that the Japanese will soon go into winter quarters and postpone further fighting until spring, but it must be remembered that they fought all through the winter of 1894–95 in their campaign against the Chinese. It is far more likely that they will push the campaign as vigorously through the winter as they did in spring and summer.

GENERAL NOGI, THE JAPANESE HERO OF PORT ARTHUR.

BY SHIBA SHIRO.

IT was a day in May. His Majesty the Emperor of Japan, they say, had just expressed his imperial pleasure of honoring General Nogi with the highest honor that could be bestowed upon a fighting man of Nippon,—command of the forces besieging Port Arthur. Cherries were abloom and Tokio was gay. On that same day came the news of the battle of Nanshan, telling of the sad and savage things that had come to pass at the neck of the Liao-Tung Peninsula. To General Nogi came the report that his eldest son, Lieut. Nogi Shoten, had fulfilled the high ambitions of the soldier of Nippon in dying and leaving his heroic memory engraved on the slope of Nanshan Hill. The general received the message, and said, simply: "I am glad he died so splendidly. It was the greatest honor he could have. As for the funeral rites over his memory, they might as well be postponed for a while. A little later on, they may be performed in conjunction with those to the memory of my second son, Hoten, and of myself."



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GENERAL NOGI, THE JAPANESE COMMANDER BESIEGING PORT ARTHUR.

To be the commander of Nippon's forces at Port Arthur is the greatest honor to which the dreams of a soldier of the Emperor can aspire. The fortress is full of sentimental interest to all the Nippon race.

Port Arthur stands at the extremity of the Liao-Tung Peninsula; like the point of a dagger, it thrusts itself out to sea and divides the Yellow Sea from the Gulf of Pe-chi-li. Across the mouth of this gulf to the south and facing it is the harbor of Wei-Hai-Wei. Not so rugged as Gibraltar, to which it has been likened over and over again, the hills which hem in the harbor of Port Arthur are quite as commanding as the fortress on the Mediterranean. The strategic possibilities of Port Arthur are quite enough to make a military tactician dream like a poet; long ago, even the Chinese saw it, and, with the assistance of German military engineers, they fortified the place heavily. The fortress commands the waterway to Tientsin, Taku, and, naturally, to Peking. The master of Port Arthur,



BIRD'S-EYE VIEW OF PORT ARTHUR AND ITS FORTIFICATIONS, AS SEEN FROM THE NORTH.

provided always his strength be equal to his geographical opportunities, can throttle the neck, so to speak, of which Peking is the head and brain.

Of all the fighting men of Nippon, General Nogi, who is carrying the standard of Nippon against Port Arthur, enjoys the reputation of being a model soldier according to the most rigorous and ancient standard. He is brave. He is sometimes savage when occasion demands. Above all, he is simple to the point of ruggedness, and loyal and almost heartless in matters of discipline. Once upon a time, he said :

A soldier is a soldier, after all, and after a man becomes a soldier he must be perfectly willing to lead a life that is somewhat different from the life of an ordinary man in society. It is impossible for him to enjoy liberty and wealth such as so many of his fellow-men seem to enjoy. The soldier must understand this from the start. If only the soldier were to take to heart with sufficient seriousness the imperial proclamation issued on the 10th of Meiji and act it out in his daily life, there would be no trouble in making a good fighter. To him who does not forget the august sentiment of the imperial dictum, the performance of a soldier's duties is not difficult. Nowadays, the Nippon soldier, so far as I can see, seems to observe with commendable seriousness and promptitude the duties that are expected to be performed on the part of the subject toward the sovereign master; but I am not quite so sure that the soldier of modern times puts sufficient emphasis on his family duties and rectitude in his dealings with his fellow-men. I refer to this point more especially because of the very simple fact,—namely, that the soldier who would perform his duties with credit on a battlefield must, of necessity, have trained himself to perform all that is expected of him in the days of peace. There ought not to be any neglect or any defects in his daily life. The conqueror of himself in the time of peace must be a man if he would aspire to the honor, with any right, of being a fighting man under the Sun-flag. The brilliant and faithful performances of a soldier on the battlefield are nothing but the flowerings and fruition of the work and training of his daily life in the time of peace. A man whose life is in disorder in the time of peace would have a rather difficult task if he ventured to perform with correctness and with success the duties of a true soldier on the battlefield.

I have quoted this saying of General Nogi at length because I wish you to see that the Nippon soldier of to-day is built on these lines. The work that he is doing in the Manchurian campaign, after all, then, is not a thing of surprise.

If a man's face is more or less an open book in which his friends and foes alike read the secret of his character, no volume is quite so full of significance as the features of General Nogi. Rather slender, he is very dark of complexion,

with whiskers that seem to be utterly innocent of the arts of the barber or of the gracious office of the comb. The rugged strength and simplicity which are the striking qualities of the general's character throw about him a calm dignity.

Of the many services that General Nogi has rendered to his country, his work as governor-general of Formosa is most significant. The mountain tribes in Formosa had never been tamed by the Chinese. In the earlier years of Meiji, we had a difficulty with the natives of the island. They are fierce, and they are perfectly innocent of the principles of modern society. The position of a governor-general, therefore, after the occupation of the island by Nippon, taxed not only the fighting quality of a general,—he had to face, every hour of the day and night, the irregular and annoying savage tribes who carry on a perpetual guerrilla warfare. On the 6th of June, 1904, on the same day on which Togo, Nishi, Yamamoto, and others were promoted to high commands, Nogi was given the full rank of general.

The wife of General Nogi is the daughter of a Kagoshima Samurai, Yuji Sadamoto, a member of the House of Peers. So genial is her attitude, so thoroughly kindly her heart, that her friends have said of her that whenever you are in her company you dream of being upon the springtime seas. Withal, there is the dignity of the older-day type about her person that impresses you at once and makes you think of the loftiness of an autumn peak. At the beginning of the war, General Nogi had two sons, the elder Shoten and the younger Hoten. Shoten, the elder, was twenty-six years of age at the beginning of this year. He finished his course at the Military Academy in December of 1902. In June of last year he joined the first division, with the rank of second lieutenant. It was on a certain day in March, 1904. General Nogi was in his study, when his elder son presented himself and said: "I have the honor, father, to bid you good-bye. I am about to leave the city for Manchuria. Now that I am starting out on this expedition, I have not the slightest idea of coming back to you alive. I shall always pray for the health of our august mother. If I lose my life on the battlefield, I beg you, august father, to honor me with a word or two of commendation. Of course, you must also be on your way to the battlefield. Would you permit me to suggest that, although our battlefields may be far distant and different, we two should run a race for the distinction of arms in the cause of our country?" The son smiled; so did the father. Just at that point the younger son, Hoten, entered the room, and he heard the last suggestion of his his elder brother to his father. Bowing before them, Hoten said: "Brother, would you not allow me also to enter upon the race that you have just proposed? We shall see who will distinguish himself first, at any rate." General Nogi laughed outright, and said: "All right, boys; this race between the three is certainly interesting."

It has been said that General Nogi is a peculiar man. This is not meant for a compliment to him. On the contrary, it is meant to express the general opinion that General Nogi is void of the usual attainments and accomplishments of polite society of to-day. No compliment, however, could be more eloquent than this. As a product of the latter end of the nineteenth century, he is surprisingly devoid of the clever accomplishments of these overeducated days of ours. The simplicity of his character impresses one as if he had never known anything but the art of war. He does not seem to have, in the slightest degree, the cleverness of the modern man who utilizes every turn of events for his own selfish interest. He always emphasizes the importance of simplicity—the importance of abiding with the simple principles of ethics.



PANORAMIC VIEW OF PORT ARTHUR.

RUSSIAN POVERTY AND BUSINESS DISTRESS AS INTENSIFIED BY THE WAR.

BY E. J. DILLON.

[The following article was written at St. Petersburg in August. Dr. Dillon's familiarity with Russian conditions,—acquired by long residence in the empire,—was strikingly shown in his contribution to the April number of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS, entitled, "Has Russia Any Strong Man?"]

WHEN the present war broke out, Russia was slowly recovering from the effects of a serious industrial and agricultural crisis and entering upon a social and political struggle against government without responsibility and taxation without control. The ex-finance minister, M. Witte, had striven hard, and not unsuccessfully, to create a national industry, which should be exploited by and for the state, and parallel with this new departure the treasury was not only taxing heavily the country districts for imperial purposes, but was diverting the sources whence the provincial boards had theretofore drawn their funds into the general reservoir in St. Petersburg.

One of the salient results of this policy was the accumulated wealth of the government as contrasted with the chronic poverty of the people; another was the lavish expenditure on strategic railways and impregnable fortresses in the farthest extremities of the empire, as compared with the cessation of productive and needful outlay in Russia. The state was boasting of its wealth and extending its credit, while the peasants, who had mainly contributed to create that wealth, were almost penniless and generally underfed. The railways and the principal industries were conducted or controlled by the government, which thus became the chief employer of labor, while the workingmen were often not only not earning a "living wage," but were eking out an existence compared with which the happy-go-lucky lives of the serfs were luxurious. This abnormal state of things caused an outburst of opposition, the strength and extent of which surprised the ruling classes, and the late minister of the interior, M. von Plehve, was girding his loins for a struggle to the death with the malcontents, when war was declared and internal quarrels were largely absorbed by the duel with the foreign foe.

THE PARALYSIS OF COMMERCE.

But war has not merely brought about a truce between the two parties in the state; it has also intensified the evils which gave rise to the struggle; and by the time it has come to an end, the combustible materials, to which the match is sure to be applied, will have increased tenfold. To take its most obvious, if less serious, aspect first. The government deemed it desirable to reduce expenditure on public works by $68,119,615, and to devote these savings to the war fund. But as the state is the most important employer of labor, the chief purchaser of pig iron, rails, coal, etc., many works were closed in consequence, others were reduced to short hours, and tens of thousands of hands were thrown out of employment and turned adrift to make a living by begging or stealing. Thus, a blow was struck at all trade and commercial industry in the country. And simultaneously with this withdrawal of capital, another factor almost equally disastrous made its appearance: the railways which connect the Asiatic with the European half of Russia were transformed into purely strategic lines, along which soldiers, munitions of war, surgical appliances, food and forage, sisters of mercy, and ambulance corps were conveyed, ousting almost all private merchandise and paralyzing the enterprise of private firms. Western Russia being thus cut off from the eastern provinces, large stocks were left on the hands of middlemen or producers, who were unpaid for past sales, deprived of further orders, and confronted with bankruptcy.

MULTITUDES STARVING IN RUSSIAN POLAND.

One instance will show how this severance of communication between the two halves of the empire has been felt. Siberia usually purchases its industrial needs in the flourishing districts of Lodz, Warsaw, and Petrokoff, in Russian Poland, on the system of long-term credit. The outbreak of the war was followed by the suspension of payments for goods already received and the withdrawal of further orders. Small factories were simply wiped out in consequence. The larger industrial establishments shortened their hours of work by 20, 40, and 50 per cent., and dismissed a number of hands. The prices of food rose considerably,—meat from 5 to 9

per cent., and other kinds of provisions much more. Misery became more widespread, crimes increased perceptibly, and the pawnbrokers alone are doing a brisk trade. In Warsaw, soup kitchens are being opened by the Jewish community for needy members of their faith.

The industrial railway line of Lodz has cut down the number of trains running daily, which now carry only 50 per cent. of their usual freights, and in that district alone forty thousand men are without work. Haggard, emaciated, with unsteady steps, these first indirect victims of the war shamble through the thoroughfares, hungry and hopeless. Some drop down exhausted in the streets and are taken to the hospital, where their ailment is declared to be exhaustion by hunger. Others break into private houses in the light of day, sure of getting a mouthful of bread whether they succeed in robbing their neighbors or are arrested and sent to prison. Nearer to the center the distress is almost equally severe. In the town of Bielovodsk, about 1,800 able-bodied men were recently without any means of subsistence, and their late employers, who clubbed together to relieve their misery, subscribe about $1,030 a week, which is wholly inadequate, and the number of the destitute is increasing. In Vitebsk, 3,600 artisans were breadless and the number in Riga, Libau, and other towns on the Baltic coast is proportionately large.

ALL CLASSES OF RUSSIANS AFFECTED BY THE WAR.

In Russia proper, the symptoms of the crisis are many and alarming. Even in the two capitals, St. Petersburg and Moscow, scarcity of money, stagnation of trade, bankruptcy, and a large increase of the contingent of able-bodied paupers, beggars, and thieves mark some of the most obvious consequences of the war, and as yet, unhappily, the high-water mark of destitution has not by any means been reached. From the Volga districts, formal petitions have been sent to the government for immediate relief. In Pavlov, a center of the steel industry, the principal works have cut down their output by two-thirds, while others have besought the state to cancel their arrears of debt. And from almost every part of the empire, from every class of the population, come dismal reports of the havoc made by the war. True, Russia comprises one-sixth of the terrestrial planet, and therefore admits of no generalizations, so that the harrowing condition of one village or hamlet cannot be predicated of every other. There are doubtless large districts, some firms, industries, and trades which actually profit by the war. But it remains none the less true that distress is widespread and intense. For to say nothing of the bulk of the population, among whom want is chronic, the wealthy people, now largely subscribing to the war fund, are forced to cut down their ordinary expenses, the struggling tradesmen and officials are hard set to keep their heads above water, and a growing percentage of the working classes have been thrust out of the ranks of self-supporting men.

THE UNENDURABLE BURDENS OF THE PEASANTRY.

And the peasantry, on whose Atlantean shoulders the weight of the empire ultimately rests, are, if possible, worse off still. For their hardships are older than the war, and were universally admitted to be unbearable before the first shot was fired. In another year, say the experts who know them best, they will be face to face with absolute ruin. The additional load which they must then carry will break their backs. On the one hand, the strongest and best of the villagers have been drafted off to the far East as food for Japanese cannon,—not always without strong manifestations of reluctance on their part or severe measures of coercion on the part of their superiors. And, on the other hand, the wounded and the crippled are gradually coming home to swell the ranks of the necessitous, for whom the community is obliged by law to provide. It is not generally known that the state, in addition to other forms of taxation, compels the peasantry, through their boards, or *volosts*, to maintain barracks for the troops, to bear the expenses of military conscription, to maintain convict prisons, to furnish escorts for convicts, to support soldiers disabled in active service, and to provide for their widows and children. Private families are virtually obliged to receive a certain number of wounded soldiers and tend them during their convalescence; the hospitals of the county districts must provide a number of beds for them while they are under medical treatment, and over and above these unexpected claims on their slender resources, they have had to contribute "voluntarily" to the Red Cross Society, the war fund, or the increase of the navy.

But the severest strain will be caused by paragraph 38 of the military code, which lays it down that the indigent families of private soldiers in active service must be provided for by the *zemstvos*, or communities, to which they belonged. Lodging and a small pension sufficient to keep body and soul together must be found for them, and paltry though this contribution is, it will tell terribly on a population whose members cannot afford to buy meat, milk, or even cabbage for their principal daily repast. The

incidence of this taxation will be all the more seriously felt that no provision has been made in the past for executing it. Indeed, it is doubtful whether any could have been made, seeing that the sources of local revenue have nearly all been tapped by the imperial treasury, and the provincial boards cannot create new ones. So heavily burdened are the tillers of the soil already that their arrears of debt to their own *zemstvos* went on increasing year after year until, last May, the government resolved to take them over and to pay them to the *zemstvos* within the next five years. This measure, for which the finance minister deserves full credit, will burden the treasury with about $1,287,000 yearly.

A THREATENED SHORTAGE OF GRAIN.

Further legislation on analogous lines is sorely needed at present, inasmuch as in certain districts of Russia the harvest threatens to disappoint the hopes of the husbandmen. Thus, according to the official forecast recently published, the winter crop of rye will be positively bad throughout the usually fertile districts of Bessarabia, and unsatisfactory in those of Poltava. The oats, too, have failed in Bessarabia, while the yield in Chernigov, Vitebsk, and Warsaw will be much below the average. Barley will produce nothing in Bessarabia; and judging by the reports received by the ministry, very little in the vast districts of Kherson, Vitebsk, Lomza, and Petrokoff. The winter crop of wheat is practically *nil* in Bessarabia and Elizabetñgrad, and unsatisfactory in Poltava and portions of Kharkov, Chernigov, and Vitebsk, while spring wheat promises no return in Bessarabia and not much in Kherson. It would, of course, be wrong to confound even that large stretch of territory with the empire of Russia, where the harvest, if not abundant, bids fair to prove, at least, satisfactory. Nor should it be forgotten that partial famines are invariably allowed for in the budget estimates of every Russian finance minister. Still, it is an axiom that every little tells when the distress is general, and it is hardly too much to affirm that it was never more widespread in Russia than it is at the present time.

A CONDITION OF IMPOVERISHMENT.

For it is now admitted by almost all whose opinion carries weight in that empire that for the past fifteen years taxation, which has far more than doubled, has increased hand in hand, not with national prosperity, but with national impoverishment. That statement involves a most serious charge against the government, and it would be unpardonable in a foreigner to accept and propagate it, were it not put forward calmly, deliberately, and repeatedly by ministerial commissions and fully borne out by private investigations and official statistics. To quote one of these investigators:

> For people who do not reside in the country, and are unable to ascertain the facts for themselves, a sharply outlined picture of the general destitution is drawn by the official data of the regular growth of arrears, of the progressive increase of homesteads lacking horses and cows, of the sums spent by the government and by private individuals for the relief of the hunger-stricken, of the expeditions of the Red Cross Society to cope with scurvy and hunger-typhus, and, lastly, by the symptoms of degeneration which lowered the standard of chest and size measurement in determining the fitness of recruits for military service.*

The principal government official in the Menselinsk district reported to his superiors that the universal pauperism of the country is made manifest to all by the whole course of the peasant's life. "If we look at what the peasant eats, we are struck by the absence of meat, of milk, and of eggs. He supports himself solely on black bread and brick tea, and has not always even these articles of food. This nourishment is particularly harmful to the children. Yet millions of poods† of corn and millions of eggs are exported abroad. . . . It is not to be supposed that the peasantry are unaware of the nutritious qualities and the taste of meat, milk, eggs, and other articles of food. The truth is, that these comestibles are beyond their reach."‡ Menselinsk, it is true, is but one district, and the Russian Empire is one-sixth of the globe; but I have before me reports from twenty-nine states, or "governments," which agree in essentials with this description.

FROM ONE-SIXTH TO ONE-THIRD OF THE PEASANT'S INCOME TAKEN BY THE STATE.

Taxation under such conditions seems to border upon severity, and that the state should spend milliards of dollars upon political and strategic railways and hoard hundreds of millions, which are not needed either for the ordinary or the extraordinary expenditure, while the population which furnished these sums is living on black bread and brick tea, is an instance of amazing shortsightedness with which one can hardly credit the Russian Government. Yet the facts are established. It has often been affirmed abroad that taxation per head of

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* Memoir of N. N. Kovaleffsky, member of the government committee of Kharkov.

† A pood is about thirty-six English pounds.

‡ *St. Petersburgskaya Viedomosti*, November 12, 1902.—The name of the official is Krassoffsky, and his report was published in the journal mentioned above.

the population is much lighter in Russia than in most other countries, and the conclusion has been drawn that the subjects of the Czar are better off than those of his brother monarchs. But the comparison is misleading. The terms that should be compared are not the amount per head paid by the German or the Frenchman on the one side and the Russian on the other, but the total sum paid in taxes on the one hand and the yearly income of the taxpayer on the other. What percentage of his yearly income is taken by the state? Exhaustive data for forming an opinion on this matter have been very carefully collected by nineteen members of one of the most prosperous districts of the empire, the government of Moscow, such small items as half a cent for matches being included in their account, which errs somewhat on the side of moderation.

The average homestead, then, consisting of three male members and several women and children, has $201 yearly income and $199 annual expenditure. Over one-fourth of the outlay is spent on articles which are heavily taxed by the state, and the amount thus contributed to the government is: on alcohol drunk, $10.82; on tea, $5.35; on sugar, $3.58; on calico prints, 95 cents; on petroleum, 77 cents; on tobacco, 15½ cents; and on matches, 10½ cents. The expenditures being underestimated, the amount that really goes in this indirect taxation is greater, but taking it as stated, it runs up to 12 per cent. of the entire yearly income of the peasant homestead. If we now add to that the direct taxes, which are $11.58, the entire sum paid by the peasant to the state is about $36.04 out of an income of $201. And of this only some 15 per cent. finds its way back again in the form of government outlay on local needs. In another district of the Moscow government (that of Klin), the mean budget of the homestead is $113.29, out of which $38.57, or 34 per cent., goes toward helping the state to accumulate its free balance of several hundred millions.* "Private landowners, on the whole," we read, "make a certain profit, but as for the peasants, the budgets of the great bulk of them are balanced by a shortage which is covered partly by work which they do in other districts and partly by chronic failure to pay their direct taxes."

Those are concrete examples which are valuable because typical. They are rather understated than exaggerated, for very many districts are worse off. In the government of Saratov, for instance, there is a large district—that of Balashev—the inhabitants of which deduct for taxes $31.14 per homestead out of an average income of $58.88, so that their imposts swallow more than half of the yearly earnings available for expenditure. As a matter of fact, the sum disposable for general expenditure is less than $29.79 per homestead, and less than $4.40 per head of the population. And it is out of this miserable pittance that the peasant has to pay for his clothing and boots, for the repairs of his hut and outhouses, for agricultural implements, and for live stock; he has, further, to pay off arrears of debts and interest on them; to lay something aside in case of fire, the loss of horses or horned cattle, and other accidents. And that represents only the average. In reality, the income and taxes are so unevenly distributed that the peasants are in even worse straits than those just described. At least 50 per cent. of the peasant population of the Balashev district have a great deal less than $4.12 per head free remainder, and the individual lives in a state of chronic hunger.* "The economic state of the peasantry," writes the Klin District Committee, "is so straitened that further taxation is impossible without facing the risk of utterly ruining agriculture."

WHAT THE WAR IS COSTING THE TAXPAYERS.

And yet the government can hardly manage without further taxes, unless the expenses on army, navy, and railway-building are curtailed, —a measure which involves a radical change in Russia's foreign policy, and therefore the course of her domestic policy as well. For the war is a terrible drain on the financial resources of the empire. The savings of a number of years are being lavished in the span of a few months, after the lapse of which a check has to be drawn upon future economy. It is roughly calculated that during the first five months the needs of the campaign have swallowed up $431,014,668. In order to realize what that sum means, one would do well to remember that it is nearly equal to all the receipts taken by the state from direct and indirect taxation. It is obvious, then, that one year of war must entail the expenditure of a sum equal to at least twice the revenue obtained by the treasury from all sources of taxation. But as the current expenses of the administration continue and have also to be met, it follows that during one year of war the government must spend three times more than it re

* Investigations of the Klin District Committee.

* Official journal of the district committee of the Balashev District. See also Annensky, "The General Tendencies of the Financial Policy of the Empire in Its Bearings on the Needs of the Rural Districts," page 5. This work has not yet been published. I am quoting from the proof-sheets.

ceives from the population during that time. Such a terrible strain as this must give a severe shock to the financial system even of a wealthy nation; to a people already taxed to the utmost, and reduced to live on food less in quantity and worse in quality than is commonly held to be required for the support of normal, healthy life, the results must, in truth, be alarming.

Still, it would be a mistake to forget that so long as the war is being paid for out of the resources, present or future, of the treasury, the losses to the population are not acutely and immediately felt. It takes a certain time for their effects to reach the taxpayers. But when one of the results of the campaign is to draw the industry of the country into the whirlpool, then the hardship is indeed intense. And that, as we have seen, is Russia's case. For then, over and above the outlay on the military operations —which is provided for by the national savings —one must reckon the falling off in the national income, which cannot, unhappily, be spread out over a number of years, but has to be borne at once. The treasury may issue a loan in order to pay off, in the course of ten or twenty years, the expenses incurred through the war. But the population, which loses a large percentage of its earnings in consequence of the stagnation of trade and industry, possesses no such means of staving off the day of reckoning. When, therefore, a campaign directly cripples industrial and commercial enterprise, the effects are much worse than those which the war itself brings in the form of unproductive outlay.

RUSSIA'S FOREIGN LOANS.

Even here, however, it is easy to fall into exaggeration and paint a very somber picture of the ruin that awaits commercial, industrial, and agricultural Russia at the close of the war. As a matter of fact, reaction invariably follows action, and many of the industries which are now hampered or wholly paralyzed will very soon recover their buoyancy once the campaign is at an end. This is especially true of the factories and mills of Lodz, Warsaw, and generally of Russian Poland, where a great revival of trade and industry may be reasonably expected as soon as communications with Siberia have been resumed. Again, it should not be forgotten that the bulk of the money which the war is now costing is being spent in the empire, not outside, and that one of the chief causes of stagnation in trade and commerce is the absence of credit. And, lastly, in spite of her military reverses and internal impecuniosity, Russia's credit abroad is still excellent, and the difficulty in the way of a new loan is less the paucity of would-be creditors than the too-favorable conditions on which the minister of finance insists on borrowing. But, for the moment, the finance minister is said to be contemplating the issue of treasury bonds to be employed as fiduciary currency, and he is generally believed to be disposed to employ the printing-press to the fullest extent permissible.

The one great danger in this connection is the likelihood of driving gold out of the country, and with it the present metallic standard. The stability of the latter depends upon the quantity of credit notes issued without being covered by gold, and still more by the state of the balance sheet. At present the notes in circulation are thus guaranteed to the extent of 120 per cent., although a considerable portion of this metallic stock belongs, not to the bank, but to the imperial treasury. But ever since 1892, the balance sheet has continued to be so unfavorable that in order to keep the gold standard unshaken a foreign loan has had to be floated every year, in spite of the fact that the budget showed a large excess of revenue over expenditure. Thus, in 1901 a loan of $81,877,344 was concluded, which realized $78,090,520; in 1902, another was issued in Germany of $71,526,812, which brought in $67,861,063; and in the following year a railway loan of $33,407,501 was floated at 96, which yielded $32,071,202. The total sum borrowed from abroad between the years 1900 and 1903, inclusive, was, therefore, about $178,000,000.

Now, during those three years the gold reserves increased by almost the same sum,—namely, $154,500,000,—while the favorable balance of trade in 1902–1903 proved insufficient to fill the shortage caused by the export of gold abroad to pay the service of former loans and the expenses of Russian tourists. It follows, then, that the "free balance," of which so much has been written of late, is made up mainly of the proceeds of foreign loans. And if borrowing was thus indispensable to the stability of the gold standard before the war, it can hardly be discontinued after peace, when the service of the foreign debt will have largely increased, and the solvency of the population will have considerably diminished.

HOW MUCH LONGER CAN THE PEASANT PAY TAXES?

But the greatest danger to Russian finances lies not so much in any of the transitory difficulties which the campaign against Japan has created as in the chronic poverty of the Russian people, who can no longer bear the burden of taxation. Forty years ago, when serfdom prevailed, the life of the average peasant was relatively tolerable. He dwelt in airy

rooms adequately furnished, and owned horses, cattle, sheep, and poultry. Wood for fuel could be had in abundance, and he possessed the needful materials to make his own clothing, boots, and bed coverings. To-day, he lives in the smoky room of a squalid hut, which he shares with any four-footed animals he may possess, and for all the expenses of bringing up his family, tilling his land, repairing his dwelling, and paying rates and taxes he disposes at most of eleven and one-half cents a day. On food for himself and his wife and children he can generally, but not always, spend three cents a day. The difficulty, I do not say, of increasing the taxes of such a man, but of maintaining them much longer at their present level, is too manifest to need pointing out. It is in this chronic impoverishment of the bulk of the people, therefore, and not in the acute crisis brought on by the war, that those who know Russia best discern the source of the coming troubles, economic and other, which they foresee but cannot prevent.

ARE THE JAPANESE ABLE TO FINANCE A LONG WAR?

BY BARON KENTARO KANEKO.

[We have grown so accustomed to hear it said that Russia's resources in men, money, and natural wealth are unlimited, and Japan's comparatively small, that Baron Kaneko's article on Japan's financial strength, which follows, is peculiarly significant, when read in connection with Dr. Dillon's description of business and economic depression in Russia. Both men, as we show in another part of this issue of the magazine, are preëminently well qualified to speak.]

WAR is one of the most tragic incidents of human life, as well as one of the most terrible scourges of human society. It destroys vast numbers of individuals who would otherwise contribute productively to the world's progress; it wastes incalculable amounts of property and treasure which the nations engaged in that progress can ill afford to spare. But the financial and economic loss inflicted is only part of the evil to be deplored. War strikes at the roots of human happiness; it gathers in its victims long after the dead are buried and the wounded have returned to their homes; it passes on to populations of peaceful non-combatants, if in diminished degree, the burden of sacrifice whose full weight must be borne by the armies in the field. By making so many widows and orphans—by depriving so many wives of their husbands, so many children of their parents—it throws the evil of war into the future years, and, in a society which has survived the acute phases of conflict, it reduces to an appalling degree the reasonable expectation of life and its enjoyment.

It is for these and like reasons that I hate war, and with all my heart look forward to a time when the world will be at peace. I am especially in favor of every rational effort that may be suggested or devised for avoiding international quarrels and averting international strife. But as yet the world is imperfectly organized. Divisions, political and geographical, continue to exist between race and race, nation and nation, country and country; and these must be taken account of. It is still possible, moreover, even in our time, for weak nations, unable to protect their independence, to be swallowed up through the agency of aggressive war. Some peoples, as history shows us, have shrunk so much from hostilities, in the presence of a powerful enemy, as to surrender to it their integrity as separate nationalities. They have submitted to wrong and injustice through being either unable or unwilling to defend themselves.

But it is not among such peoples, and by such acts of self-surrender, that the Japanese are to be classed. Japan did not hesitate to assume all the responsibilities of a costly, a terrible, and a devastating war; nor did she take up arms without fully realizing the difficulties, as well as the duties, which the situation imposed upon her. Herself not unused to conflict in the past, she was keenly aware of the tragedies,—of all the suffering and sorrow,—that would result from the operation of her forces in the field. Yet she did not shrink. The moral ends she had in view made it impossible for her to count the cost. It was not only her right—it was also her duty—to maintain peace, justice, and liberty within her own realm; it was her bounden obligation, in the presence of foreign aggression, to conserve by every means available her

own integrity and independence as a nation. And these very ends, world-regarding as well as self-regarding, will always constitute an abundant as well as a glorious justification for the action she took.

Bravely, then, Japan entered upon the war; and with the same bravery she will carry it through to a successful termination. In saying this I do not speak unadvisedly or without reference to the facts. To such an extent have the Japanese distinguished themselves in the present war that we have never yet known them to be on the defensive. Not only have they won victories from the beginning,—they have everywhere taken the offensive against the Russian troops. Not once have they retreated; on the contrary, their campaign has been a perpetual advance. When we remember where the Japanese forces are to-day, we cannot help recalling the fact that throughout the war Japan has never at any time been brought into contact with an antagonist who may fairly be called formidable and dangerous to her. Meanwhile, the tactics pursued by our armies have won for Japan the admiration of expert military opinion everywhere; among Western critics especially, the quality and efficacy of Japanese strategy have become axiomatic. And if our tactics are generally regarded as models of what the conduct of war should be, no less attention has been given to the brotherly way in which we treat the Russian wounded and prisoners who fall into our hands.

Instead, therefore, of being anxious or apprehensive, we are happy in the task we have undertaken. But one of our critics has argued that Japan ought to give the world the spectacle of a decisive victory over the Russians, holding that if the campaign shall continue for two or three years the present physical struggle between the two nations will become a merely financial competition, resulting, after the exhaustion of their resources, in the withdrawal of our armies from Manchuria and of our garrisons from Korea,—in a victory, that is to say, for the Russians. Now, I am thankful to have that argument advanced, for it comes from one who criticises the financial condition of Japan with all fairness and sincerity. And in making my reply to it, I will say first of all that as in the present war the Japanese have determined to fight to the last man, so have they determined to spend their last penny in carrying it to a successful conclusion—that, it being the intention of the Japanese Government to vigorously prosecute military operations against Russia utterly regardless of financial considerations, that government will trust to the patriotism of its people to supply the resources needed for the war, and that it has no apprehension whatever as to the financial necessities either of the soldiers and sailors now fighting in Manchuria or of their families at home.

Now as to the finances of the war. A budget dealing with this subject was submitted to the Diet of the Japanese Government, and in March of the present year the Diet granted the necessary supplies, as follows:

DETAILS OF RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURES IN CONNECTION WITH THE WAR.

Expenditures.		Receipts.				
		Public Loans, Exchequer Bonds, and Temporary Loans.	Funds Borrowed from the Special Accounts.	Funds Transferred from the General Account.		
				Receipts from Increased Taxation and Tobacco Monopoly.	Revenue Surplus.	Total.
A.—Expenditures for which the imperial sanction has already been obtained	$78,000,000	$65,500,000	$12,500,000	....	....	....
B.—Extraordinary war expenditure	190,000,000	140,000,000	15,000,000	$31,000,000	$4,000,000	$35,000,000
C.—Reserve fund for emergencies	20,000,000	....	....		20,000,000	20,000,000
Total	$288,000,000	$205,500,000	$27,500,000	$31,000,000	$24,000,000	$55,000,000

As war finances are of a different character from those dealt with by the ordinary budget, it may be well to describe them separately. I think it is better to copy here the financial statement of our government in connection with the war expenditures instead of giving my own explanation.

When the negotiations between Japan and Russia took such a turn as almost to cut off every hope of peace being maintained, it became imperatively necessary to make such prompt military preparations as would put Japan in a state of readiness for all eventualities, as well as, with equal expedition, to provide the requisite financial means. In accordance, therefore, with Article LXX. of the Japanese Constitution,

the imperial urgency ordinance was promulgated on December 28 of last year, as a special financial measure whereby authority was given for diverting the funds kept under special account, issuing exchequer bonds, and making temporary loans to meet expenditures incurred for military preparations. The total amount of expenditures which were sanctioned, in accordance with the above-mentioned imperial ordinance, was, up to the end of March last, about $78,000,000. It is proposed to raise this sum by issuing exchequer bonds for $50,000,000, diverting $12,500,000 of the funds kept under special account, and making temporary loans for the balance. The loan of $50,000,000 has already been floated with great success, the total amount subscribed by our patriotic people reaching four and one-half times the sum called for,—that is to say, $225,000,000. As, moreover, the bonds were allotted chiefly among the lower and middle classes, it is evident that, in the event of another loan being raised at home, ample money will be forthcoming to provide for it. But the aforesaid urgency measure was no more than an expedient devised to meet an emergency. Peace having been broken last February, the Diet was convened in March, and gave its consent to the urgency financial measure of December, 1903. It approved various measures relating to war finance; it passed the budget for extraordinary war expenditures, and for the expenses involved in diplomatic and other state affairs connected with the present war. These expenses are to be met by the imposition of extraordinary special taxes, the provision including increased rates of stamp duty, the replacing of the leaf-tobacco monopoly (which was previously in force) by the monopoly on tobacco manufacture, which the government has long had in contemplation; the appropriation of funds under special accounts; public loans, exchequer bonds, and temporary loans. In order, at the same time, to prevent serious economic changes arising from the inflation of the currency by expediting the return of moneys paid out for war purposes, and to encourage thrift among the people, regulations were made for the issue of saving-loan-bonds by the Hypothec Bank.

SOURCES OF JAPANESE REVENUE.

In the above-mentioned extraordinary war budget, both revenue and expenditure amount to $190,000,000. The sources of revenue are as follows:

1. Increased receipts expected from the imposition of extraordinary special taxes, and from the establishment of the tobacco-manufacture monopoly, $31,000,000.

2. The amount set apart out of the surplus of $24,000,000; obtained by further retrenchments of the budget to be actually carried out in the present fiscal year; also through some funds having become unnecessary for ordinary naval and military expenditure, an additional $4,000,000.

3. Loans from funds under special accounts, $15,000,000.

4. Funds to be obtained by means of public loans, exchequer bonds, and temporary loans, $140,000,000.

Besides this, there are the expenditures needed for diplomatic and other matters connected with national affairs, as they may be defrayed from time to time according to the requirements of the developing situation. The total reserve fund for the purpose has therefore been put at $20,000,000, to which it has been decided to set apart the balance of the surplus of $24,000,000 remaining after deducting the $4,000,000 which is to be appropriated for war expenditures.

In regard to war finance, let me say here that the aforesaid special war expenses are, for the purpose of adjustment, being put under the special account.

As the revenue belongs by its nature to the general account, the supplementary budget for the present fiscal year has, for the adjustment of its account, been adopted simultaneously with the extraordinary war budget. I shall here give the items under which, by the supplementary budget, the government will obtain special revenues, as follows:

REVENUE.		
Extraordinary Special Taxes.		
I. Taxes		$25,057,398.50
A.—Land tax	$11,968,106.50	
B.—Income tax	2,643,657.50	
C.—Business tax	2,518,099.50	
D.—Tax on liquors	89,242.00	
E.—Soy tax	569,476.00	
F.—Sugar excise	4,106,191.00	
G.—Mining tax	39,557.50	
H.—Tax on bourses	266,423.00	
I.—Tax on *saké* exported from Okinawa Prefecture	2,699.00	
J.—Customs duties	1,165,316.50	
K.—Consumption tax on woolen textile	1,069,330.50	
L.—Consumption tax on kerosene oil	619,299.50	
II. Stamp receipts: A.—Stamp receipts		1,810,398.50
III. Receipts from public undertaking: A.—Tobacco-manufacture monopoly		4,233,142.50
Total		$31,100,939.50
EXPENDITURE.		
A.—Extraordinary war expenditures transferred to special account	35,000,000.00	
B.—Emergency reserve fund	20,000,000.00	
Total		$55,000,000.00

As to the receipts from the imposition of increased taxes, and from the tobacco-manufacture monopoly, which are among the sources of revenue for the expenditures, it is considered advisable, for the convenience of their collection, to put them under the general account.

WHAT WILL THE WAR COST JAPAN?

As to the total amount of war expenditure, that obviously depends on the number of soldiers and sailors engaged; on the area of the field of operations, as well as on its nearness or distance from the home country; on the number of battles, and on the length of the war in point of time. Keeping in mind all these more or less indefinite factors, I find it impossible to indicate anything like the exact amount which Japan will need for the present war. Yet, judging from experience since the Crimean War, in the Austro-Italian War, the war in which Denmark was engaged, the Franco-German War, the Russo-Turkish War, and the Transvaal war, an approximate estimate may be given.

The average monthly expenditure in those wars, for an army of 100,000 men, ranged from a minimum of $12,000,000 to a maximum of $25,000,000, excepting that of the Austro-Prussian War expenses. In our own war against China, in the years 1894–95, we spent, every month, on the average, the sum of $5,500,000. Since then, the price of goods has risen both in Japan and in Manchuria. The armies we employ in the present campaign are much larger than those we sent against the Chinese. What is more, being unable to utilize for the present war the organization and plan of operations which suited well enough for the campaign of 1894–95, we had to make completely new arrangements for the operations now in progress against the Russians. Taking, then, experience in Europe since the Crimean War, and our own experience in the war against China, it may be said that, were Japan to send 200,000 soldiers to Manchuria at the present time, their support for each month would cost $12,500,000. We must also keep in mind the naval operations of the war; expenditure for this purpose will amount, per month, to $3,000,000. (In the years 1894–95, we spent, every month, on an average, the sum of $1,500,000.)

It thus appears that the war expenditure for the year beginning last April and ending next March will amount to $186,000,000; and as the government's estimate of the war expenditure for the fiscal year is $190,000,000, we shall have —my own estimate being correct—a surplus of $4,000,000.

At the beginning of hostilities, the Japanese Government had special expenditures which are no longer necessary. These were on such items as mobilizing of soldiers and sailors, the purchase of extra horses, guns, ammunition, provisions, and other material, the requisites of transport service, etc. Since June of the present year, our government has been, and will be, in receipt of revenue from the following sources and to the following amounts:

	Bonds and Loans.	Taxes and Other Acc'ts.	Total.
1904.			
June	$13,500,000	$7,000,000	$20,500,000
July	25,000,000	7,000,000	32,000,000
August	15,000,000	7,000,000	22,000,000
September	12,500,000	7,000,000	19,500,000
October	9,000,000	7,000,000	16,000,000
November	5,000,000	7,000,000	12,000,000
December	2,500,000	7,000,000	9,500,000
1905.			
January	7,500,000	7,000,000	14,500,000
February	7,500,000	7,000,000	14,500,000
March	7,500,000	7,000,000	14,500,000

In addition to the revenue here indicated, the government of Japan has authority, as previously stated, to raise $40,000,000. Now, as its fixed monthly revenue ranges all the way from $9,500,000 to $32,000,000, and as our war expenditure for this present fiscal year does not exceed $15,830,000 monthly, it is obvious that Japan can easily support the financial burden of the war, and will be able, from its financial resources, to tide the country over any difficulty in the near future. Should hostilities continue into the next fiscal year, our government will prepare another war budget, and the Diet will grant all necessary supplies. Even before the war began, and before the Diet took action, the people of Japan did not hesitate to contribute everything that was needed.

ARE THE JAPANESE PEOPLE ALREADY OVERTAXED?

But it is said that, owing to the government having issued a large amount in national loans, the people of Japan are now under heavy financial burdens. It is argued that if, during the present war, the Japanese Government continue to create national debts, either in the home or in the foreign market, she will ultimately find herself in a position where it will be impossible for her to pay even the interest on the amounts of her indebtedness. With no other resources at her disposal, and with no mortgages to pledge in security on foreign loans, Japan, it is held, will in a very short time find her credit gone, not only in the foreign, but also in the home, market.

Now, not only is this critic of Japanese financial conditions over-severe in his attitude. He

cannot, in my opinion, know much of Japanese finance. Let us glance for a moment over the route which Japan has already traveled. From the year 1870, the date of our first national loan, to the date of the loan of $150,000,000 for the war expenditure, issued the present year, the gross total of our loans has aggregated the sum of $432,459,495.50 outstanding in foreign and home markets, a sum which in amount is about three times the national revenue of Japan.

A COMPARISON WITH OTHER COUNTRIES.

Now, what of other countries? France, for example, has a national loan more than eight times the annual revenue of that country; Italy has a national loan equivalent to seven years of its revenue; in the case of England, the national loan represents about five years of the government's income; with the United States, nearly four times the total revenue equals the amount of the national loan. The loan of Japan, reaching only three times the national income, being only $8.64 *per capita* of its population, is, then, not a large, but a very small, amount when considered in relation to the proportions and *per capitas* which obtain in other countries. It can therefore be safely asserted that the Japanese loan does not constitute for the people of Japan anything like the heavy financial burden which some have supposed it to be.

A word more on this aspect of the subject. About ten years ago, when we carried on the war against China, in 1894–95, the revenue of the Japanese Government, including ordinary and extraordinary income, was $49,085,014. But last year, 1903–04, our national revenue amounted to $125,840,980.50,—three times, that is to say, what our revenue was ten years ago. This increase in the national receipts comes, of course, from the new taxes that have been levied by our government since the war with China. A large amount of it must be traced to the growth of Japan's industrial productivity, and to the increasing income of our people. It is well to bear in mind here the great development which has taken place in our agricultural area, as well as the widened territories of forest land which we now have under cultivation. Consider also the immense impetus which recent years have given to our marine industries, and the vast development which has occurred in Japanese mining and other industrial enterprises. All of which goes to show that if the government imposes new taxes, the people of Japan are not only ready, but will find it easy, to bear any burden which they may entail.

A few further figures will suffice to dispel any doubt that may yet remain as to the prosperity of Japan and the ability of her people to meet even heavy financial expenditures. In 1894, the year of our war with China, our foreign trade, exports and imports, was of the value of $115,364,020.50. Last year, our foreign trade had increased to $303,318,980.50, an increase equal to about three times the average annual value of the trade for ten years past. Take, also, the facts regarding our stock, insurance, and banking companies, all showing the strides we have taken in commercial and business development. Eight years ago, in 1896, our stock companies, limited and ordinary partnerships, including agricultural, industrial, and commercial, and also transportation concerns, numbered 4,595, and had a capital amounting to $309,611,974.50. In 1902, the number had increased to 8,612, and the capital to $613,365,664. Meanwhile, there has been a large increase in the number and capital of the insurance companies, doing life, fire, marine, and carriage insurance business. The past ten years have also seen a considerable development of railway companies and bourses, as well as of the business of many other companies, private as well as public, including that of steamship companies, with an accompanying increase in the number of steam and sailing vessels flying the Japanese flag.

DEVELOPMENT OF JAPANESE BANKING.

I now come to the banking business of Japan. In 1894, the Japanese banks numbered 865, with an authorized capital amounting to $60,977,290. In 1902, the number had increased to 2,324, and their capital to $262,558,515. The total amount of deposits in these banks increased from $146,647,140 in 1894 to $1,494,447,454.50 in 1903. These figures show an enormous development of the banking business of Japan. Related to this are the figures dealing with the monetary situation. In 1894, the total amount of the coin of Japan, including gold coin, silver yen, and the subsidiary silver, nickel, and copper pieces, reached the value of $45,963,409.50. For the same year, the convertible bank-notes and paper money amounted to $92,500,022. The grand total for 1894 of the money existing in Japan was thus $138,463,431.50. In the year 1903, the Japanese coin, including gold coin, silver yen, and the subsidiary silver, nickel, and copper pieces, reached the total of $89,779,715.50. At the present time, we have no paper money in Japan, but we have convertible bank-notes to the amount, in 1903, of $206,239,997.

Signs of the increasing prosperity of Japan are also shown by the large amounts which have been dealt with and have passed through the

clearing houses in Tokio, Osaka, Kioto, Yokohama, Kobé, and Nagasaki—constituted, let me explain, not of all, but of the principal, banking establishments in those places. The amount of the bills cleared up in 1894 was $126,570,652, while in 1903 this total had increased to $1,793,805,625. The remarkable prosperity of Japanese business concerns, as revealed by the condition of the money market, is obvious.

"THRIFT, A PRICELESS NATIONAL POSSESSION."

And now, in closing, let me sum up this review of the economic and financial conditions of Japan. I have said enough to show that in a comparatively brief space of time there has been an enormous increase in our industrial and commercial prosperity; that the national revenues have advanced in amount literally by leaps and bounds; that our financial condition and prospects, even though we are carrying on a costly war, were never so good as at present; and that, firmly guiding her ship of state through the problems of the moment, Japan has every reason to anticipate a smooth and prosperous voyage for the future of her national life. Already the faith of the Japanese people in that future is shown by the fact that when the government planned to issue exchequer bonds to the amount of $50,000,000 they responded with the offer of four or five times that amount, and in place of the minimum rate of application, fixed by the government at $47.50, showed their willingness to contribute a much larger sum. This of itself shows how patriotic the Japanese really are, but it also indicates something more; for as patriotic feeling cannot be manifested in such a matter unless there is enough money forthcoming, the taking up of bonds on such liberal terms reveals the existence of a people on whose thrift—a priceless national possession—the government of Japan can always depend. If it were necessary to say anything more in illustration of the industrial energy and thrift of the people of Japan, I should only need to mention the fact that the issue of $50,000,000 exchequer bonds not only did not—as the government thought it might—disturb the money market, but simply paved the way, after the bonds had been eagerly taken up, for a second issue of exchequer bonds by the Japanese Government to the amount of another $50,000,000.

POPULAR SELF-SACRIFICING PATRIOTISM.

Observe, meanwhile, that in all this patriotism there is an element of voluntary retrenchment, not to say self-sacrifice. Not only have our people felt encouraged to engage more extensively in industrial enterprises,—they have freely given up what is known as "luxurious expenditure," and have resorted to not a few of the practical economies of life as a means of enabling them to contribute all the more to the expenses of the war. It is therefore in the self-confidence born of economic strength that the Japanese people have encouraged their government to prosecute this war to its conclusion utterly regardless of financial considerations and of what the operations may cost. They have determined, should it become necessary, to spend the whole of the national wealth in realizing the objects for which hostilities were begun. They have self-reliance enough to feel that should the war be prolonged for three, or even five, years more, Japan will be strong enough to respond to its most exacting demands upon her economic and financial resources.

I have spoken of war as one of the most terrible scourges of human society. But we do not "live by bread alone." We do not exist to hoard up money; nor do we pass our time on this planet for purposes of wasteful idleness or luxurious self-indulgence. We are in the world, if for anything, to exalt justice, to secure liberty, to preserve honor, to extend and enlarge self-respect; and especially to pursue all these ends in upholding, at whatever cost, the integrity and independence of our national life. And if we succeed in thus exalting justice, securing liberty, preserving honor, extending and enlarging self-respect, the blessings thus bestowed on the world, as well as on Japan, will abundantly recompense us for our sacrifices of human life, of treasure, and of property in the present war.

THE OPENED WORLD.

BY ARTHUR JUDSON BROWN, D.D.

[Dr. Brown, as secretary of the Presbyterian Board of Foreign Missions, has recently completed a journey around the world, in which he made it his business to note especially all improvements in means and methods of communication and transportation. He is the author of "The New Era in the Philippines."]

THE fiftieth anniversary of the opening of Japan is an appropriate time for reminding ourselves of some of the stupendous changes that have taken place in recent years, changes that have powerfully affected all other nations as well as Japan, though perhaps not in the same degree. It is startlingly significant of these changes that Russia and Japan, nations 7,000 miles apart by land and a still greater distance by water, are able in the opening years of the twentieth century to wage war in a region which one army can reach in four weeks and the other in four days, and that all the rest of the world can receive daily information as to the progress of the conflict. A half-century ago, Russia could no more have sent a large army to Manchuria than to the moon, while the few wooden vessels that made the long journey to Japan found an unprogressive and bitterly anti-foreign heathen nation, with a law still on its statute books providing that if the Christian's God himself should set foot on her territory, he should pay for his temerity with his head.

Nor were other far-Eastern peoples any more hospitable. China, save for a few port cities, was as impenetrable as when, in 1552, the dying Xavier had cried, "O rock, rock! when wilt thou open?" Siam excluded all foreigners until the century's first quarter had passed, and Laos saw no white man till 1868. The handful of British traders in India were so greedily determined to keep that vast peninsula a private commercial preserve that as late as 1857 a director of the East India Company declared that "he would rather see a band of devils in India than a band of missionaries." Korea was rightly called "the hermit nation" until 1882; and as for Africa, it was not till 1873 that the world learned of that part of it in which the heroic Livingstone died on his knees, not till 1877 that Stanley staggered into a West Coast settlement after a desperate journey of nine hundred and ninety-nine days from Zanzibar through Central Africa, not till 1884 that the Berlin Conference formed the International Association of the Congo guaranteeing that which has not yet been realized, "liberty of conscience" and "the free and public exercise of every creed." Even in America, within the memory of men still living, the white-topped "prairie-schooner" needed at least six months for the overland journey to California. Hardy frontiersmen were fighting Indians in the Mississippi Valley, and the bold Whitman was "half a year" in bearing a message from Oregon to Washington City.

So swiftly have the changes come in recent years, and so quickly have we adapted ourselves to them, that it is difficult to realize the magnitude of the transformation that has been achieved. It is only seventy years since the Rev. John Lowrie, with his bride, and Mr. and Mrs. Reed, rode horseback from Pittsburg through flooded rivers and over the Alleghany Mountains to Philadelphia, whence it took them four and a half months to reach Calcutta. We can now ride from Pittsburg to Philadelphia in eight hours, and to Calcutta in twenty-two days. The journey across our own continent is no longer marked by the ox-cart, the camp-fire, and the bones of perished expeditions. It is simply a pleasant trip of less than a week, and in an emergency, in August, 1903, Henry P. Lowe traveled from New York to Los Angeles, 3,241 miles, in seventy-three hours and twenty-one minutes. When the Rev. and Mrs. Calvin Mateer and the Rev. and Mrs. Hunter Corbett went to China, in 1863, they were six months in reaching Chefu, and the voyage was so full of hardships that two of the members of the little party never fully recovered from its effects. But when, in 1902, Dr. Mateer returned on furlough, he reached New York in one month, after a comfortable journey through Siberia. The Atlantic Ocean is now crossed in five days, and the wide Pacific in twelve.

No waters are too remote for the modern steamer; its smoke trails across every sea and far up every navigable stream. Ten mail steamers regularly run on the Yenisei, while the Siberian Obi, flowing from the snows of the Little Altai Mountains, bears three hundred and two steam vessels on various parts of its 2,000-mile journey to the Obi Gulf, on the Arctic Ocean. One may now go from Glasgow to Stanley Falls, in Africa, in forty-three days. Already there are forty-six steamers on the Upper Congo, and the railroad running northward from Cape Town

is being pushed so rapidly that the British Association for the Advancement of Science has been invited to meet, in 1905, at Victoria Falls. Within a few years, the Englishman's dream will be realized in a railroad from Cairo to the Cape. Already the distance is half covered. Uganda is reached by rail, and sleeping and dining cars safely run the 575 miles from Cairo to Khartum, where, only five years ago, Kitchener fought the savage hordes of the Mahdi.

THE LOCOMOTIVE IN THE FAR EAST.

Japan, which, fifty years ago, did not own even a jinrikisha, now has 4,237 miles of well managed railroad, while India is gridironed by 25,373 miles of steel rails, which carry 195,000,000 passengers annually. Railways are paralleling the Siamese Menam as well as the Nile and the Congo, and one can ride on them from Bangkok northward to Korat and westward to Petchaburee. In Korea, the line from Chemulpho to Seoul is connected with lines under construction both southward and northward, so that within a few weeks the Japanese can transport men and munitions of war by rail from Fusan all the way to Wiju. As the former is but ten hours by sea from Japan, and as the latter is to be a junction with the Siberian Railway, a land journey in a sleeping car will soon be practicable from London and Paris to the capitals of China and Korea, and, save for the ferry across the Korean Strait, to any part of the Mikado's empire. We can already ride on a train along the banks of the Burmese Irawadi to Bhamo and Mandalay. The locomotive runs noisily from Jaffa to Jerusalem, and from Beirut to Damascus, the oldest city in the world. A projected line will run from there to the Mohammedan Mecca. Most unique of all is the Anatolian Railway, which is to run through the heart of Asia Minor, traversing the Karamanian plateau, the Taurus Mountains, and the Cilician valleys to Haran, where Abraham tarried, and Nineveh, where Jonah preached, and Babylon, where Nebuchadnezzar made an image of gold, and Bagdad, where Harun-al-Rashid ruled, to Koweit, on the Persian Gulf.

AMERICAN ENGINES AND BRIDGES EVERYWHERE.

The alert business men of the United States are aiding this development and seeking their share of the resultant profit. In a single month, forty-five American engines have been ordered for India. The American locomotive is to-day speeding across the steppes of Siberia, through the valleys of Japan, across the uplands of Burma, and around the mountain sides of South America. "Yankee bridge-builders have cast up a highway on the desert where the chariot of Cambyses was swallowed up by the sands. The steel of Pennsylvania spans the Atbara, makes a road to Meroe," and crosses the rivers of Peru. Trains on the two imperial highways of Africa—the one from Cairo to the Cape and the other from the Upper Nile to the Red Sea—are to be hauled by American engines over American bridges, while the "forty centuries," which, Napoleon Bonaparte said, looked down from the pyramids, see not the soldiers of France but the manufacturers of America. Whether or not we are to have a political imperialism, we already have an industrial imperialism.

According to Walter J. Ballard, the aggregate capital invested in railways at the end of 1902 was $36,850,000,000, and the total mileage was 532,500, distributed as follows :

	Miles.
United States	202,471
Europe	180,708
Asia	41,814
South America	28,654
North America (except United States)	24,032
Australia	15,649
Africa	14,187

TO-DAY'S TOUR AROUND THE WORLD.

Jules Verne's story, "Around the World in Eighty Days," was deemed fantastic in 1873. But in 1903, James Willis Sayre, of Seattle, Washington, traveled completely around the world in fifty-four days and nine hours, while the Russian minister of railroads issues the following schedule of possibilities when the Trans-Siberian Railroad has completed its plans, and, he might have added, the Japanese have given their consent :

	Days.
From St. Petersburg to Vladivostok	10
From Vladivostok to New York	14½
From New York to Bremen	7
From Bremen to St. Petersburg	1½
Total	33

As for the risks incident to such a tour, it is significant that for my own journey around the world, a conservative insurance company, for a consideration of only $50, guaranteed to indemnify me against injury to the extent of $50 a week, and in case of death to pay my heirs $10,000. And the company made money on the policy, for in a journey of over fifteen months, in which I used not only the railways of India and Japan, but the ponies and chairs of Korea, the carts and mule-litters of China, the river-boats of Siam, the elephants of Laos, all sorts and conditions of ocean and coasting vessels, with alleged possibilities of almost every description,—from the cholera of Bangkok and the plague of the Punjab to the Boxers of Chi-li, the

robbers of the Turkish mountains, the tigers and snakes of the Indo-China jungles, and the scorpions and centipedes of Chiengmai,—I met with neither illness nor accident, nor mishap of any kind. With a very few unimportant exceptions, there are now no hermit nations, for the remotest lands are within quick and easy reach.

THE TELEGRAPH GIRTS THE EARTH.

And now electricity has ushered in an era more wondrous still. Trolley cars run through the streets of Seoul and Nagoya. The Empress-Dowager of China wires her decrees to the provincial governors. Telegraph lines belt the globe, enabling even the provincial journal to print the news of the entire world during the preceding twenty-four hours. We know to-day what occurred yesterday in Tokio and Beirut, Shanghai and Batanga. The total length of all telegraph lines in the world is 4,908,921 miles, the nerves of our modern civilization. It is not merely that Europe has 1,764,790 miles, America 2,516,548 miles, and Australia 277,479 miles, but that Africa has 99,409 miles and Asia 310,685 miles.

I found the telegraph in Japan and Korea, in China and the Philippines, in Burma, India, Arabia, Egypt, and Palestine. Camping one night in far-northern Laos, Siam, after a toilsome ride on elephants, I realized that I was 12,500 miles from home, at as remote a point, almost, as it would be possible for man to reach. All about was the wilderness, relieved only by the few houses of a small hamlet. But walking into that tiny village, I found, at the police station, a telephone connected with the telegraph office at Chiengmai, so that, though I was on the other side of the planet, I could have sent a telegram to my New York office in a few minutes. Nor was this an exceptional experience, for the telegraph is all over Siam, as indeed it is over many other Asiatic lands. From the recesses of Africa comes the report that the Congo telegraph line, which will ultimately stretch across the entire belt of Central Africa, already runs 800 miles up the Congo River, from the ocean to Kwamouth, the junction of the Kassai and Congo rivers. A Belgian paper states that "a telegram dispatched from Kwamouth on January 15 was delivered at Boma half an hour later. For the future, the Kassai is thus placed in direct and rapid communication with the seat of government, and Europe is also brought close to the center of Africa. Only a few years ago, news took at least two months to reach Boma from the Kassai, and the reply would not be received under two months, and then only if the parties were available and the steamer ready to start."

The submarine cables aggregate 1,751 in number and over 200,000 miles in length, and annually transmit more than 6,000,000 messages, annihilating the time and distance which formerly separated nations. When King William IV. of England died, in 1837, the news was thirty-five days in reaching America. But when Queen Victoria passed away, in 1901, at 2:30 P.M., the afternoon papers describing the event were being sold in the streets of New York at 3:30 P.M. of the same day. As I rose to address a union meeting of the English-speaking residents of Canton, China, on that fateful September day of 1901, a message was handed me which read, "President McKinley is dead." So that, by means of the submarine cable, that distant company of Englishmen, and Americans bowed in grief and prayer simultaneously with multitudes in the home land. Not only Europe and America, but Siberia and Australia, New Zealand and New Caledonia, Korea and the Kameruns, Burma and Persia, are within the sweep of this modern system of intercommunication. President Roosevelt gave a significant illustration of the perfection of the system when, on the completion of the new trans-Pacific cable between San Francisco and Manila, July 4, 1903, he flashed a message around the earth in twelve minutes, while a second message, sent by Clarence H. Mackay, president of the Pacific Cable Company, made the circuit of the earth in nine minutes.

THE CABLE AND THE WIRELESS TELEGRAPH IN THE PRESENT WAR.

The war between Russia and Japan teems with illustrations of the possibilities of the new era that has been inaugurated. A generation ago, months would have elapsed before tidings from Manchuria or Korea could have reached America. But to-day the problem that is perplexing the rival commanders is not how to send reports abroad, but how to prevent war correspondents from prematurely publishing them. It requires all the power and determination of the Russian and Japanese censors to keep the whole world from instantly knowing every detail of the military and naval operations.

More significant still is the wireless telegraph —the latest and most remarkable development of electrical communication. Even now transatlantic steamers and warships are equipped with the necessary apparatus, and exchange greetings and information as to movements with one another and with friends on shore. Curiously enough, an Asiatic nation has been first to use wireless telegraphy in its most advanced scientific form. Japanese torpedo boats lay in the offing of Port Arthur, and by wireless mes-

sages informed battleships lying six miles away, and out of sight, how to vary their aim so as to make their shells more destructive. And, a little later, Admiral Togo trapped the Russian admiral by sending a few unarmored cruisers close to Port Arthur, calmly waiting twenty miles out at sea until they sent him a wireless message that they had decoyed the unsuspecting foe out of the harbor, and then racing in under every pound of steam to force Makaroff's flagship on a mine which had been skillfully laid for him the night before. What additional possibilities are involved in the wireless system of telegraphy we can only conjecture.

OUR INTERNATIONAL COMMERCE.

Commerce has taken swift and massive advantage of these facilities for intercommunication. Its ships whiten every sea. The products of European and American manufacture are flooding the earth. The United States Treasury Bureau of Statistics estimates that the value of the manufactured articles which enter into the international commerce of the world is $4,000,000,000, and that of this vast total the United States furnished $400,000,000, its foreign trade having increased over 100 per cent. since 1895. American goods of all kinds are invading Indian markets, and are very popular. Our rifles are favorites for hunting and for defense. The American sewing-machine is everywhere. American tools, boots, and shoes are more and more appreciated. A well-boring outfit ordered from Waterloo, Iowa, is arousing great interest in a land which largely depends upon irrigation. Persia is demanding increasing quantities of American padlocks, sewing-machines, and agricultural implements. German, English, and American firms are equipping great cotton factories in Japan, and Russian and American oil tins are seen in the remotest villages of Korea.

AMERICAN SEWING-MACHINES AND BICYCLES IN SIAM.

Strolling along the river-bank, one evening, in Paknampo, Siam, I heard a familiar whirring sound, and entering, found a Siamese busily at work on a sewing-machine of American make. Nearly five hundred of them are sold in Siam every year, while a single American factory sent sixty thousand of its sewing-machines to Turkey last year. When I left Lampoon, Laos, a native followed me several miles on an American bicycle. There are thousands of them in Siam. His Majesty himself frequently rides one, and his Royal Highness Prince Damrong is president of a bicycle club of four hundred members. Forty thousand dollars' worth of American lamps were bought by the Siamese last year, and I might add similar illustrations regarding American flour, steam and electrical machinery, wire, cutlery, and drugs and chemicals.

And these are only a few illustrations of the changes that are taking place all over the world. "The swift ships of commerce," says Dr. Josiah Strong, "are mighty shúttles which are weaving the nations together into one great web of life. True, there has been commerce since the early ages, but caravans could afford to carry only precious goods, like fine fabrics, spices, and gems. These luxuries did not reach the multitude, and could not materially change environment. But modern commerce scatters over all the world the products of every climate in ever increasing quantities."

"THE OLD ORDER CHANGETH."

It is, therefore, too late to discuss the question whether the character of Asiatic nations is to be changed. The natives themselves realize that the old days are passing forever. India is in a ferment. Japan has already leaped to world-prominence. The power of the Mahdi has been broken and the Sudan has been opened to civilization. The King of Siam has made Sunday a legal holiday, and is frightening his conservative subjects by his revolutionary changes. China is slowly but surely undergoing a mighty transformation, while Korea is changing with kaleidoscopic rapidity.

> "The rudiments of empire here
> Are plastic yet and warm;
> The chaos of a mighty world
> Is rounding into form."

Whereas the opening years of the sixteenth century saw the struggle for civilization; of the seventeenth century, for religious liberty; of the eighteenth century, for constitutional government; of the nineteenth century, for political freedom, the opening years of the twentieth century are witnessing what Lowell would have called

> "One death-grapple in the darkness 'twixt
> Old systems and the Word."

The tides of modern life are surging into the most distant lands. All barriers between nations are crumbling. The races are being drawn together by the mighty cords of common knowledge and common interest. Each nation influences to a greater or less degree all the others, and is in turn influenced by them. No man knoweth what the final outcome will be, but it is clear that we are on the threshold of a stupendous movement which may affect the future of the whole human race.



SOME PROMINENT CHINESE PERIODICALS.

WHAT THE PEOPLE READ IN CHINA.

LEARNING being the key to social position and political power in China, as exemplified by the system of public examinations in vogue for centuries, it may be taken for granted that the Chinese give much time to reading. Indeed, with scholars this is a matter of necessity. The selection of officials by the system of civil examinations places such an immense premium on book learning that parents of the humblest means never fail to give their sons some schooling to enable them to read—if nothing higher be attempted—for their future betterment.

What the Chinese read is as varied as the grades of society and the intellectual capacity of Chinese individuals. What do the officials and scholars read? What do the common people read? What do the women read? What these classes read depends upon their political opinions and religious beliefs. Moreover, there is the choice between the vast field of native literature, the Western learning translated and published in books, and the magazines and periodicals, besides the ever-increasing number of newspapers.

The official class and those scholars who intend to enter official life, on account of the keen competition and stringent requirements in the state examinations, devote very little time to light literature. Their days are mostly spent on the thirteen classics, on Chinese history, poetry, jurisprudence, essays, practical subjects bearing on the administration of the government, and the biographies and official dispatches of eminent statesmen and their collected works. The more progressive element read translated works on Western geography, history, education, international law, physics, mathematics, astronomy, electricity, geology, irrigation, military science, gunnery, travel, the records of Chinese embassies to the West, consular reports, and biographies of European and American statesmen and reformers. Herbert Spencer's "Education," the lives of Washington, Grant, Peter the Great, Napoleon, Kossuth, Bismarck, Gladstone, and the reformers of Italy and Japan are all within the reach of the reading public.

Works of fiction are not considered literature in China. A Chinese scholar would be as much ashamed of acknowledging himself the author of a novel as an English gentleman in the days of Shakespeare would in publicly confessing to the authorship of a play. The Chinese equivalent for the term novel is *Siao Shuo* (Small Talk), and one who writes a novel is regarded as a "trifler," lacking that gravity becoming a dignified scholar. Nevertheless, some of our most popular novels and stories, such as the "Tsz-Pu-Yu," "Liao-Chai," "Yuet-Wei-Tso-Tong," and

"Hung-Lou-Mung" were the productions of learned scholars and eminent statesmen, who prided themselves on their works of imagination. The Chinese will read anything so long as the style is good and the plot well sustained.

Chinese novels are divided into (1) political or historical novels,—those dealing with usurpation and court intrigue; (2) novels of love and romance; (3) religious novels,—those dealing with gods, goddesses, and superstition; (4) novels of adventure and brigandage.

Of the first group, "San Kwo" is undoubtedly the favorite. It is an historical novel describing the war of "Wei, Shu, and Woo" (Three Kingdoms), A.D. 220–263. The "Lieh-Kwo" (Warring States), B.C. 722–255, deals with the exciting times of feudalism, covering the period between the eighth century and the consolidation of the empire under the first emperor, who built the great wall. The "Hsi Han" (Western Han) describes the accession of the Han dynasty, B.C. 206–A.D. 23. The "Tung Han" (Eastern Han), A.D. 25–220, deals with he decline of the same. The "Yo Fei Chuan" treats of the life and campaigns of Yo Fei, the Chinese general who opposed the Kin Tartars, who were subsequently subdued by Genghis Khan. These historical novels are read far more extensively by the masses than real histories which treat of the same period. This is so because the style of the novels is flowing and picturesque, the descriptions are intensely vivid, and every page is filled with surprising incidents.

Of the second group, or novels of romance, the best known are the "Tieh Chung Yu" (Jade and Iron), depicting the love of two young people, almost platonic in its purity; the "Tsai Shang Yuan" (Destined to Wed Again), a metrical romance full of plot and fine description; the "Yu Chiao Li" (Beautiful Cousins), two young ladies whom a student loved and married; the "Erh Tou Mei" (Twice-Flowering Plum Trees); "the Ping, Shan, Leng, You," which are the names of four young people who loved and married; and "Hung Lou Meng" (Dreams of the Red Chamber), which is considered a work as touching the highest point of development reached by the Chinese novel. This class of novels forms the favorite reading of the women of the upper classes.

Of the religious novels,—those dealing with gods, goddesses, and superhuman agencies,—the "Hsi Yu Chi" (Record of Travels to the West) is best known. It is based upon the journey of Hsuan Tsang, of the Tang dynasty, who went to India in search of books, images, and relics to illustrate the Buddhist religion. The "Shiu Shen Chi" (Battle of the Gods) is a novel extolling the wonderful power and influence of the Taoist gods. It was written with the avowed purpose of rivaling the "Hsi Yu Chi" (Converts to Christianity). Catholics, especially, are not allowed to read such works, and instead read "Pilgrim's Progress," which has been well translated into easy Chinese.

Next in bulk to the novels of love and romance are the novels of adventure. The "Shui Hu" is a work on the brigands of the twelfth century. Some of the situations are very laughable, and the work is valuable for the insight given of the manners and customs of that period; the "Ching Hwa Yuan" deals with a young graduate who, disgusted with the policy of the Empress Woo Hou (A.D. 684–706), went on a voyage of exploration. The "Shan Hai Ching" (Stories of Strange Lands) is on the order of "Gulliver's Travels."



MR. LIANG-CHI-CHAO.
(The most famous living Chinese author and editor.)

Of the "plays" which are widely read may be mentioned the "Pi Pa Chi" (Story of the Guitar), which extols the virtues of filial piety and conjugal fidelity, and "Hsi Chang Chi" (Love-Making at the West Hall), and other novels which have been dramatized.

The collection of songs called "Yo Fu," the "Yuet Nao" (Popular Love Songs of Canton), the "San Fu Tan Ching" (Three Matrons' Complaint), and similar works help to cheer the monotonous lives of the Chinese women.

Among the collection of short stories, the best known is the "Liao Chai" (Strange Stories from a Studio), written between A.D. 1641–1679 by Pu Sung Ling, a disappointed scholar of Shan-tung. Foxes, ghosts, sprites, elves, and supernatural beings figure largely in these fascinating stories. "Tsz Pu Yu" (What Confucius Never Talked About) was written by Yuan Mei, a learned official, poet, and essayist of the eighteenth century. "Yuet Wei Tso Tong" (Pleasant Stories from a Private Study) was the work of the famous grand counselor, Chi Shiao Lan. The "Chin Ku Chi Kwan" (Marvelous Tales, Ancient and Modern) is a collection of forty stories by the members of a literary club. Collections of wit and humor and stories of the "Joe Miller" class are extensively read. In

this connection, "Yi Chien Ha Ha Shiao" (Read and Laugh), the "Yi Chien Yin Jen Shiao" (Be Moved to Laughter), the Shiao Chek To" (Side-Splitter), and "San Tsu Liao Chai" (Sparkling Wit and Humor) may be cited.

Among translated works are Æsop's Fables, "Vathek," "Night and Morning," and other good novels from the English, French, German, Russian, and Japanese. An immense amount



THE CHINAMAN (reading): "'The Japanese have taken the Russian positions.' . . . Would it not be more exact to say the *Chinese* positions?"—From *Pasquino* (Turin).

of Christian literature in the form of tracts and scientific pamphlets has been published by the different missionary societies and widely distributed, forming the bulk of reading matter for the Christian converts and the more inquisitive Chinese population.

Newspapers and illustrated magazines are Western innovations introduced into China within the last few decades. The oldest Chinese newspaper conducted on the European method is the *Hwa Tsz Yat Pao* (Chinese Mail), of Hongkong. There are printed in the same colony the *Chung Ngoi Shan Pao* (Daily Press); the *Chung Kwo Pao* (China), owned and conducted by the Chinese reform party; the *Shun Wan Yat Pao* (Daily News), and the *Shiang Po* (Commercial Record). In Canton, there were published, a few years ago, three or four dailies, but their tone was too liberal and caustic to suit the authorities, who suppressed all of them except the *Yat Pao* (Canton News).

The oldest and most influential Chinese paper published in Shanghai is the *Shen Pao* (Shanghai News), owned by a European. It is well patronized by the conservative officials. The more liberal organs are the *Shin-Wen-Pao* (Shanghai Daily), the *Soo-Poo*, or *Soo-Chow* (Daily), the *Tung Wen Hu Pao* (Far East), and the *Chung Wai Jih Pao* (Universal Gazette). The *Wan-Siao-Pao* (Comic Daily) and *Hi-Sio-Pao* (Punch) are comic papers in the Shanghai vernacular, very popular with the masses.

In Peking are published the *Yu Cha Tieh Tsun* (Peking Gazette) and the *Kwo Chow Tieh Pien* (Court Circular), which contain the daily record of imperial edicts, memorials, and official reports. Their purpose is similar to that of all government gazettes. All officials and the foreign diplomatic corps take these. The Peking *Gazette* is, perhaps, the oldest paper of its kind in the world, having been founded in the Tang dynasty (A.D. 618–905). The *Shun Tien Shi Pao* (Peking Times) is under the management of a Japanese gentleman, and is devoted to the promotion of friendly feelings between Japan and China.

In Tientsin is published the *Chih Pao* (Chili News), which is decidedly a conservative organ. The *Ji Ji Shin Wen* (Daily News) is managed by a Japanese, and is liberal in tone. The *Ta Kung Pao* (Impartial) is a daily under the management of a Manchu, who is a Roman Catholic convert. It ranks among the most liberal of papers in China. The Tientsin *Young Man* is a paper printed in Chinese and English, under missionary auspices.

Among the most influential and widely read magazines is the *Wan Kwoh Kung Pao* (Review of the Times), edited by the Rev. Dr. Young J. Allen, an American gentleman residing in Shanghai. The *Hwa Pao* is an illustrated magazine which publishes short stories. These are issued in Shanghai.

The *Shi Woo Pao* (Reform) and the *Ching Yi Pao* (Standard Magazine) are publications devoted to reform and politics. The former has been suppressed by the government and the latter is now published in Japan, together with the *Shin Wen Tsung Pao*, which is another name for the *Shi Woo Pao*. These are much read by the younger generation, who are liberals. The *Shi Shi Tsai Shin* (Peking Review), the *Ching Wha Pao* (Peking Vernacular Magazine), semi-monthly, and *Chi Mung Wha Pao* (Children's Illustrated Magazine), monthly, are recent publications of Peking.

CHANG YOW TONG.

THE WORLD'S CONGRESS OF GEOGRAPHERS.

BY CYRUS C. ADAMS.

THE Eighth International Geographical Congress, which closed its sessions in America, on September 14, was smaller than most of these great meetings in Europe. This was to be expected. Never before have the leading geographers of the world, two-thirds of whom are Europeans, been compelled to travel so far to these quadrennial assemblages. The cost of participation was therefore unusually large ; and it was very gratifying to the American management that the foreign attendance numbered about seventy-five persons, and among them those who are recognized as leaders in their respective geographical specialties. Their presence made the congress fully representative of the best geographical attainment the world over ; and there is another reason why the congress will be classed among the most successful of the series.

The scientific outcome of these congresses is presented in the volumes containing the papers and transactions of the meetings. These volumes are highly prized, because they give the best fruits of the latest research of the world's specialists in geography. The professors of geography in the universities of Europe regard them as among the best works of reference, and continually use them in the lecture-room. Each congress is judged by the quality of its outcome ; and it is not surprising to those who know the facts that the programmes carried out at the Washington, New York, and St. Louis meetings are regarded as equaling the results of any of the preceding congresses, and as surpassing them in some respects.

This is due to the fact that the American organizers had the coöperation, not only of the fine body of foreign specialists present, but also of many leaders who were not here. The papers sent by these absentees make a large and rich contribution to the total outcome. They include exhaustive papers by such men as Martel, the best known of the scientific explorers of caves ; Sapper, the authority on the physical geography of Central America ; Kan, who records geographical progress in the Dutch East Indies ; Levasseur, the leading writer on economic geography in France ; Rabot, Gautier, Lacointe, and many others, some of whom have illustrated their papers with new maps in colors, all ready for publication, while others surprised the American programme committee by sending their papers in English, so that they may have a larger number of readers in this country. If the congress did not have the inspiration of their presence, it had some of the best work of these men.



COMMANDER ROBERT EDWIN PEARY.

(The president of the Geographical Congress. Commander Peary has announced his plans for a final expedition in search of the north pole next June.)

Naturally, those who came were welcomed with open arms, headed, as they were, by such men as Murray, Mill, and Oldham, of Great Britain ; Drude, von Pfeil, Hassert, Marcuse, and Schmidt, of Germany ; Penck, Oberhummer, and Erödi, of Austria-Hungary ; Thoulet, de la Blache, Cordier, and Grandidier, of France, and other men of leadership or prominence in the various branches of geography ; and to this body of experts were added many of our own leaders, such as Davis and Gilbert, in physiography ; Peary, the honored president of the congress, in exploration ; Harris, Littlehales, Bauer, Gannett, and many others who are ranked no higher at home than in Europe, though they have never,



Sir John Murray.
(President of the Royal Scottish Geographical Society.)



Professor Henri Cordier.
(President of the Geographical Society of Paris.)



Mr. H. R. Mill.
(Director of the British Rainfall Organization.)

DISTINGUISHED FOREIGN DELEGATES TO THE EIGHTH GEOGRAPHICAL CONGRESS, HELD IN NEW YORK LAST MONTH.

numerically, been well represented at the European meetings.

The result was that every section into which the congress was divided was strong in men and in papers. Physiography, which deals with the genesis of the surface forms of the land, has never before received so much attention. Meteorology and oceanology brought out many notable papers. Volcanoes and earthquakes were treated chiefly by the Americans, who have given most attention to the remarkable phenomena of which the western world has recently been the scene. Our Washington scientific bureaus were especially large contributors to terrestrial magnetism, mathematical geography, and geographical technique. The geographical control of human and other forms of life was one of the topics nearly equally divided between foreign and American contributors. Exploration was a large section, but not a phase of new and commanding interest dominated it; in fact, there is no such phase of very recent development, excepting in the polar regions. Peary represented the Arctic in a very interesting lecture at St. Louis, but no representative of the latest Antarctic expeditions could be present. Only the polar areas and South America can supply to future congresses the days that have been set apart for the exclusive consideration of a single great phase of pioneer exploration, like the "Africa Day" in London.

These international meetings are an accurate reflection of the trend of geographical activity at the time they are held. No branch of geographical investigation is now attracting more attention than the influence which environment exerts upon the distribution of population and the quality and extent of business enterprises. The result was that the recent congress gave far more attention than any of its predecessors to all sides of anthropogeography, including industrial and commercial development. There was not time to read all the papers in the section of economic geography. They covered a wide range, and are among the most valuable and timely contributions of the congress to the geographical interests of the day.

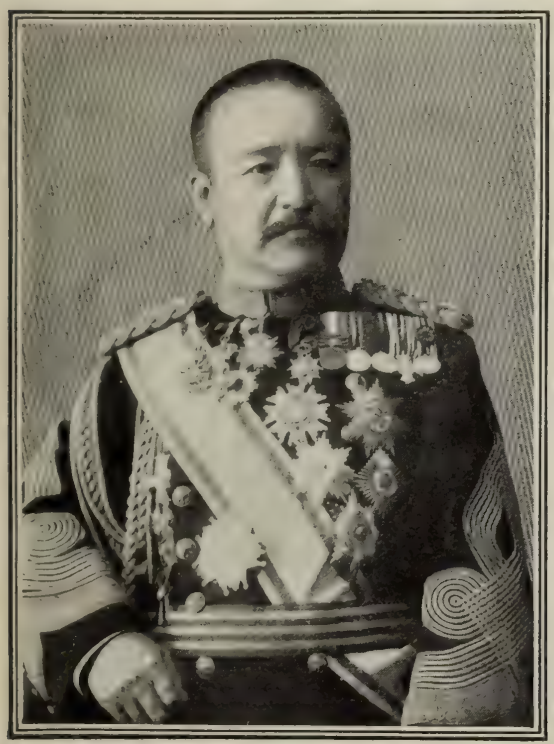
It was the influence of the sixth and seventh congresses that started the great and successful movement for the renewal of Antarctic research The congress here urged the energetic continuance of efforts to reveal the still unknown regions throughout the polar area. Peary's expedition, next spring, may soon be followed by others, in view of the growing belief that there are still important land masses to be discovered north of the Arctic circle.

Favorable action was also taken with regard to the large project, now considerably advanced, of mapping the world on a uniform scale of 1:1,000,000, or nearly sixteen statute miles, to an inch; also on a considerable number of other plans designed to unify geographical effort and increase its efficiency, such as the statistics of population in countries without census, the nomenclature of the ocean-bottom, the rules for geographic names, earthquake investigation, and others. The resolutions of these congresses have always carried great influence, and have often achieved very important results.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

JAPAN'S PROBABLE TERMS OF PEACE.

BEFORE the outbreak of the war in the far East, seven prominent professors at the Imperial University of Tokio strongly urged the Tokio government, by petition, to take decisive action to protect Japan's interest in Korea and Manchuria against the aggression of



Collier's Weekly.

COUNT KATSURA.
(Prime minister of Japan.)

the Muscovite. They were distinguished as the "Seven Belligerents." The ultra-belligerent of these seven professors is without doubt Dr. K. Tomizu, professor of law in the Tokio Imperial University. From his pen has appeared an article entitled "Japan's Post-Bellum Demands," in the latest issue of the *Taiyo*.

CESSION OF THE EASTERN CHINESE RAILWAY.

According to Professor Tomizu, the cession of the Eastern Chinese Railway to Japan is of foremost importance. "This railroad nominally belongs to a private corporation of Russia. But under this thin mask it is not difficult to recognize that the real *entrepreneur* is the Muscovite Government. The government stations soldiers to guard the route, and appoints important officials for the railroads. Even if it were a private enterprise, it behooves the Russian Government to buy it of its owner and then cede it to Japan." The professor does not lose sight of the fact that, as a result of the Hague Peace Conference, a victor in war is obliged, at the conclusion of an international conflict, to return the railroad it captured to the hand of its owner. He suggests, however, that such a provision can be easily superseded by entering into a special agreement with the conquered nation.

THE "OPEN DOOR" IN MANCHURIA.

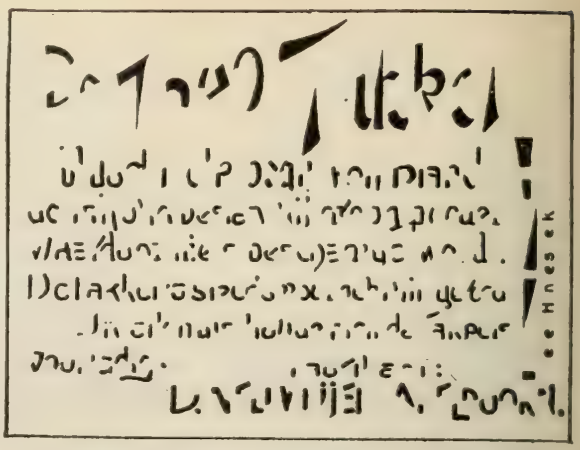
Next in importance is the establishment of the "open door" in Manchuria. The administrative authority in that territory must be restored to the Chinese Government, inasmuch as the preservation of the integrity of the Celestial Empire was the main issue in Japan's contention against Russia. Japan must, however, guarantee the maintenance of peace and order and protect the safety of life and property in Manchuria, in order to draw the capital of the world to that country, where natural resources, though enormously rich, still remain almost untouched. Although Professor Tomizu seems to be anxious to retain the actual as well as the formal sovereignty in Manchuria in the hands of Japan, he does not think it either politic or necessary to do so against the natural course of events. "To enjoy with all the nations on earth the economic advantages in Manchuria, is the ultimate object of Japan, compared with which the question of formal sovereignty in that district is insignificant."

PORT ARTHUR, DALNY, AND SAKHALIN.

Another condition which Japan should demand of Russia is the cession of the lease which the latter secured of Port Arthur and Dalny. In the opinion of Professor Tomizu, from the fact that that lease is not a right *in personam*, but a right *in rem*, it follows that Russia does not necessarily lose that right although the fact that her final defeat in the present war would

render her unable to exercise it. Consequently, Russia would be still in a position to dispose of her lease of Port Arthur and Dalny even after the war had ended in her disaster. The acquisition of these two ports by Japan is of vital significance, in order to perfect the advantage of the Eastern Chinese Railway.

No less important for Japan than these two ports is the island of Sakhalin. Surrounding that extensive island, the northern waters furnish one of the richest fishing grounds. "Japan should receive it back from Russia, for the rich island was stolen from us, as it were, by the clever and shrewd Muscovite diplomats in the roseate name of a mutual exchange, at the time when our country was just awaking from its long slumber."



FACSIMILE OF A JAPANESE WAR TELEGRAM TO THE GOVERNMENT AT TOKIO.

THE CESSION OF EASTERN SIBERIA.

Professor Tomizu is, indeed, bold enough to assert that a vast section of Siberia east of Lake Baikal should also be ceded to Japan. More than this, the professor believes it necessary to temporarily occupy some of the important points in the region west of the lake. This is necessary, he believes, "in order to checkmate the aggression of Russia, which is the constant menace to the peace of the far East." Again, the acquisition of eastern Siberia is indispensable from an economic as well as from a strategic point of view. The fishing interests in the waters of Sakhalin cannot be perfectly promoted unless the continental territory facing that island be placed under Japanese administration. Moreover, that part of Siberia between the Sea of Japan and Lake Baikal abounds in rich gold mines. To hold that country, fully developed and utilized, is to gain the economic supremacy in the East. Considered from a strategic point of view, Lake Baikal is the most advantageous point at which to stem the eastward advance of Russia. The minimum amount of indemnity which Japan should claim of Russia the professor estimates at one billion rubles. He by no means inclines to the opinion of those who would make Mukden or Harbin the last point of the Japanese advance, but asserts, in no uncertain terms, that the Mikado's army should not pause at any point short of Lake Baikal, and, if need be, should advance even beyond the lake.

CAPTAIN MAHAN ON PORT ARTHUR'S DEFENSE.

TREATING of the larger aspects of the siege of Port Arthur, Capt. Alfred T. Mahan contributes to the *National Review* an elaborate article in which he strongly urges that Russia did well not to abandon the fortress. He refers to the widespread impression, when hostilities began, that Russia's determination to hold the fortress was a concession to national pride and to political considerations, but in defiance of sound military principle. He compares Port Arthur with Ladysmith during the Boer war, and says:

I should imagine that there must now be much less doubt of the propriety of the Russian resolution than there was three months ago, just as I cannot but think that as time leaves further behind the period of the Boer war there will be an increasing conviction that the occupation of Ladysmith was neither an error in the beginning nor a misfortune to the future of the war. Why? Because, in the first place, it arrested the Boer invasion of Natal, by threatening their line of communications; and, secondly, it detained before the besieged place a body of enemies which in the later part of the hostilities would have been more formidable elsewhere. I apprehend that Port Arthur has fulfilled, and (August 8) continues to fulfill, the same function toward the Japanese, though it seems much more evident now than at first. The gradual development of operations makes it to my mind increasingly clear that the number of Russians there, plus their artificial advantages of fortification,—which evacuation would have surrendered,—are much more useful to the general plan of campaign than they would be if with Kuropatkin. To carry Port Arthur, or even to maintain an investment, the Japanese must be more numerous than the garrison; therefore, had the place been abandoned, the aggregate of troops transferred to Kuroki would have exceeded decisively those added to his opponent.

THE KEY TO THE WHOLE SITUATION.

Port Arthur, indeed, Captain Mahan believes, has been, and still remains, the key to the whole situation.

Port Arthur has meant, and still means, delay, the great need of all defense, but especially of that particular defensive which requires time to organize resources incontestably superior. Whether it avails finally has yet to be shown in the result, but in the process its influence is steadily visible, with a clearness to which even success can scarcely add demonstration. It imposed upon the Japanese at once two objectives,—two points of the utmost importance, between which they must choose,—whether to concentrate upon one or divide between the two ; and at a moment of general numerical inferiority, it retained, in the fortifications of the place, a passive strength, which is always equivalent to a certain number of men,—the number, namely, by which the besiegers must outnumber the besieged. These divergent objects were Port Arthur and the discomfiture of the northern Russian army, necessary to assure the Japanese the control of Korea and the release of Manchuria, the professed motives of the war.

When the war broke out, Russia was caught napping. She was totally unprepared for war ; her vast resources were unorganized and her statesmen and generals profoundly ignorant of their enemy and his strength.

Under these circumstances, two things were necessary to Russia,—delay, in order to gather her resources, and promptitude in repairing the neglects of the past. Herein appears the importance of Port Arthur ; it has obtained delay. The time occupied in the siege has been ample for a government which recognized that the whole Japanese movement turned upon the control of the sea to have dispatched a fleet which by this time could have reached the scene, and very well might have turned the scale, allowing only for the fortune of war. Before this, the aggregate of Russian naval force might have been made very decidedly superior to that of Japan, and the problem of bringing the separated sections into coöperation against a concentrated enemy, though difficult, would be by no means hopeless. Success would have ended the war.

The Japanese, having this danger staring them in the face, have, Captain Mahan thinks, seen it more clearly than many of their critics. As shown by the course of the war, by their action, they have recognized that Port Arthur was the key, not only to the naval war, but to the whole



HOW THE RUSSIANS SEND MESSAGES FROM PORT ARTHUR.

(The carriers of the letters are mostly convicts condemned to long terms of imprisonment. They willingly take the letters, which are written in cipher, and carry them to the Russian camp. Those convicts who bring the letters through in safety are liberated. Very frequently the Chinese fishermen and workmen undertake the dangerous task of carrying the messages. The Japanese outposts keep a very sharp lookout for these messengers, and often have a dog with them. They shoot anybody stealing along the shore, and the most dangerous points have to be passed by the letter-carriers at night.)



THE EAST WINDOW.

PETER THE GREAT: "I made the window to the West, Nicholas, like a good carpenter. When you cut the window to the East, don't be blown away by a blast."

From *Ulk* (Berlin).

campaign, land and sea. They have so far failed to crush Kuropatkin, owing to the lack of sufficiently preponderating numbers. Had Port Arthur been abandoned, the Russians would have been in a much larger numerical inferiority. As it was held, the Japanese were obliged to attack it by fear of the reënforcement of the Russian fleet. It was this fear which made Togo so careful of his battleships. Moreover, the defense of Port Arthur made possible the raids of the Vladivostok fleet, which have badly hampered Japan.

Captain Mahan criticises the Russian naval commanders severely for not adopting a more vigorous attitude and attempting to cripple the Japanese ships, even at the cost of some of their own. The Baltic fleet could certainly have been sent out if it had been ready, and this would have destroyed Japan's chance at sea. Meantime, the issue of the war is doubtful. "Each successful retreat leaves the Russian army still an organized force, still 'in being;' draws it nearer to its resources, and lengthens its enemy's communications."

IS SCANDINAVIA CONCERNED IN THE RUSSO-JAPANESE WAR?

AN editorial summing up of the attitude of the principal European countries toward the war appears in *Nordisk Revy*, the popular magazine of Stockholm. The writer holds that the jealousy of the great powers would prevent any intervention in case Russia should regain the ascendency, although England and the United States are deeply interested commercially in not according to Russia a free hand in the far East "and certainly would like to interfere." Yet England could not, without hopelessly losing her prestige in Asia, desert her ally, Japan, but "would proclaim war against Russia, for which emergency her government is making preparation on land and sea." Then would come the long-expected struggle between these two powers for ascendency in Asia, a struggle which would most assuredly concern European interests, including those of Scandinavia.

HOW DENMARK WOULD BE AFFECTED.

That the Scandinavian countries could not remain unaffected by a Russo-English conflict, which is one of the possible eventualities of the war, seems obvious, and it is therefore reasonable to outline their positions in such an emergency. They would probably issue a declaration of neutrality, in spite of attempts to show how



KING OSCAR OF SWEDEN AND NORWAY.
(A recent portrait.)

many political and commercial advantages they would gain by taking sides with Russia. The writer continues:

The Russian Government has recently presented such hints in one of Denmark's foremost newspapers, as

well as in other places. The cause of this is to be sought in the fact that the neutrality of the Scandinavian countries—so far as it really could be preserved—in any case would be a greater obstacle to Russia than to England. England would have no reason for not respecting Scandinavian neutrality, while Russia would have the advantage of using Denmark as a field from which to hinder the operations of the English fleet in the Baltic. In Danish minds there doubtless still lingers the incident of 1807, when England captured the excellent Danish navy in order to prevent Napoleon, who then was the master of Europe, from making use of it and thus paralyzing her commerce in the Baltic. No one will defend the bombarding of Copenhagen and the seizure of the Danish fleet in time of peace, but this incident is only quoted to show that the chief cause of the English policy then no longer exists, at least so long as Denmark will and can make her neutrality respected by Russia. Only in the event of Denmark entering upon intrigues with Russia could England hold her responsible without too seriously offending the English public sense of justice. For its operations in the Baltic the English navy has no need of Danish or Swedish islands for coaling stations, as it could take possession of the Finnish islands Åland and Hangö, when it pleased, while at the same time a strong movement in Finland in England's interest would follow.

SWEDEN AND NORWAY SURE TO BE INVOLVED.

Russia, the article goes on to say, would, by occupation of the Danish islands, secure the great advantage of being able to cut the communication of the English fleet with its base, and the certainty of ruining Danish commerce would not deter her from such a step, especially if by means of menace or promises of future commercial advantages she could secure the neutrality of Sweden and Norway. A temporary Russian ascendency in the Danish islands, however, would compel England to seek a point of operation for her fleet as near the theater of war as possible, and such a one could only be found on Norwegian or Swedish territory. "In other words, Russia can compel England to violate the Scandinavian neutrality, and at the same time Sweden and Norway would be involved in the conflict." The article goes on to show how, on previous occasions, Russian policy has sought to force Sweden and Norway into a conflict with England.

WHY RUSSIA WOULD WELCOME A WAR WITH ENGLAND.

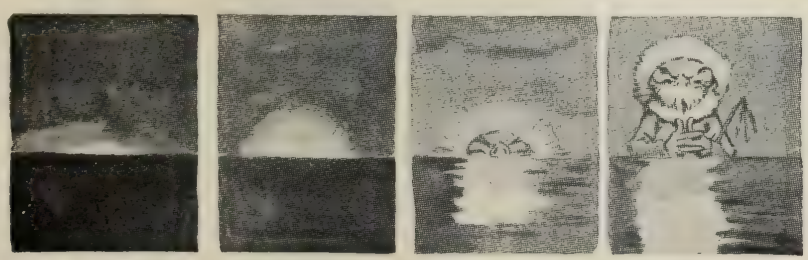
It may seem as if the moment were not well chosen for Russian plans such as hinted at, but history shows exactly how the Russian Government acts when it purposes to secure momentary advantages.

It should not be forgotten that autocratic Russia actually subsists on the half-superstitious respect of the masses for the laws, and that, consequently, a defeat in the war with Japan alone, whose insignificance, poverty, and paganism have been impressed in every possible way upon the Russian masses, would be a fatal blow to their respect, and consequently to the continuance of the autocratic *régime*. A war with England would, on the contrary, awaken the whole chauvinism of Russia, and thus, in spite of still more signal defeats, give the government another term and prolong the present dynasty.

THE DUTY OF SCANDINAVIA.

Against such neighbors as Russia, this magazine article concludes, "it is necessary to be on guard and to keep the doors well shut."

The Scandinavian countries are, as has been shown, by nature so intimately linked together that the breaking open of the door of any one of them exposes the others to the same fate; nevertheless, the defense of these doors is not uniform and solid, though such a defense is absolutely necessary for the safety and liberty of Denmark, Sweden, and Norway against their rapacious and powerful neighbors. A more opportune political moment than the present could hardly occur in which to give this existing solidarity of interest a formal expression by a Scandinavian triple alliance. The ability and the will to defend their own neutrality constitute the only true guarantee for peace, because, independent of other factors, separated, the Scandinavian countries would hardly be able to resist an attack; united, they would not only strengthen their capacity for defense, but also demonstrate their power to make their neutrality respected, and thus, perhaps, render the peace of the world a greater service than can at this moment be realized. An alliance for the establishment of Scandinavian neutrality could without difficulty be made compact and durable, and therefore the present opportune moment should be seized, without regarding any possible threats, while Russia's hands are busily engaged with the struggle in the East.



SUNRISE IN FINLAND—WHICH THREATENS NIGHT TO SCANDINAVIA.
From *Jugend* (Munich).

BISMARCK'S CHIEF DISCIPLE ON THE WAR.

OFFICIAL Germany has sympathized with Russia from the outset of the great conflict. What independent Germans think of the war, its probable result, and its lessons up to date is not sufficiently clear. The Liberals and Social Democrats of the Teutonic Empire are not enamored of Muscovy, for obvious and valid reasons, but their utterances have been guarded. Considerable attention has been attracted by an article entitled "Krieg und Friede" (War and Peace) in the bold and aggressive *Zukunft*, the



IS THE KAISER SECRETLY AIDING RUSSIA?

From the *Amsterdammer* (Amsterdam).

review edited by Bismarck's chief disciple and exponent in periodical literature, Maximilian Haarden. Herr Haarden has had more than one collision with the authorities. He is like his late great master in some respects,—outspoken, vigorous, and courageous. His organ is at once radical and Bismarckian. In the article named, he declares himself to be a firm believer in Russia's ultimate triumph.

Russia, he says, has sustained some severe reverses, but this has surprised no competent student of the military situation immediately before and after the rupture. Kuropatkin has been master of his task, and he has, considering his difficulties and resources, accomplished much that would have been far beyond the powers of an ordinary commander. Only those can criticise him who have no conception of his position. The Russians, continues Haarden, have fought well and gloriously, as is indicated by their lists of killed and wounded and by the admissions of their enemy. The great Russian, as Tolstoy and Dostoievsky testify, does not, by his nature, love fighting for its own sake, but when he has faith in his cause he is a splendid fighter. His defensive capability is exceptional, as Napoleon's experience has taught the world. The war has but begun, and the Japanese, "having failed to force a single general battle," will eventually share the fate of Napoleon. Haarden proceeds:

> The rulers of Russia know all this perfectly, and they are simply amused at the European notion that Japan can defeat the Muscovite Empire. The Japanese have foreseen everything, have calculated everything to the minutest detail, have oiled every little wheel in their military mechanism, and they are waging the war after the most perfect modern method, so that one might almost think that a mathematical genius presides over their general staff. . . . They know all the weak sides of their antagonist; they have taken full advantage of these, and have done things which Napoleon, in his campaign against England, did not succeed in doing. Their army is distinguished for bravery, discipline, and contempt of death, thus refuting the assertion of Emperor William that only a good Christian makes a good soldier. Above all, they have kept their own counsel, and have not betrayed their plans by a word. But, in spite of daily announcements at Tokio of brilliant achievements, one gains the impression that the most judicious of the Japanese are decidedly uneasy amid all this glory. Their tendency to beneficent lying prevents them from acknowledging their painful misgivings. Let but Kuropatkin obtain his three hundred thousand troops,—the number he fixed upon orig-



GERMANY'S SORROW WITH RUSSIA. | JOY WITH JAPAN.

Chancellor von Bülow's idea of strict neutrality.

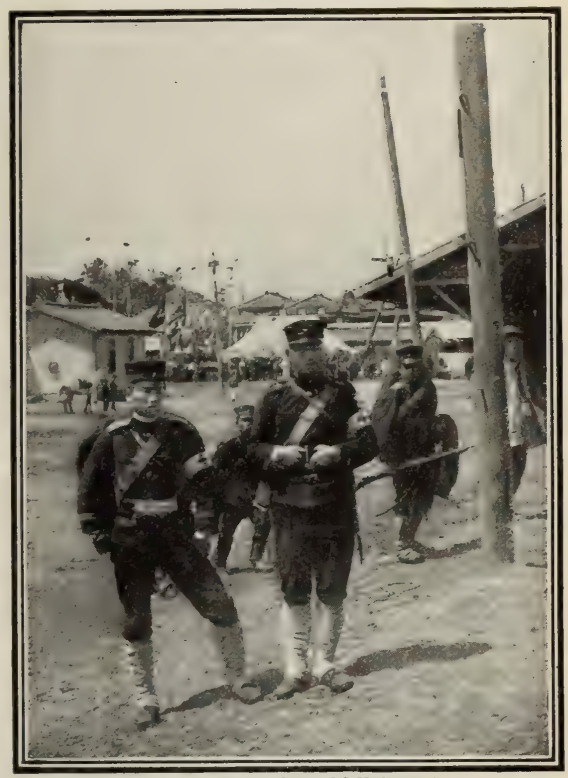
From *Kladderadatsch* (Berlin).

inally.—and the sun of the Japanese, which has hardly risen, will sink again. At the best, they can prolong the war, but Kuropatkin has taken this into account. It may take two years to vindicate Russian prestige, but vindicated it will be. Where, then, is the error of the Japanese, the rift in their lute? It is here,—they have thoroughly grasped the disadvantages of Russia, but they have not paid the least attention to a single one of her sources of strength. In the end, therefore, the admirably prepared enterprise will turn out to have been an heroic piece of folly.

Haarden's opinion is based chiefly on Japanese alleged poverty, on the exhaustion of her resources and credit, and on her inability to replace lost ships, guns, and soldiers.

THE JAPANESE RED CROSS.

IT appears that thirty years ago, at least, the Japanese Government recognized the essential principles of all Red Cross relief work. According to an article contributed to the *Outlook* (New York, September 3) by Mr. George Kennan, an order was issued by Vice-Admiral Saigo to the Japanese surgeons, in 1874, during an expeditionary campaign against the Botangs, one of the savage tribes of the island of Formosa, directing the surgeons not to confine their relief work to the Japanese, but to treat with strict impartiality the sick and wounded of both sides, thus recognizing the Red Cross principle that a wounded and disabled enemy is entitled to protection and relief. This, of course, was long before Japan became a party to the Geneva Convention, and six or seven years before the first Red Cross association was organized in the United States. When the Satsuma rebellion broke out, in 1877, a number of philanthropic Japanese noblemen organized a body known as the "Hakuaisha," or "Extended Relief Association," whose purposes were practically those of our own Red Cross societies. In 1886, the government having become a party to the Geneva Convention, the "Extended Relief Association" changed its name to the "Red Cross Society of Japan," and modified its regulations so as to make them accord with those of the international organization.



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RED CROSS MEN AT SHINEGAWA.

THE SOCIETY'S STRENGTH AND EQUIPMENT.

Mr. Kennan finds that the most remarkable feature of the Japanese society is its extraordinary numerical strength. At the first of the present year, it had no less than 894,760 regular members, each of whom was pledged to contribute not less than three yen ($1.50) annually for a period of ten years. Mr. Kennan estimates that the society has one member to every fifty-two inhabitants, or a member to every seven and one-half families, and that it is in receipt of an annual income of $1,342,000. If the Red Cross of the United States were as strong as this, in proportion to the population of the country, it would have a membership of 1,538,000 and an annual income of $2,307,000. In the central organization of the American Red Cross, at the present time, there are only a few hundred members, and the society has no regular income at all outside of the contributions made by the public for specific purposes.

Mr. Kennan, who is himself an ex-officer of the American organization, thinks that the American society might do much worse than study the methods and follow the example of Japan. In December, 1902, when the Japanese society celebrated its twenty-fifth anniversary, more than one hundred thousand members, from all parts of the empire, assembled in the city of Tokio and took part in the proceedings.

On January 1, 1904, the Japanese Red Cross had ready for immediate work 14 chief surgeons, 277 ordinary surgeons, 45 pharmacists, 1,920 trained nurses, 457 probationary nurses, and 763 stretcher-bearers and male attendants. It had 4 hospital steamers, 398 cases of surgical instruments, 496 stretchers, 52,438 suits of clothing for sick or wounded patients, 27,199 suits of clothing for nurses, and a great quantity of bedding, cots, tents, medicines, and other supplies for field and hospital work.

UNDER MILITARY CONTROL AND DISCIPLINE.

Mr. Kennan points out one notable difference between the American Red Cross and the Red Cross of Japan in the relations that they sustain to their respective governments, and particularly to the departments of war and the navy. The Red Cross in the United States has always been an independent organization, not connected in any direct way with the military establishment, nor subject, in time of war, to the direct control and supervision of the military authorities. In Japan, on the contrary, by virtue of the imperial ordinance of December 2, 1901, the Red Cross, in time of war, becomes virtually a part of the army and navy, and the members of its field force—surgeons, nurses, and attendants—are made subject, not only to military direction, but to military discipline.

Mr. Kennan expresses the opinion that in thus making the Red Cross an auxiliary part of the regular medical and sanitary service of the army and navy, and in subjecting its field workers to military control and discipline, Japan has acted wisely and prudently. Mr. Kennan alludes to the well-known fact that the independent organization of the Red Cross in the United States and the semi-independent operations of its field force in time of war have always given rise to a certain amount of friction, jealousy, and ill-feeling. "The mere presence on the battlefield of an independent body of surgeons and nurses is in itself a sort of reflection upon the competency of the army's medical department, and it is resented, more or less actively, by the regular officers of the medical staff." Mr. Kennan refers particularly to the experiences of the Cuban campaign. He argues that if the relief corps of the Red Cross acted in coöperation with the military authorities, and under the latter's direction, their mutual relations would be greatly improved, and the service rendered by both would probably be more efficient. "Unity of plan and direction are as necessary to success in relief work as they are in military strategy, and the experience of Japan certainly shows that the people of the country will support just as generously and enthusiastically a Red Cross that is under the direction of the military authorities as a Red Cross that tries to take, in the field, an attitude of quasi-independence."

HAS JAPANESE COMPETITION BEEN OVERESTIMATED?

THE industrial aspect of the "yellow peril," the question in how far the inevitable expansion of Japanese commerce and industry in the event of a Japanese victory in the present war would close the "open door" of eastern Asia to the European markets, is discussed in the *Preussische Jahrbücher* (Berlin) by Dr. Max Nitzsche. Pessimists in Germany are pro-Russian in their sympathies because they consider Russia as the protagonist of the white race, while they fear that a Japanese victory would swell the pride and the national ambition of Japan to such a degree that on having attained to paramountcy in eastern Asia she would inscribe upon her banners the pan-Asiatic watchword, "Asia for the Asiatics!" The writer undertakes to reassure these pessimists by pointing out that the economic and industrial conditions in Japan are by no means such as to enable her at once to take the leadership in Asiatic commerce. The peaceful social revolution wrought in Japan within the last half-century, which finds no parallel anywhere in history, still has not enabled her to become a serious competitor of European commerce. In the first place, there is the labor question. Although labor is pitifully cheap in Japan, we find here an illustration of the adage that cheap labor is poor labor.

THE JAPANESE WORKINGMAN.

The difficulties confronting the Japanese manufacturer appear from the following description of the Japanese workingman:

According to the unanimous testimony of unprejudiced observers, three times as many persons are required for the same kind of work in Japan as in England. One English spinner, with an assistant, looks after two frames of 800 spindles each, or even a self-actor of 3,000 spindles, while the Japanese (or Chinese) spinner only looks after 200 to 300 spindles. The English spinner loses 5.8 per cent. of his time in knotting the broken threads, while the Japanese loses 25 per cent. In consequence, the English spindles run twice as fast as the Japanese spindles. It is the same in weaving. In Massachusetts, one girl attends to six looms; in Lan-

cashire, to four; but in Japan, only to one. This slowness appears not only in machine work, but also in ordinary earth works, in building, mining, etc. The average Japanese hates continuous, hard work; he does not care how long his hours are, if he can work leisurely. Every few minutes he stops, to sing, chat, smoke, or sip tea. If the work-giver tries to stop such dilly-dallying by punishments, he loses his working force without finding a better one. This æsthetic race actually despises machinery on account of its regularity and precision, and because it destroys all artistic individuality. The workman will always prefer the less expeditious hand work, if he can. An immense amount of material, moreover, is lost through the carelessness of the workers, and much is ruined by their awkwardness, but the Japanese, with his sunny, childlike disposition, does not care in the least; on the contrary, he laughs over these mishaps. He lacks all feeling of responsibility.

The manufacturers have to cope with the further disadvantage of being unable to get a steady, well-drilled force of workers, as the Japanese are naturally too restless to remain in one place for any length of time. In the cotton mills, for example, only 25 per cent. remain longer than two years, and it is estimated that 10 per cent. of the mill girls leave the mills every month, so that the manufacturer is confronted with a new force every ten months.

JAPANESE COMPETITION WITH FOREIGN MANUFACTURES.

Nevertheless, Japanese industry is rapidly developing, and herein the writer sees the greatest safeguard against the "yellow peril." For the increasing demand for labor at home will act as a check to the undesirable emigration of the Japanese workers to European countries. And in proportion as Japan is changing from an agricultural to an industrial state its exports will counterbalance its imports. Its exports of modern factory work now exceed those of the old-time arts and crafts work, the latter going almost exclusively to Europe, while the former go to the Asiatic markets, where they enter into sharp competition with the European goods, on account of their cheapness, and in spite of their poor quality. It may be said in general that the Japanese manufacturers fail in regard to fine, expensive products which call for complicated workmanship. This applies especially to the iron and steel industry, in which the imports are steadily increasing. Germany has captured a large part of this trade, sending over, especially, machinery of every description. This is of German make and also of American importation.

In addition to the difficulties mentioned above, the writer enumerates others with which Japanese industry will have to contend for a considerable time to come, and which will prevent it from entering into formidable competition with the Western nations. One of these is the lack of economic concentration, as shown in the numberless small establishments with a very limited capital. In 1901, for example, only 78 banks out of 1,316 had a capital of over one million yen, while 376 banks had less than thirty thousand yen! The lack of capital within the last decade is severely felt, resulting in an abnormally high rate of interest. The bank rate is from 4 to 7.5 per cent. for deposits, 9 to 14.5 per cent. for loans, and 1.8 to 5.2 sen a hundred yen for call money. This lack of capital is due to the disinclination of the Japanese to go to the foreign money markets. In 1903, barely 200,000,000 yen of the national debt of 559,610,000 yen were in foreign hands.

The writer sums up his conclusions by saying: "If we take into consideration all these imperfections and shortcomings in the economic organization of New Japan,—the incompetent working force, the unsatisfactory monetary conditions, and the generally backward state of industry,—we really have no cause to fear the bogy of the 'yellow peril.'"

KOREAN CHARACTERISTICS.

IN considering the plans the Japanese Government may have for the future industrial development of Korea, Dr. Homer B. Hulbert, editor of the *Korea Review* (Seoul), declares that for the past century, or more, the Korean people seem to have been "absolutely blind to their opportunities; and, so far from leaping to the opportunity, they have had to be coaxed and wheedled into accepting even the cream of that opportunity." Industrial, economic, and general commercial conditions in Japan, China, and even the United States, the writer continues, should have furnished Korea, in view of her natural resources, with splendid opportunities for profit and advancement. But, "instead of this, we see the Koreans universally howling because the export of rice and beans has raised the price of foodstuffs at home." If the mind of the Korean could be broadened to grasp "something more than his immediate environment, he would equal the Japanese in every line, excepting, perhaps, that of art." As it is, Dr. Hulbert seems to think the Korean's mental equipment somewhat contemptible. He says, further:

He knows nothing about the interrelationship of supply and demand. He sees no connection between Japanese industrial enterprise and Korean agricultural produce. He sees and knows nothing beyond the hills that bound his vision. He has no faith in any man. He distrusts any medium of exchange that does not represent in itself intrinsic value. Within the limited range of his observation, he is ready and quick to take advantage of enlarged opportunity, and he is a keen judge of relative values. His whole training goes to prove that combinations of capital are, as a rule, but traps to catch his money and finally leave him in the lurch. The investment of capital is so precarious that there is no inducement in it unless, as in a lottery, a man has a chance to double his money in a year's time. The trouble lies, not in lack of energy, nor in innate laziness, but in crass ignorance, and in suspicion bred of long centuries of indirection.

Korea has had an autonomous government for three thousand years, and has supplied Japan with many of her most cherished ideals. But this, he believes, will not prevent the Japanese from occupying the land and, while in name respecting the territorial integrity of the country, making of it a virtual protectorate. As to the immediate future, Dr. Hulbert says :

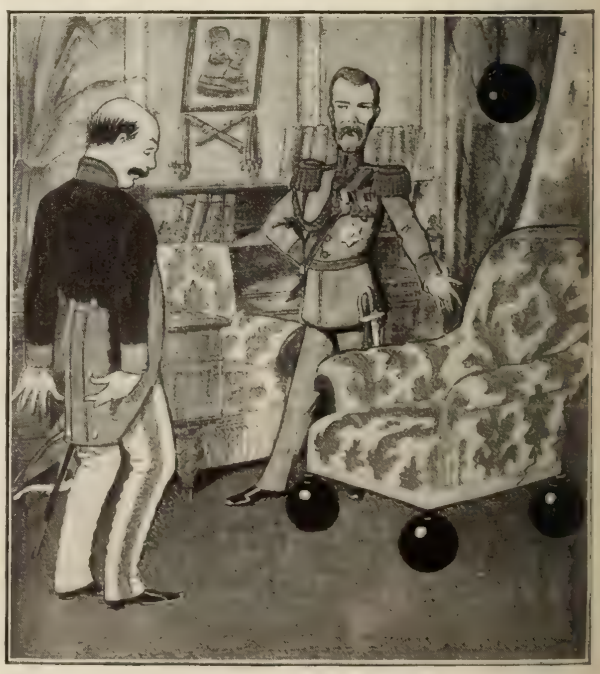
There should be a campaign of education, not only among the Koreans of the common class, but among the Japanese of the same class as well. If the Koreans must be taught that peaceful enterprise of the Japanese in Korea cannot hurt them, the Japanese must also be taught that the Koreans have exactly as good a right to personal protection and immunity from petty assault as the Japanese themselves, and there are some who think the lower ranks of the Japanese will take a lot of teaching along this line.

VON PLEHVE'S SUCCESSOR: A CHANGE OF POLICY?

THE appointment, after considerable delay and hesitation, of Prince Peter Sviatopolk-Mirsky as minister of the interior, to succeed the late von Plehve, is considered in Russia, as well as abroad, in circles familiar with the political currents and tendencies in the great Slav Empire, as a concession to the liberal sentiment and to the policies represented by de Witte. As there is no public opinion in Russia in the Western sense of the phrase, and as the expressions and estimates of the press are not necessarily indicative of fact, time alone can determine the correctness or baselessness of the prevailing impression. It is certain, however, that Sviatopolk-Mirsky is not identified with the political ideas or the elements of which the late minister was the most resolute and uncompromising champion.

Sviatopolk-Mirsky's training was not materially different from that of his predecessor. He was chief of the gendarmerie and assistant minister of the interior under Sipiaguine. He has been governor-general of certain provinces. He is known to entertain "moderate" opinions, and his record as an administrator is respectable, but not brilliant. He is not, as von Plehve was, a "strong man," and by nature he inclines toward conciliation rather than toward bold and aggressive measures. But to conclude that his appointment spells a pronounced change of internal policy is premature.

M. von Plehve stood for these things primarily : Rigid restriction of the activities and functions of the local or provincial bodies,—the zemstvos; discouragement of all direct or indirect agitation for the extension of the representative principle and the introduction of Western constitutional and parliamentary institutions ; firm control of the press ; unification, or Russification, of the empire, and the stern suppression of "particularist" movements ; vigorous treatment of the Polish and Jewish questions, which meant the continued application of special laws



VON PLEHVE'S SUCCESSOR.

THE CZAR: "Please sit down."

From *Neue Glühlichter* (Stuttgart).

and restrictive measures ; and, finally, relentless persecution of the disaffected revolutionary elements.

A favorable view (which yet contains significant admissions) of von Plehve's policy was presented in the St. Petersburg *Novoye Vremya* by one of the late minister-administrator's intimate friends, E. Bogdanovitch. Recognizing that von Plehve's connection with the "Third Section," or the "political" police, had inevitably shaped his methods and affected his judgment, the writer says :

In no sense an opponent of natural evolution tending toward the extension of social coöperation in government, V. R. von Plehve was a convinced adherent of the view that the sphere of social activity should be confined, in the first place, to the proper ordering of local and administrative affairs. He attached great importance to the participation of local representatives in this kind of work. It is sufficient to point to the part assigned to such local representatives in the readjustment of the status of the peasantry, and to the creation, in conjunction with the department of local economic affairs, of a higher council composed in part of local men. Von Plehve considered his chief duty as minister to be the safeguarding of our governmental order from the assaults of its foes, as well as the elevation of the standard of life of the masses.

On the other hand, the extreme, revolutionary view of von Plehve's career is set forth in a proclamation of the Central Committee of Revolutionary Socialists published in the *Osvobojhenie*, the Stuttgart organ of the Russian Constitutionalists. In this document, the assassination of the minister is described as an extra-legal act of justice, and an indictment of five distinct counts is presented against him. He is accused of having adopted measures of unheard-of repression, not only against physical-force reformers, but against peasants and workmen whom autocracy had driven into unintelligent revolt, and against all liberal and advanced thinkers of the country ; of having fanned and inflamed the prejudices of the ignorant populace against other races inhabiting Russia, and of having instigated the anti-Jewish disorders ; of having tried to establish an international police system in the interest of Russian absolutism and depriving Russian exiles of the right of asylum in Europe ; and, finally, of having used his quasi-dictatorial powers to bring about the war with Japan.

The non-revolutionary reformers share, in all essentials, this view of von Plehve's policies. It is interesting to find even Prince Mestchersky, the leader of the aristocratic reactionaries in the press, warning von Plehve's successor against certain of the late administrator's errors of strategy and tactics. In his organ, the *Grazhdanin*, the prince-editor declares that von Plehve deliberately concealed or withheld many facts of consequence from the Czar. He says :

I recall a question which I once put to the late minister :

"Do you tell the whole truth to the Czar, or do you exercise some selection ?",

"No," said the minister, "I do not tell the whole truth, because, if I were to do so, I might excite doubts in the Czar's mind as to the fruitfulness of my policy."

How much there is in this answer of the practical philosophy of self-preservation in an official sense ! And yet, when one reflects upon its real meaning one is appalled at the thought of the amount of mischief conceivably caused by the constant application of this principle of official self-interest, of the influence of fear of personal unpleasantness.

Prince Mestchersky further intimates that von Plehve was a man of dark and mysterious ways, a man who always suspected plots and opposition, and who was "diplomatic" rather than straightforward even with his associates and subordinates. The plan of mapping out a definite, simple, intelligible course and following it frankly and openly was foreign to his nature. He depended on his intuitions and impressions, and exhibited an impatience and instability which might have seemed incompatible with his apparent coldness and formalism. Prince Mestchersky advises the new minister to put away all small arts, to speak and act plainly, and to be statesman-like rather than "diplomatic." Less influential editors add, very cautiously and more between than in the lines, that the new minister ought to be more liberal and progressive as well. They speak of the critical character of the internal situation, and hope that Prince Sviatopolk-Mirsky may do much to relieve it. The by no means advanced *Novoye Vremya* says, editorially :

We are now passing through an historical crisis which may influence the destiny of the Russian Empire. As the military situation in the far East becomes more and more complicated, an opportunity is offered to our enemies at home, who are always quick to take advantage of any difficulties or reverses experienced by the Russian national government. Therefore, we must show hearty coöperation in the hour of trial, repel our enemies abroad, and disarm the discontented elements at home. In order to accomplish the latter task, we must retain all the good—especially the zemstvo—institutions, which can only develop if allowed to work independently.

An Italian View of Plehve's Assassination.

In commenting on the assassination of von Plehve in *Italia Moderna* (Rome), Antonio Monzelli contrasts the profound impression of horror, of execration, even of surprise, which was made upon the world by the fate of republican presidents like Carnot and McKinley, and of mon-

archs like Humbert, and Elizabeth of Austria, with the comments of the press on this last act of assassination. The press of the different countries, he says, which reflects the public mind much more clearly than is sometimes thought, "plainly indicates the different impressions produced by the assassination of presidents and constitutional monarchs, innocent of wrong-doing, and by the fate of a minister like Plehve. The press of Great Britain, and also that of countries where the press has less liberty and feels the constraint of political relations, as in Austria, Germany, and France, while condemning the assassination, has been unable to refrain from deploring the course taken by Plehve during the last period of his political life." This writer quotes from the *European*, which is published in Paris under the editorial direction of such eminent men as Björnson, Novicow, Salmeron, and Seignobos.

The reign of terror has closed in terror and blood. The victims of Rostoff, of Zlatoust, of Kieff, of Kishineff; the sufferings of Armenia and of Poland; the wrongs of all the great and noble of the country, have been avenged,—Plehve has been killed by a bomb hurled by a member of a hostile organization. The joy of all those who understand general public opinion is unbounded. Since the fall of Dmitry Tolstoy, in the reign of Alexander III., the first sigh of relief has at length been heaved on learning that Plehve has been made away with.

In the modern world, he concludes, a despotic government has become an anachronism.

It has been declared contrary to the very nature of humanity. The physical and moral organism of man shrinks from it with abhorrence, and feels it quite incompatible with that constant elevation of the individual which is the glory of our age. The tranquillity, the economic and political progress, of Russia, her national greatness and the stability of the Romanoff dynasty, must pass away unless a liberal *régime* be soon inaugurated in the realm of the Czar.

HAS RUSSIA BEEN THE VICTIM OF ANGLO-SAXON IMPERIALISM?

THE hopelessness and gloom reflected from the pages of the Russian reviews become more intense as the war drags on. Even the jingo feuilletonists cannot remain oblivious of the dangers threatening Russia at home and abroad. This is illustrated by an article by Prince Menschikov in a recent number of *Novoye Vremya*, the well-known journal of St. Petersburg. Having been compelled to fight, he says:

I am convinced that there is no other way for us to achieve peace than by vigorously repelling our enemies. A successful defense on our part would bring the assurance of peace for half a century, as was the case in Germany after the Franco-Prussian War, but should we fail, there will be no limit to the demands of our emboldened enemies. Whoever shall desire it will join in the spoliation of Russia, just as the Dutch, the Portuguese, the French, and the English once despoiled India, and as all Europe despoiled Turkey and is now despoiling China. To yield to Japan now would mean the renunciation of our imperial and national existence. But the people will hardly consent to such suicide. Our generation has scarcely any right to decide this question for Russia, for Russia belongs, not only to the present, but also to the past and the future. . . . Let us be strong, then. Let us be thoroughly armed, let us be noble; let us not be deterred by hard work, by the sacrifice of treasure, by the sacrifice of life itself, to uphold Russia.



THE GOOD AND BAD FAIRIES AT THE CHRISTENING OF THE RUSSIAN HEIR.
From *Der Floh* (Vienna).

Russia's defeat, he continues, would be the signal for "great, unending misfortune." She would be overwhelmed on all sides.

We shall be wiped off the face of the earth. . . . The dangers threatening Russia are growing to vast proportions, and we cannot but see them and recognize them. It is high time for the nation to realize that the danger is near to us. Professor Mendeleyev predicts that after this war there will come other wars as a natural sequence. We have a comparative abundance of land, our neighbors have a shortage of it, and under such conditions wars break out in obedience to the laws of atmospheric pressure. Japan is the most densely populated, hence she was the first to begin war. Germany, China, the United States, England,—they are our environment, exerting their forces with terrible swiftness.

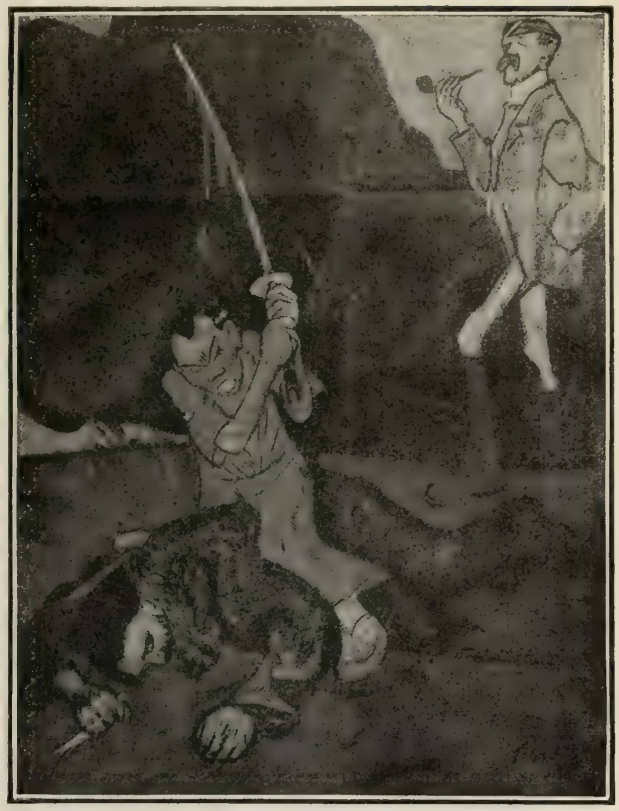
Russia must seek safety in armed resistance, declares this writer. Her powers of resistance gave way at their weakest point,—in the far East—hence "we must strive, with all our might, to hold back the catastrophe, lest it become general."

Back of Japan there stands with insolently bared teeth the most greedy race in the world—the Anglo-Saxon. England is already covertly waging against us a war that may at any moment break into open flame. She is already dispatching armed fleets to close our channels by force. On land, in Central Asia, England is already approaching our boundaries. Without an open declaration of war (this knightly custom seems to have been abolished), England is conquering Tibet, the buffer state that separated us from India. The partition of China is inevitable. There is no room for doubt that there is approaching the division of Asia and of the entire world among the peoples who are striving to survive, who are watching eagerly and are making ready to become the masters of the world. . . . England, by acquiring Tibet, will hold the key to India; and by conquering Kukunon, Alushan, and Mongolia, will exercise a direct influence over Trans-Baikal, Turkestan, and Manchuria, and will also become the master of the Celestial Empire. Germany and the United States will be given other portions of China; France will thank Providence if Indo-China is left in her possession. Gaining control of almost half of mankind, England will have in China and India unlimited material for her armies, and who is then to check her mastery of the world?

RUSSIA MUST WATCH ENGLAND AND AMERICA.

Strange as are the above utterances of one of the leading feuilletonists of the *Novoye Vremya*, the most influential newspaper in Russia, read by the court and the Czar himself, they are exceeded by his strictures on what he terms "The New England." Owing to the "incorrigible political optimism" of the Russians, says he,

We failed to observe the appearance of a new world hostile to us. Quite unexpectedly, our friend and well-wisher, whom we had saved from great misfortunes and whose good-will we have tried to gain by gifts, the United States, has turned out to be a second England and our universal enemy. How did that happen? It happened simply as anything else in nature happens. We were constantly lagging behind, while America was constantly marching onward. We have become weak, the Americans have become strong. We have become poor, they have become rich. Well, the favorites of fortune are no fit companions for the unfortunate. Like the weakling in the herd, the nation weakened in the family of its neighbors evokes instincts of greed. Weakness is naturally the prey of power. This is a law, not only in politics, but also in nature. Our only inexcusable sin in the eyes of our neighbors is that we do not know how to be strong, and the giant nations who have arisen within the last century are already beginning to push Russia with elbow or foot. There, beyond the two oceans, is maturing, or already mature for us, a new England just as hostile and fully as bitter against us as the old England, and it is now our turn to be struck by her. . . . Europe was crowded out of America by the Dingley tariff; the Columbian epoch has ended. The European nations have almost mechanically turned their attention to Asia. Only seven years ago, the partition of Asia was decided, clandestinely, but irrevocably. And do you know in what country there was first noted this new phase of history? In this self-same America.



ENGLISH POLITICS.

"If only I could be sure that the rascal would not get up again, I would also give him a kick."

From *Simplicissimus* (Berlin).

THE BUGBEAR OF AMERICAN IMPERIALISM.

Perceiving that nowhere else but in Asia, the greatest of continents and the cradle of mankind, a partition of land was to take place.

America, he goes on, has at one bound approached the scene of partition. In April, 1898, America attacked Spain, and in two months was already firmly established in Cuba, but a step or two from Panama, the front gate to the Pacific Ocean. On the 12th of August, a preliminary agreement was made in Washington, and in December peace was concluded and the treaty signed in Paris. Less than six years have passed since then, and the world is divided into two combinations. America, England, and Japan are under the flag of the "open door" and are seizing trade supremacy from the hands of the old Continental powers. It was for this reason, he insists, that war broke out in the far East. The predictions of the American press have been realized, he continues.

Had the European representatives in Washington paid attention to the *vox populi*, the press, they would have understood in time the direction that history was taking. They would have understood why, in the peace commission at Paris, Secretary of State Hay placed the knife at the throat of the Spanish representative, until he at last grabbed from Spain, for the sum of twenty million dollars, the Philippine archipelago, that magnificent outpost of China. America's maneuver was so clear to many that in March of last year, at a dinner given by our consul-general in New York, the following prediction was made: "For the service which our diplomacy has just rendered to America in the Venezuelan conflict we shall in less than a year have to pay, in the far East, a milliard of rubles and a stream of Russian blood. . . . This war, as was perceived by many, was prepared in America. In 1904, a Presidential election is to take place. The candidates for the office of President were picked in March. The Republican party and Roosevelt found it necessary to warn the people early in February of the dangerous *rôle* of Russia. Japan would have to engage her in a deadly conflict. At the time when Russia will begin to transport to the East hundreds of thousands of her sons to death and the terrible work of destruction, we shall arrange for you a magnificent festival of peaceful industry at St. Louis, and later, on the arch of chaos and death, our diplomacy will open before you the widest field for the display of your energy.

WAS THE UNITED STATES BEHIND JAPAN?

At the time when, according to Count von Bülow, all Europe was surprised at the sudden outbreak of war, the inevitable rupture was known in America—even a few days beforehand, continues this writer. The American merchants in China, he has been informed, stopped their consignments to Port Arthur as early as the 31st of January. On the eve of the Japanese attack, on February 6–7, a cablegram was received in New York from Tokio announcing the proposed attack, yet this message of Reuter's Agency was not communicated to Russia.



AN ITALIAN VIEW OF THE RED SEA SEIZURES.
From *Fischietto* (Turin).

If the outbreak of war was useful to President Roosevelt in March, it will be even more useful to him at the time of the elections, in November. Just at that time, with the arrival of the Baltic fleet in the East, we should expect the appearance from behind the Japanese screens of the chief actors in this drama. The shakier the chances of the Republican party, the greater the likelihood of an external conflict before the elections, and the more secure the candidacy of Roosevelt, the greater the probability of conflict after the elections. He is a warm partisan of the fashionable and attractive policy of imperialism. He gave Panama to America. He gave an outlet to the illimitable national greed accumulated through a whole century. Roosevelt is the candidate of that mighty oligarchy which has long ruled America. They are the owners of the trusts, the kings of industry, the renowned circle of four hundred. Possessing a capital of thirty milliards, they have a net annual income of three milliards, greater than that of any great power. The entire policy of America is in their hands. They are the owners of most of the newspapers and periodicals, they are the inspiration of public opinion, bitter enemies of Europe in all the world-markets. But Russia is their particular enemy in the grain markets and in the far East. To remove Russia from Europe and from China is the secret password of the Americans. "The Pacific Ocean must become an American lake." This dream, grand almost to absurdity, is spoken of publicly. America and England are represented here as the two wings of a universal power. Great forces are at work in the two countries to effect the union of all Anglo-Saxons into a single political entity. And why should this be impossible where the same language, culture, faith, and institutions exist? In anticipation of this gigantic union, America and England have inaugurated a war, as yet hidden, with

the weakest of the naval powers, but the most dangerous for them on the Continent. Foolish Japan was sent out as a fireship; when all her forces shall be exhausted, other fleets and other armies will take their place, and the power of Russia will be crushed.

WHY THE UNITED STATES IS SAID TO BE ANTI-RUSSIAN.

Why is all this? What has Russia done to England and America? These, says M. Menschikov, are naïve questions. Russia occupies one-sixth of the earth's territory,—that is her crime. Russia is growing fast,—that is her sin. "Russia had the audacity to come in defense of China." All this the Anglo-Saxons could not bear.

Russia is too deeply involved in Asia, more deeply than any other power; and she alone is in the way of the grand plan for the conquest of that continent. Russia must be driven out from eastern Siberia and be thrown back from the Pacific Ocean. With the defeat of Russia, China will become the prey of England and America, like India and the Philippines. Having secured possession of the yellow race, having organized it for military purposes, the Anglo-Saxon will easily conquer the kremlin of mankind—Europe. You may think that this is a nightmare, yet it is already being realized, and is being played according to scale. The whole new world is already in the possession of the Anglo-Saxons. South America is merely a tail wagging at the pleasure of North America. Australia and Africa are in the hands of England, and the best part of Asia is likewise in her hands. How much is there left? Two more posts to be taken—China and Russia—and what then could Europe do when surrounded on all sides, plundered and impoverished.

If Russia really wishes to remain a power of the first rank, an independent and mighty race, he concludes, she must keep a sharp watch.

SOME RESULTS OF FRANCE'S STRUGGLE WITH THE ROMAN CHURCH.

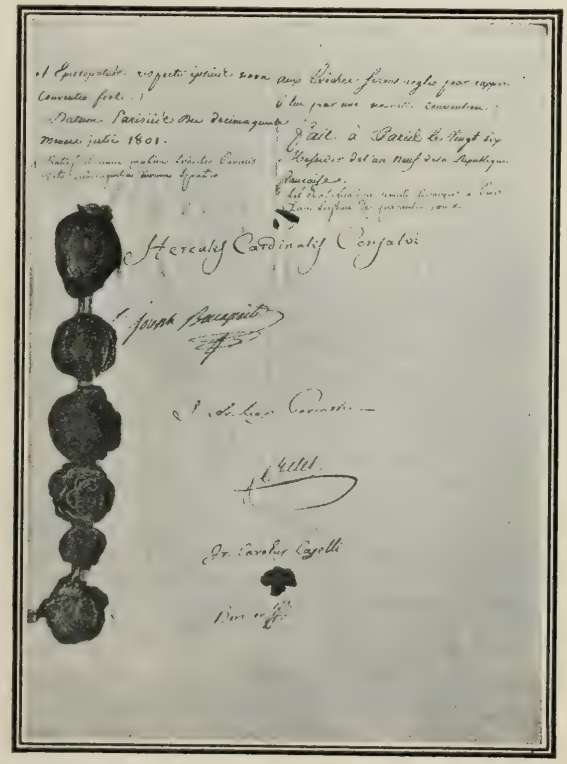
AN anonymous writer in the *Nuova Antologia* (Rome), who claims to speak with more or less authority, in treating of the present rupture between the French Government and the Vatican, remarks that, in spite of the formula of Cavour—"a free church in a free state"—there must always be conflicts between the ecclesiastical and civil authorities so long as Church and State are not made absolutely separate and distinct. The great stumbling-block in the relationship between the French Government and the Vatican, he goes on to say, has been the Concordat of Napoleon I., which seemed to be based upon mutual concessions and the establishment of mutual right. The Concordat secured, nominally, the liberty of the Catholic Church in France. The civil government reserved to itself the right of nominating archbishops and bishops. But the institution in high ecclesiastical offices is lodged in the Papal authority. The bishops are expected to take an oath of obedience and loyalty to the government. They are functionaries of the State as



PIERRE MARIE WALDECK-ROUSSEAU.

(Died August 10.)

The late French statesman, who, when premier, brought in and fathered the famous law against the religious congregations.



THE SIGNATURES TO THE FAMOUS CONCORDAT MADE BY NAPOLEON WITH THE VATICAN IN 1804.



THE CHARTREUSE FATHERS LEAVING THEIR MONASTERIES AFTER THE ORDER OF EXPULSION, IN APRIL, 1902.

well as of the Church, and even French cardinals receive their instructions from the ministry in Paris before joining the conclave at Rome, and cannot even leave their own diocese for the purpose of visiting Rome without the consent of the government. This is all provided for in the Napoleonic Concordat, and such difficulties as have occurred in the cases of the Bishops of Laval and Dijon, both of whom are under the censure of the Vatican, while they are supported by the French Government, "can only be put a stop to by the repudiation of the Concordat of 1801, which repudiation would be strongly opposed by many high ecclesiastical functionaries in France, notably by Cardinal Mathieu."

Even the government of France finds in the Concordat a weapon by which to oppose the political agitation in which Church functionaries are often tempted to engage. . . . The separation which logic and reason seem to demand between Church and State, not only in France, but in all other countries, Protestant as well as Catholic, is the word of the future; because faith and politics are, in the modern world, two extreme poles, which, if they are not actually irreconcilable, are nevertheless entirely independent.

As to the Temporal Power.

The Paris *Figaro* quotes Cardinal Merry del Val as saying, in regard to the temporal power:

By the way, let me tell you that we do not like that term. The general public should clearly understand that the Holy See demands only that material independence which is indispensable to the maintenance of its moral independence. It needs certain facilities for its intercourse with the 400,000,000 Catholics scattered over the earth. The term "temporal power" does not express that independence and those facilities. Temporal power implies administration in general, comprising that of justice, finances, police, and numerous things which may be dispensed with by the Holy See. But it cannot dispense with its material independence. That is a fact which must be made known.

French Civilization and the Monks.

An analysis of the influence of monasticism on French civilization, by Joseph Ageorges, appears in the *Revue Générale* (Brussels). It is impossible for modern historians, even of the most biased sectarian views, he writes, to deny the importance of the *rôle* played by the religious orders in French civilization. It has been a wonderfully significant *rôle*. In the Middle Ages, the monks were the mainstay of agriculture and industry, and the hope of learning. Their abodes formed centers of agriculture and of industry which soon became new centers of population. Their farms and industrial establishments were always the schools for training the peasantry in thrift, patience, and good morals. Moreover, the monks were architects, artists, general scientists, economic leaders.

They were the first to organize public benevolence. And all this in addition to the religious instruction which was their main task.

The French Congregations in Belgium.

A writer in the *Revue Bleue*, M. Dumont-Wilden, sees a grave problem for Belgium in the invasion of that country by the French religious orders since their expulsion from France. In the year 1900, before the exodus from France began, the number of convents and monasteries in Belgium was 2,221, with 37,684 monks and nuns. Statistics since the invasion from France have not yet been published, but M. Dumont-Wilden believes that they will show an alarming increase. Belgium, he reminds us, already has a religious problem more or less acute in the fact that its population is about evenly divided between Catholics and Protestants. The invasion from France will disturb the balance. He has noted this influence in the last parliamentary election, in which the Liberal party lost an unusually large number of seats. In conclusion, he declares that, whatever may be the origin of her civilization, Belgium remains a province of France in the moral sense. "All the social movements, all the French maladies, have their reciprocal influence in Belgium, and, despite events of the hour, the Belgian Liberals can see, in the present anti-clerical current which is now sweeping over the republic, a happy sign of a near victory for their party."

MARCHAND AND KITCHENER AT FASHODA.

THE official report of the Marchand mission to central and northern Africa, in 1897–98, is about to be published. Preliminary to its appearance, the *Figaro* (Paris) prints an interview with Colonel Marchand, recounting, in his own words, how the gallant Frenchman met General Kitchener at Fashoda, in August, 1898, and how narrowly war between England and France was averted. The meeting between the two men was dramatic, but fully as dramatic is Colonel Marchand's description. Kitchener announced himself as the Sirdar of the Egyptian army, who had been commissioned to raise the Egyptian flag at Fashoda. Marchand declared himself a major in the French army, awaiting, at Fashoda, orders from his government. Could these conflicting missions be reconciled? The following conversation took place:

"I must plant the flag of his Highness the Khedive of Egypt at Fashoda, major."

"My general, I am ready to hoist it myself on the village."

"On the fort, major."

"I cannot permit that, general, for the flag is already there."

"But what if my instructions prescribed hoisting on the fort the flag of his Highness the Khedive?"

"I should be obliged to resist, general."

"Are you aware, major, that war between England and France might follow from this affair?"

Marchand declares that he bowed at this, but said nothing. General Kitchener also said nothing. He arose.

He was very pale. I arose also. He cast his eye over his numerous flotilla, where his men, who mustered at least two thousand, were huddled together. Then he looked back toward our fort, on the summit of which bayonets could be seen glistening. After this inspection, the general, with a wide movement of his arm over his flotilla, and dropping his hand in the direction of our fort, said, slowly:

"Major, the supremacy——"

"General, military supremacy can only be established by combat."

"You are right, major, and yet I must hoist the flag of the Khedive. You do not want it on the fort?"

"It is impossible, general. Place it over the village."

General Kitchener then, says Major Marchand, recovered his good-humor suddenly, and they both took "a whiskey and soda." A couple of hours, spent in the discussion of French politics, in which the Briton was able to give the Frenchman considerable news about his own country which had transpired since the departure of the expedition, passed pleasantly. Then word came from Paris, and the gallant Marchand, declining Kitchener's offer of transportation down the Nile, continued his lonely journey eastward across the Dark Continent. So far as the principals were concerned, the Fashoda incident was closed. France and England had not broken friendship.



MAJOR MARCHAND.
(French explorer and army officer.)

GERMANY'S RADICAL TAX REFORM.

ONE does not expect the German Government or Emperor William to sympathize with the doctrines of Henry George or any other radical reformer. What will these reformers think of the remarkable experiment instituted by the German Government in its Chinese set tlement or colony, Kiao-Chau? Some comment has been made upon this "new departure," but a fuller account of it is given, curiously enough, in a Russian monthly, the *Vyestnik Evropy*, the leading Liberal review of St. Petersburg, by a writer who signs himself "P. M. Blank."

It is, of course, a notorious fact, he says, that with the growth of cities the value of land constantly rises, so that owners of vacant lots and speculators reap "unearned increments" at the expense of the community as a whole, as well as of the tenants of the buildings that are sooner or later erected. The injustice of this state of affairs is recognized by many municipalities, but it has been found almost impossible to change the system. In its Chinese possession, the imperial government was able to make a fresh start. There were no vested rights to respect, and the military authorities have imposed this rule: Where the value of land increases in consequence of general progress, and not as the result of the owner's effort, a tax equal to 33⅓ per cent. of the unearned increment is levied on the lot in addition to the ordinary tax paid by real estate.

In a report to the Reichstag, this innovation is justified, as follows:

> Thanks to this measure, the administration receives a share of the increased values without smothering private enterprise. If the land values do not rise, the administration gets nothing. When they rise through causes having no connection with the activities of the owners, but related to the general development of the locality due to governmental and social effort, then the government or the community,—and in this case the interests of these are identical,—should obtain its share. We think it is moderate to claim one-third for the administration while leaving two-thirds of the unearned increment to the private owners.

It is impossible to deny this, says the Russian writer, and, as a matter of fact, all the "bourgeois" and conservative parties in the Reichstag approved the measure without reservation. The leader of the extreme Right intimated that the government might well have demanded 50 per cent. of the unearned increment, while Eugen Richter, the confirmed "Manchester" individualist, praised the policy which, as he thought, would to a certain extent interfere with the private exploitation of imperial enterprises that theoretically are undertaken for the benefit of the whole nation. The *Vyestnik Evropy* writer observes that there is a good deal of local autonomy in the German Empire and no little freedom of sociological experimentation.

IRELAND'S INDUSTRIAL RESOURCES.

AN industrial future of bright colors is predicted for Ireland by Seumas MacManus in an article in *Donahoe's Magazine*. The "cottage industries," he believes, will be most beneficial at present. He says:

> I believe the cottage industries, whereat boys and girls would perform their work around the sacred stones of their father's hearth, would bring with them by far the greatest amount of truly happy prosperity. When I look to the great manufacturing centers of England and Scotland, and know, as I do know, the appalling amount of drunkenness, wretchedness, misery, and vice of all kinds in these manufacturing cities, I say in my heart, "May God preserve us from such aggregations of factories, misery, and degradation." And I say, rather than introduce such degradation into our country, I would prefer to see our people remain in abject poverty, since in that poverty they have ever retained an elevation of soul and a gentleness and happiness of heart that is beyond all riches.

Speaking of industrial occupations for Irish girls, Mr. MacManus says:

> Shirt-making is a home industry, to a large extent limited to an area of thirty miles' radius from the city of Derry,—which city is the headquarters of it. Sprigging, or embroidering, of muslins and linens is chiefly a northern industry also, and is practised particularly in the counties of Donegal and Down. It gives the girls of the household much work to do, but at a very poorly paid rate. If a girl sit at it all the day long (in which case it is an occupation trying upon the health and eyesight), she might earn a shilling for a day's work. Some girls do sit at it so, following sprigging as an occupation; but they are few. As a general rule, girls take up their sprigging at intervals of their work, and upon spare evenings, and thus they make use of time that otherwise might be wasted to turn for themselves a few shillings that will help to purchase articles of dress. Lace-making, which, so far, has been introduced in Ireland only to a very limited extent,—in a few places here and there over the island,—is a much more profitable employment than sprigging, but it needs a longer apprenticeship. Irish girls, though, are particularly deft, and I believe that if lace-making were introduced much more widely it would flourish in Ireland. Crocheting has not been widely introduced. Knitting, which all the Irish girls can do, is the worst paid of all the

home occupations. Irish women do their knitting for English houses in competition with English machine shops. The machine work is, of course, not remotely to be compared with the Irish women's hand work, yet, strange to say, they are paid for hand work prices that are not much higher than are given for machine work.

INDUSTRIES THAT SHOW PROGRESS.

He sees much hope in the paper-making industry, which has greatly increased during the past five years, and which is "certain to increase still more in future, as the Irish industrial revival coerces newspaper proprietors as well as private individuals to support home in preference to foreign manufacture." Soap-making has also increased considerably. Of other industries, he says:

It would almost seem that the Irish shoemaker was going to become a man of the past. Shoemaking was at one time a great and flourishing trade in Ireland. That time is gone, and now we find only cobblers where formerly were shoemakers. The importation of the foreign ready-made shoe,—the English shoe, the Scotch shoe, and the American shoe,—and its general adoption by our people, great and small, ruined the country shoemaker. The tailor has been affected in like manner, though not to a like degree.

Ireland has ever been admitted by authorities to be rich in minerals. A couple of hundred years ago, many mines were worked, but in the troublous times these mines were allowed, one by one, to fall into disuse, and were never opened again. Ireland has silver, copper, and lead in abundance, which only need enterprise and capital to bring them to the surface. There is also a fair amount of coal in places scattered all over the island—both stone-coal and wood-coal. Some of it, concludes this writer, is continuously being raised, but it is being worked in too petty and too unenterprising a fashion either to attract the attention of outsiders or to pay sufficiently well those who are engaged in it.

THE WHITE VS. THE BLACK AND THE YELLOW RACES.

LEADERS of Japanese opinion have vigorously asserted that the war with Russia is in no sense "a race war," or a war between different civilizations. A Russian professor, I. A. Sikorsky, undertakes to show "scientifically" that the war has assumed, and inevitably must assume, precisely that character. In an elaborate article in a quarterly, *Voproci Psichologiy* (Questions of Psychology), St. Petersburg, he discusses racial differences with special reference to the present conflict in the far East.

He begins by postulating the fact of the persistence or permanence of the more typical racial characters. What we know of prehistoric man proves this persistence. Not only external differences—the color of the skin and hair, etc.—but also the form and proportions of the skeleton and its various parts, of the white, black, and yellow races have remained what they were in the remotest past. The Egyptian or the Jew of to-day is exactly what he was in the days of which ancient Egyptian tombs have left us a record. Thousands of years have not changed the physical characteristics of the Mongolian, as the bones of the skeleton attest. Even more important is the fact that psychical and moral traits are just as permanent. The modern Jew is like the Jew painted by the biblical prophets. The French psychologist, Ribot, after citing a passage from Julius Cæsar descriptive of the ancient Gaul, exclaims: "Who, in this characterization, will not recognize the modern Frenchman!"

Even, continues Professor Sikorsky, when dissimilar races unite to form a given nation, and intermarriage and mutual assimilation follow, the result is not the production of a mean type, but the development of a type having the respective and marked qualities of both or all of the consolidated races.

Nationality is thus a biological fact. It is as distinctive as race, and each nation does well to assert itself and struggle for its integrity and individuality, as well as for an extension of its power and influence. Of course, the higher the nation, the more legitimate is this struggle for



IS THE YELLOW MAN REALLY INFERIOR?

From *Ulk* (Berlin).

supremacy, a struggle seconded by nature herself. Nature, indeed, aims at improvement. In the human world, she strives to evolve the highest species, mentally and morally. She has relegated the Hun and the Mongol to the rear and given the first place to superior races. Attila once conquered all Europe, but where now are those terrible warriors whom he led? They are very modest inhabitants of a section of Siberia. The once formidable Mongolians have been transformed into very ordinary Tartars. Nature has supplanted them; their physical and psychical traits were found wanting with respect to the needs of advancing civilization.

SUPERIORITY OF THE WHITE RACE.

It is possible, then, to judge quite objectively the respective claims of the races now in possession of the world's arena. Comparative study shows that, by virtue of the biological and psychological laws of development, the white races are destined to dominate the future. The black race is the lowest, especially in an intellectual way. The yellow race is somewhat higher, more gifted, but by no means the equal of the white. The yellow peoples are energetic and persevering, but they have created neither science nor art, and the love of intellectual labor, the passion for culture, and the profound need of knowledge are unknown to them. They are imitative, fanatical, and clever, but they have no creative imagination—no emotional wealth, as it were—and their inferiority is unmistakable. The ideal of the many-sided development of mankind is in charge of the white races, especially in the youngest and most vigorous of them, and in a conflict between such a race and a yellow one nature is with the former, and the sympathy of civilization should be on the same side.

Coming to the Russo-Japanese war, Professor Sikorsky says that Russia's mission in Asia is no empty formula. Undeniably, Russia has spread European culture among the yellow peoples of the far East, and her advance has been gradual, inevitable, dictated by biological necessity. For hundreds of years she has carried on successfully the process of peaceful penetration and assimilation, and she has been doing the work of civilization at large. Japan is of an inferior race, and her triumph would be unnatural,—a triumph of reaction and inferiority. The war is in the deepest sense a racial war, and the Russian represents the cause of the white man against the yellow man.

A PROPOSED SIXTEENTH AMENDMENT.

THE inclusion in the Republican platform of a plank referring to the disfranchisement of citizens in certain Southern States makes pertinent the review and discussion of the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Amendments which are offered by Mr. Charles W. Thomas in the September number of the *North American Review*. Mr. Thomas, who is a Northern Republican and a lawyer, sets forth his reasons for believing that the Fifteenth Amendment to the Constitution, and also the second and third sections of the Fourteenth Amendment, should be abrogated. In their place he would substitute a Sixteenth Amendment, providing that Representatives in Congress shall be apportioned among the several States according to the number of male inhabitants of the age of twenty-one and over, being citizens of the United States, who are permitted by law in the States, respectively, to vote for the choice of electors for President and Vice-President of the United States and for Representatives in Congress.

In order to get clearly before us Mr. Thomas' proposition, it is necessary to revert to the second section of the Fourteenth Amendment as it was framed in reconstruction times and as it stands to-day. That section provides that Representatives shall be apportioned among the several States according to their respective numbers, counting the whole number of persons in each State, excluding Indians not taxed, but that when the right to vote at any election for the choice of electors for President and Vice-President of the United States, Representatives in Congress, the executive and judicial officers of a State or the members of the Legislature thereof, is denied to any of the male inhabitants of such State being twenty-one years of age and citizens of the United States, or in any way abridged, except for participating in rebellion or other crime, the basis of representation therein shall be reduced in the proportion which the number of such males shall bear to the whole number of male citizens twenty-one years of age in such State. The Fifteenth Amendment provides that the right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any State on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude.

As Mr. Thomas points out, the Fifteenth Amendment is virtually a dead letter. It has been found entirely practicable to annul and abrogate

this amendment under the forms of law. Furthermore, there has been no serious attempt to enforce the penalty prescribed by the second section of the Fourteenth Amendment. The States which have legally annulled the Fifteenth Amendment still have representation in the Electoral College and in Congress virtually based upon large numbers of voters who have been disfranchised for other reasons than participation in rebellion or other crime. The position of the Southern States in this matter is, of course, well understood. They have held that the Fifteenth Amendment, if honestly enforced, takes from the intelligent and property-owning people in the South the direction of their local affairs and gives it entirely, or in a great measure, to an ignorant constituency, which is incompetent to manage the affairs of any government. This is the point of view of the great majority of the Southern whites. But Mr. Thomas, although a Northern Republican, also regards the second section of the Fourteenth Amendment as open to just criticism both in substance and in form.

Considering this section and the Fifteenth Amendment together as part of one plan, Mr. Thomas declares that they are based upon the denial or the abridgment of the right to vote, when they ought to have been based upon the granting and the extension of that right; in other words, that they are the very converse of what they should have been. They tacitly assume that all male citizens of the United States are entitled to vote at all elections, and they provide a penalty for any abridgment of that right; whereas they ought to have assumed that the right to vote was one which might, or might not, be given by the States, respectively, and by each State to the extent that it saw fit to prescribe, and the penalty ought to have been made to depend upon the extent to which the several States exercised their power to limit the suffrage of those citizens in national elections, with which alone the national government has just concern; that is to say, the scheme ought to have contemplated an inducement to extend the suffrage instead of providing a penalty for abridging or denying it. Mr. Thomas declares, further, that the plan is a radical departure from the established scheme of our government. The provision of a penalty for abridging the right to vote for State officers is an unwise, punitive provision, enacted, not for any good purpose affecting the whole of the people of the United States, but for the sole purpose of punishing the people of certain States for refusing to surrender their local governments to virtual anarchy. It is an unjust interference by the United States in matters which in nowise concern its government. It is a reversal of the well-established relation which theretofore existed between the State and federal governments.

THE BASIS OF REPRESENTATION.

Mr. Thomas shows, further, that the section is not and cannot be uniform in its operation, and is therefore unjust. The primary basis of representation is the number of inhabitants, but the penalty for denying or abridging the right to vote is based upon the proportion which the number of disfranchised bears, not to the number of the inhabitants, but to the number of male citizens twenty-one years of age. To show that this section cannot have a uniform operation, it is only required to show that the number of male citizens of the age of twenty-one years in any one State does not bear the mathematical relation to the number of its inhabitants that the number of such citizens in any other State bears to the inhabitants of that State. Some of our Western States, for example, have a far larger proportion of males in their population than the New England States have.

Another objection relates to the practicability of enforcing this provision. Suppose, for example, that a State denies to any citizen of the United States the right to vote because he failed to pay a poll-tax. The number of such persons would not in any two years bear the same proportion to those who paid the tax, and what just rule could be devised under which the penalty imposed by this section could be enforced? Every ten years Congress would be called upon, in the discharge of its legislative duty, to fix the representation of the several States in Congress and in the Electoral College for the succeeding ten years. What prior year would it take as a criterion when it came to consider the abridgment or denial of the right to vote based upon non-payment of a poll-tax?

"A WAY OUT" FOR THE SOUTH.

The remedy for this unfortunate condition of the fundamental law, says Mr. Thomas, is to be found in the adoption of a Sixteenth Amendment, containing provisions such as have been indicated. This proposed amendment places the power to regulate the suffrage where it was before the Fifteenth Amendment was adopted. It permits the States, so far as their local elections are concerned, to abridge or deny the right to vote as they see fit, and visits them with no penalty whatever for so doing. It simply provides that their representation in the Electoral College and in Congress shall be as they severally choose to make it by affirmative legislation. The chief reason Mr. Thomas gives for insisting

at this time on the adoption of such an arrangement is that the States which are now discriminated against and deprived of their just representation in the Electoral College and in Congress will sooner or later insist upon the enforcement of the Fourteenth Amendment and the imposition of the penalty therein provided for. The mass of people in the Northern States do not wish to have the federal government interfering in the purely local government of any State. They will not, however, submit forever to the discrimination from which they now suffer; and any remedy which will permit the gradual, orderly, and regular extension of the suffrage in national elections is to be preferred to the enforcement of the penalties now prescribed by the Constitution. The South, in his view, should be willing to accept such a compromise as is suggested by his proposed Sixteenth Amendment.

OUR NEGRO PROBLEM, BY A NEGRO, FOR THE BENEFIT OF FRENCHMEN.

AN extended study of the white and black problem in the United States, from the negro's point of view, appears in two issues of *La Revue* (Paris). The writer, D. E. Tobias, is himself a negro, born in South Carolina. He considers that the negroes have been treated iniquitously by Europeans and their descendants in America, and his article is a plea addressed to the European public for justice to his oppressed race. If the white races of Europe, he says, had only been taught from their infancy that the "colored races form a larger portion of the human family than do the whites, and that, so far from being inferior, they are in reality very superior, especially in their ideas of religion and philosophy, as well as moral excellence, there would never have been any race question in the United States to-day." In discussing with Europeans the cause and the effects of the antagonism which exists between the whites and the blacks, it must be remembered, he continues, that it is the whites, and not the blacks, who provoke the hostility between the races. In England, for instance, it is often said that refined and intelligent white men would never live on equal footing with blacks, and many English pretend that the bad treatment meted out to colored men by the white race is due, in the first place, to the ignorance and the criminality of the American negro. Mr. Tobias seeks to show that the prejudice of color does not really exist between the whites and the blacks in the United States. The question which separates the two races in the South is purely an economic one, but the whites have cleverly managed to convert the economic problem into a psychological one. "Thanks to this subterfuge, they have succeeded in creating an almost universal belief in the existence of a race question in the old slave States."

What the white man "could not win on the field of battle during the Civil War he has tried to realize politically at Washington during the period of 'reconstruction,' and what he could not get at Washington immediately after the emancipation of the slaves he has to a great extent accomplished by legislation." The white man in the South has never made any laws to combat the growth of ignorance among the negroes, but he has introduced into the statute books of all the slave States laws restricting the liberties of the colored race and preventing the development of their intelligence.

FUTURE OF THE AMERICAN NEGRO.

In conclusion, Mr. Tobias prophesies that the two races will mingle, and that the United States will one day be peopled by a new nation in which the African negro will be an important element.

All the race prejudices of to-day will have been got rid of. Physically, the new race will be much stronger, it will be endowed with a higher intelligence and a more sympathetic heart, and it will have a higher and clearer conception of God than the whites of the West have ever had. It will be much less material than the American white of to-day. It will be especially concerned with the things of the mind, and moral excellence will become the dominant factor in the life of this new nation. The new race is also to gain more from the black element than from the white.

Mr. Tobias considers the black race intellectually, morally, and physically superior, and he sees the American race declining physically and intellectually. But before the new nation occupies the United States the black race is to become the ruling nation, and it will conquer the white, not by physical, but by numerical, force. The four millions of slaves emancipated in 1865 have grown to ten or twelve millions of colored people in the United States to-day. The problem of the twentieth century will be the establishing of relations between white and colored men, and in the end the colored races will be triumphant.

THE TARIFF AND THE TRUSTS.

IN the present campaign, there is little disposition on either side to indulge in doctrinaire discussion of the tariff question. Most of the arguments for tariff-reduction are based on the assumption that a certain class of industrial combinations is helped by the present tariff to maintain prices at an artificial level. An argument for tariff-reduction that appeals with as great force to the moderate protectionist as to the ultra free-trader is contained in a paper contributed to the *Political Science Quarterly* (Columbia University) by Prof. John B. Clark. Although a representative economist of the schools, Professor Clark is so far from insisting on theoretical free trade that he practically concedes the beneficial effects of the protective system as that system has developed in the United States. This he does, however, without attacking the validity of the free-trade position as it was originally maintained. That position he characterizes as "static" theory,—a theory which deals with a world free not only from friction and disturbance, but also from those elements of change and progress which are the marked features of actual life. In such a world there would be no inventions or improvements in business organization; population would be stationary; the world's wealth would receive no additions; in manufactures, men would continue to use the same methods and to get the same results. Under such conditions, free trade would be, of course, the only rational policy. This could be defended upon the simple ground on which the division of labor in the case of individuals is defended.

THE STATIC ARGUMENT FOR FREE TRADE PLUS THE DYNAMIC ARGUMENT FOR PROTECTION.

Coming to the question whether a nation like ours, having all climates, from the tropic to the arctic, and all kinds of soils and mineral deposits, can produce, without much waste, all the things that it wants to use, Professor Clark admits that we can make almost everything if we insist upon doing so. But he holds that there are still some things that other countries can make and sell to us on such terms that we can do better by buying them than by producing them ourselves. For example, we can raise tea in the United States, but it pays us better to make something else and barter it off for tea. A day's labor spent in raising cotton to send away in exchange gives us more tea than a day's labor spent in producing it directly. It would be in accordance with the principle of division of labor for us to raise cotton rather than to attempt to raise tea. Professor Clark's argument for protection begins at this point by accepting the whole static argument in favor of free trade and claiming that, in spite of what is thus conceded, protection is justifiable, since in the end it will pay, notwithstanding the wastes that attend it. There would be no gain in a protective tariff if every country had certain special facilities for producing particular things, and if its state in this respect were destined to remain forever unchanged. Under such conditions, the country would grow richer by depending for many things on its neighbors than it could by depending for those things immediately on itself.

The protectionist rests his case on the fact that a nation like ours abounds in undeveloped, and even unknown, resources. In order to test and develop these resources and to try the aptitudes of its people, the country is justified in taxing itself even though at the outset it sustains a loss. As Professor Clark puts it, "If we learn to make things more economically than we could originally make them, if we hit upon cheap sources of motive power and of raw material, and especially if we devise machinery that works rapidly and accurately and greatly multiplies the product of a man's working day, we shall reach a condition in which, instead of a loss incidental to the early years of manufacturing, we shall have an increasing gain that will continue to the end of time." This, as Professor Clark states, is the static argument for free trade and the dynamic argument for protection. The two arguments do not meet and refute each other, but are mutually consistent.

THE PROTECTION OF MONOPOLY.

Taking the case of the American iron and steel industries, and going back to the beginning, Professor Clark shows how it became as natural for Americans to make steel, for which we formerly bartered wheat, as it did to produce the grain itself. Originally, it was necessary to protect the iron and steel industries from competition in order to secure their establishment. Now such protection is apparently unnecessary. Labor in making steel will give us as many tons of it in a year as the same labor would give us if spent in the raising of wheat to be exchanged for foreign steel. The duty on steel no longer acts to save the steel-making industry from destruction, but it is an essential protector of a quasi-monopoly in the industry. It is thus seen that all duties on manufactured products have two distinct functions,—one to protect from foreign competition every producer, whether he is

working independently or in a combination; the other, to protect the trusts in the industry. In short, the relation of the protective tariff to monopoly is stated as follows:

Protecting an industry as such is one thing; it means that Americans shall be enabled to hold possession of their market, provided they charge prices for their goods which yield a fair profit only. Protecting a monopoly in the industry is another thing; it means that foreign competition is to be cut off even when the American producer charges unnatural prices. It means that the trust shall be enabled to sell a portion of its goods abroad at one price and the remainder at home at a much higher price. It means that the trust is to be shielded from all competition except that which may come from audacious rivals at home who are willing to brave the perils of entering the American field provided that the prices which here rule afford profit enough to justify the risk.

Assuming that competition among American producers should be unimpeded if the predictions of the protectionists are realized, and that the tariff itself was designed to create progress in the industrial world, Professor Clark contends that a monopoly fostered by the tariff acts squarely against such progress. From this point of view, the whole force of the argument, based on mechanical invention and the development of the latent aptitudes of our people, now holds as against the monopoly-building part of the tariff.

Prices will be extortionate so long as the trusts are checked only by local rivals and are allowed to club these rivals into submissiveness and then hold the field in security. Keeping the foreigner away by competing fairly with him is what we should desire; but barring him forcibly out, even when prices mount to extravagant levels, helps to fasten on this country the various evils which are included under the ill-omened term "monopoly;" and among the worst of these evils are a weakening of dynamic energy and a reduction of progress.

THE RIGHT TO WORK.

MUCH of the opposition to labor unions seems to be due to the failure to recognize the fact that the individual employee is at a great disadvantage when attempting to make terms with his employer. In the current number of the *Quarterly Journal of Economics* (Harvard University), Prof. John Bascom shows how the combination of labor is an essential step in the organic growth of the community. His argument is that, since capital at the present time is at a great advantage in the ease with which it combines, a like facility of collective movement on the part of labor would restore the equilibrium between the parties in production.



DR. JOHN BASCOM.

UNIONIST VERSUS "SCAB."

In order to make a contract with capital in defense of mutual rights, it is necessary that workingmen should be banded together. Instead of assuming that the right to labor gets expression in the "scab," and the denial of that right in the trade-union, Dr. Bascom holds that the exact reverse is the truth. The union contends to secure a social status, the power to form and enforce suitable contracts as safeguards of labor, thereby putting the rights of labor beyond the caprice of the employer. Employers take on and dismiss the "scab" as suits their own convenience. The "scab," indeed, has no right to labor conceded to him by the manager. He makes and enforces no contract. "Between the 'scab' and the unionist, no rights are to be gained. The unionist held his own job, and had not yielded it. The 'scab' steps in to oust him, under conditions inimical to the entire class of laborers. The cry of the right of labor made in behalf of the 'scab' is a misleading cry, designed to divert attention from the true issue. His own chances of labor are in no way interfered with. If the 'scab' succeeds, he throws some one else out of labor in its entire extent. It is this fact that is the ground of the detestation in which he is held."

GIVE LABOR THE POWER OF CONTRACT.

Dr. Bascom borrows an illustration from everyday business life. Suppose that a contractor, under an agreement to put up a building, should, in the progress of the work, find himself at disagreement with his employer as to the interpretation of certain specifications in the contract. The employer might say: "There is a man ready to take up and complete the work as I wish it to be done; all you have to do is to stand out of the way." But the contractor would reply: "I have put myself to expense, I have declined

other work, and, moreover, I expect to make something out of the job. The difference in the rendering of the contract must be adjusted, and I must proceed." The justice of the contractor's claim would be generally recognized. But why should not the laborer have equal rights in his dealings with the employer? It is Dr. Bascom's contention that, in the case of the laborer, he is robbed of the power to make a contract, and then robbed of his opportunities because he has no contract. "The law, and the administration of the law, and the action of the 'scab' under the law, when they oppose themselves to a fundamental right in a great class, are one and all hostile to democratic society. We can secure no organic completeness in society till every part ministers to every other part in reciprocal advantages. It is on this claim that the rights of labor rest."

Logical Consequences of the Closed Shop.

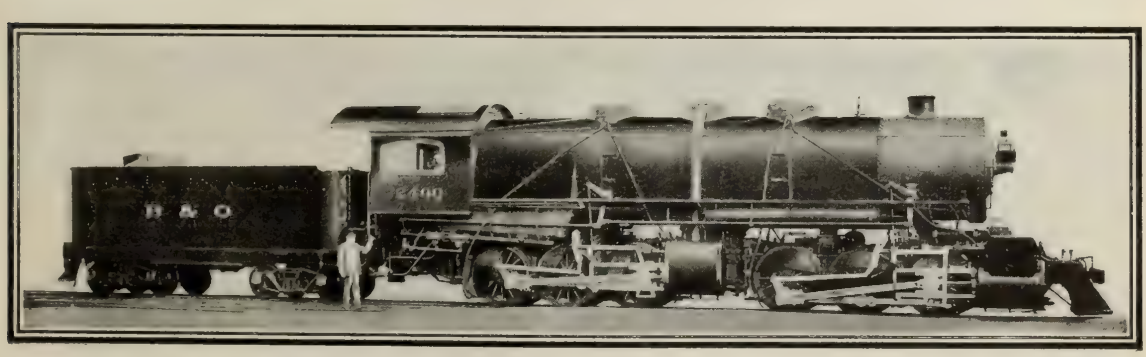
A wholly different point of view is represented in Prof. Charles J. Bullock's contribution to the October *Atlantic*, entitled "The Closed Shop." After considering the general question of labor contracts and the recent court decisions bearing on discrimination in the employment of labor, Professor Bullock reaches the conclusion that if freedom in the disposal of labor is to be denied to the individual workman, the restrictions imposed should be determined by the Government, and not by any other agency.

Such regulations should be just, uniform, and certain; they should not be subject to the possible caprice, selfishness, or special exigencies of a labor organization. Here, as elsewhere, we should apply the principle that when it is necessary to restrict the freedom of labor or capital to enter any industry, the matter becomes the subject of public concern and public regulation. If membership in a labor organization is to be a condition precedent to the right of securing employment, it will be necessary for the Government to control the constitution, policy, and management of such associations as far as may be requisite for the purpose in view. Only upon these terms would the compulsory unionization of industry be conceivable. Of course, before such legislation could be enacted, a change in the organic law of the States and the nation would need to be effected, for we now have numerous constitutional guarantees of the right of property in labor. These guarantees include the right to make lawful contracts, and the individual freedom so ordained can be restricted by the Legislature only when the restraint can be justified as a proper exercise of the police power. Time and effort might be required for securing such constitutional amendments; but our instruments of government provide a lawful and reasonable method of accomplishing this result.

In Professor Bullock's opinion, the demand of the trade-unions for the closed shop would lead to a revolution in our law and our economic policy.

THE MOST POWERFUL LOCOMOTIVE IN THE WORLD.

AT the St. Louis Exposition, during the past summer, the Baltimore & Ohio locomotive designed for mountain service, which is declared by engineers to be, without question, not only the biggest locomotive yet built, but also the most powerful in existence, has attracted much attention. Mr. George W. Martin, writing in the September number of *Cassier's Magazine*, describes this unique American type of locomotive. Heretofore, the world's record in locomotive power has been credited to the enormous tandem compound ten-coupler engines built last year at the Baldwin works for the Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fé Railroad. These engines have a total weight of 128¼ tons (without tender), of which 104½ tons are available for adhesion, the remainder being carried by the leading and trailing carrying-axles. The "Shay"



THE BALTIMORE & OHIO'S GREAT MOUNTAIN-CLIMBING LOCOMOTIVE.

locomotives of the El Paso Rock Island Railway have, it is true, a total weight, all used for adhesion, of 130 tons; but to obtain this, the weight of the tender is included. The new Baltimore & Ohio engine far exceeds either of these, for the engine alone, without tender, weighs 149¼ tons, all of which is utilized for adhesion, as all the wheels are drivers. This engine was built at the Schenectady works of the American Locomotive Company, and was intended for service on the mountain section of the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad, to obviate, as far as possible, the use of "pushing" and "banking" engines for heavy freight trains on the steep gradients.

This engine is also noteworthy as being the first engine in the United States to be compounded on the "Mallet" system. This system, as applied to articulation locomotives, consists, essentially, in the employment of two high-pressure cylinders driving one set of coupled wheels and carried by the main frames, and in the use of two low-pressure cylinders for driving another set of coupled wheels, these cylinders and wheels being mounted in a pivoted bogie frame. In the American engine there are two sets of six-coupled wheels, making twelve driving wheels in all. The engine is, moreover, twice as large as any "Mallet" engine previously built. The high-pressure cylinders have diameters of twenty inches; the low-pressure, of thirty-two inches; stroke, thirty-two inches. The wheels are fifty-six inches in diameter. The boiler pressure is two hundred and thirty-five pounds to the square inch.

THE ELECTRIC INTERURBAN RAILROAD.

IN less than twenty years, the system of urban and interurban electric railroads in the United States has grown from a small beginning until, at the present day, it is a rival, in some respects, of the steam railroads. Mr. Frank T. Carlton, writing in the current number of the *Yale Review*, states some interesting facts in connection with this rapid development. The first commercially successful electric roads were built in 1888, when three important lines were constructed,—one in Richmond, Va.; the second in Allegheny, Pa.; and the third in Washington, D. C. The greatest interurban development has taken place in Massachusetts, New York, Ohio, Indiana, Michigan, and Illinois. Boston, Detroit, Cleveland, Toledo, Indianapolis, and Chicago are large centers of interurban traffic. Detroit is the terminus of about four hundred miles of interurban electric road. The capitalization of these roads is estimated to average forty thousand dollars per mile. In the State of Michigan, in September, 1902, there were twenty-four interurban lines actually in operation, and franchises asked for forty-seven more. In the State of Ohio, in May, 1901, sixty-eight companies were operating eighteen hundred and eighteen miles of electric railroads, or about one-fifth of the mileage of all the steam roads of the State.

LONG-DISTANCE PASSENGER SERVICE.

A passenger may now ride on the electric lines from Cleveland to Detroit. He is required to make only two transfers, one of which is at the Toledo union interurban station. Chicago will soon be linked with Cleveland by a trolley line; and Cleveland, Columbus, Toledo, and Cincinnati will all be connected by the electric road in the near future. The running time between Cleveland and Toledo is six hours; limited trains, stopping only at the larger towns, make the trip in four and one-half hours. A trip from Ann Arbor to Detroit requires about two hours and fifteen minutes; from Jackson to Detroit, three hours and forty-five minutes. The regularity of these interurban cars compares favorably with that of passenger trains on steam railroads.

TROLLEY EXPRESS TRAFFIC.

It will be news to some readers that the express and freight traffic of the electric roads is becoming an important factor. The three States, Ohio, Michigan, and New York, lead in the amount of express and freight handled. The total receipts in the whole country for this form of traffic, in the year 1902, amounted to $1,439,769, more than half of which is credited to the three States above named. The Detroit interurban lines run large express cars, which serve the country within a radius of sixty miles, making, in some towns, three deliveries daily. The Eastern Ohio Traction Company has two forty-mile branch lines east of Cleveland, through a farming country which is not reached by the steam railroads. Milk, coal, wood, wool, etc., are carried by this company. The charges and methods of handling freight are quite similar to those employed by steam roads. The agents of the Rockford & Interurban road, in Illinois, stand ready to receive orders by telephone as to the purchase of goods and to ship the goods

thus ordered on the next express train, or, if the consignment is small, on the next regular passenger car.

COMPETITION WITH THE STEAM ROADS.

The electric roads are formidable competitors of the steam roads for short-haul traffic, both passenger and freight. As an instance of this, Mr. Carlton cites the case of the Lake Shore & Michigan Southern Railroad, paralleled by an electric line from Cleveland to Painesville, a distance of about thirty miles. The number of passengers carried between the two cities and intermediate points, in 1895, before the completion of the electric road, averaged 16,600 a month; in 1902, the average was reduced to 2,400 per month. West of Cleveland, the same steam railroad averaged, in 1895, 16,900 passengers monthly between Cleveland, Oberlin, and intermediate points; in 1902, this monthly average had diminished to only 7,650. The electric lines, besides reducing rates and giving more frequent service than the steam railroads, carry the passengers or freight directly to the heart of the city. Electric sleeping and dining cars are already in use on some roads, chiefly in Indiana.

THE PERDICARIS EPISODE.

THE kidnaping of Mr. Ion H. Perdicaris, an American citizen, by the Moroccan bandit, Raissuli; his long detention; the intervention of the United States and British governments, and his final release on the payment of a generous ransom, are all now matters of history, and an incident that threatened at one time to lead to international complications will soon be forgotten by all except the parties directly concerned. Still, the story of Mr. Perdicaris' captivity is interesting and important for the light that it throws on the peculiar tribal feuds and bickerings which, from time to time, have led, practically, to the disruption of all social security in Morocco. The full narrative, as written by Mr. Perdicaris himself while in captivity, supplemented by an account of the conclusions and negotiations with the bandits and the release of the captives, is contained in the September number of *Leslie's Monthly*.

Passing by the story of the captivity and the subsequent hardships suffered by the captives, which has been fully related in the daily press, we find in this article an interesting statement of the incidents that led to the conception of the kidnaping scheme, together with an apparently candid presentation of Raissuli's defense. Mr. Perdicaris tells how, in the summer of 1902, various outrages were perpetrated by officials of the Moorish Government in the agricultural districts immediately surrounding Tangier. It was in the following summer, while an attempt was being made by the Sultan's troops to seize Raissuli himself, that Mr. Walter



"AIDONIA," THE COUNTRY SEAT OF MR. PERDICARIS.

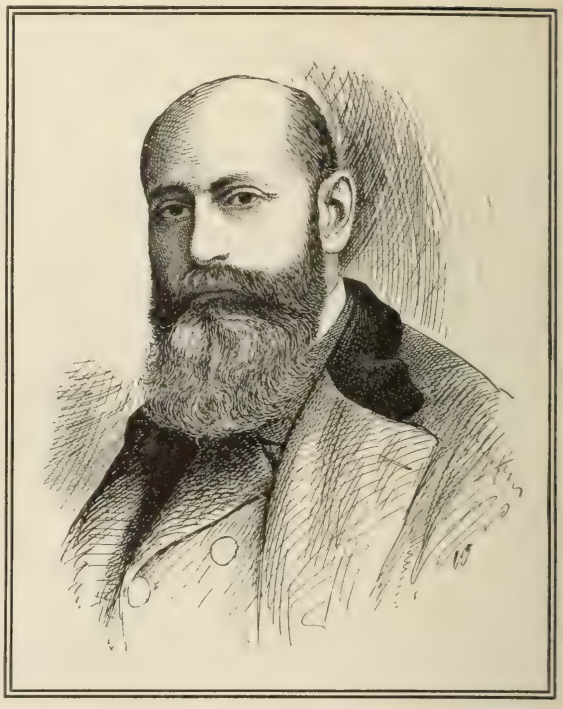
B. Harris, the correspondent of the London *Times*, was captured and held until the Moorish Government, under pressure from the British legation, acceded to Raissuli's demands for the release of his followers who had been taken prisoners at various times. Subsequently, many hostile natives were made prisoners by the government troops, having been persuaded, on false assurances of safe-conduct, it is claimed, to come into the camp of the Basha, carrying presents instead of arms, in order to negotiate for a general submission. This latter incident is said by Mr. Perdicaris to have been the immediate cause of his own captivity.

A GENTLEMANLY BANDIT.

It is evident that Mr. Perdicaris was strongly impressed by the dignified and courteous bearing of Raissuli. From the first, it seems that the captives were permitted by Raissuli to communicate freely with their friends in Tangier. When Mr. Perdicaris was confined to his bed, owing to the effects of a fall, Raissuli showed much apparent concern as to his condition, and frequently came to see him, and talked freely with him. It was in the course of these conversations that Mr. Perdicaris learned that Raissuli had no wish to harm him or to exact any personal ransom for his release, but that he had certain definite demands to make on the Moorish Government. These terms, as Mr. Perdicaris at once saw, were "singularly exorbitant." First, he demanded from the Moorish Government the removal of the Basha of Tangier, together with the release, not only of the men from the village of M'zorra, so treacherously seized, but also of all his friends, partisans, and relations actually in the hands of the government authorities, together with an indemnity of no less than seventy thousand dollars, to cover the losses inflicted upon the Raissuli faction. For the members of his faction, moreover, he demanded a complete pardon and safe-conduct for the future.

RAISSULI AS A PATRIOT LEADER.

Little by little, as the chief of the kidnapers became better acquainted with his captive, he talked freely of his past life and all that he had suffered at the hands of his enemies. He declared that after his clan had endured a succession of outrages, culminating with the treacherous capture of the M'zorra deputation, he determined to seize upon some European and to hold him till these men should be released and restitution made for all the wrongs that his party had suffered. Thus, Mr. Perdicaris was brought to a place where he was told no European or foreigner had ever set foot, not to be plundered,



MR. ION PERDICARIS.

(Mr. Perdicaris is the son of a native Greek who was educated at Amherst College, married a South Carolina lady, and served as American consul-general at Athens, under appointment by President Van Buren.)

but merely as a means of forcing the government to render some measure of tardy justice. In the first part of his article, Mr. Perdicaris seems inclined to express genuine sympathy with the story of Raissuli's wrongs as it was related to him. But in the concluding portion, written after he had come back to Tangier and learned how the threat of his death had been held over his friends at home, in case Raissuli's terms should not be complied with, he is less disposed to forgive his captor's aggressions. He declares, however, that, not by our standards of right and wrong, but by his own, Raissuli still stands head and shoulders above his compatriots. Mr. Perdicaris considers him rather in the light of a patriot who is using every means within his reach, even means which we cannot but condemn, to defend the independence of these Berber Kabyles, who, since the days of the Roman Empire, have resisted every attempt to subdue their wild love of freedom.

Raissuli, it seems, heard of the arrival of the American ships in Tangier Bay with equanimity, merely remarking, "Now the Sultan's authorities will be compelled to accede to my demands."

THE CALL FOR MEN AS PUBLIC-SCHOOL TEACHERS.

IT is a well-known fact that the proportion of women teachers in the schools of the United States has grown steadily during the past fifty years. To-day, there are fewer men teaching than there were in 1860, but there are four times as many women. An article in the September number of the *Popular Science Monthly*, by Richard L. Sandwick, assumes that women will probably continue to do the greater part of the teaching in our public schools, since it is generally recognized that they are better suited than men to instruct young children. The writer maintains, however, that any further increase in the relative number of women teachers would not be to the interests of education. He freely admits the softening and humanizing influence exerted by women, which accounts, in great part, for the change from the rough school of fifty years ago, from which the teacher was not seldom "pitched into the road by his bigger pupils," to the happy, orderly schoolroom of to-day. Women teachers, moreover, have accepted salaries scarcely half what men of like capacity would have accepted, and have thus been the means of extending the public-school system to a point far beyond what taxpayers would have borne if equal intelligence had been secured from men.

At the present time, according to this writer, women teachers outnumber the men in high schools; and below the high schools they reign supreme. Many large city schools of grammar grade employ no men teachers. Owing to the fact that the majority of boys and girls never come under the instruction of men, there is certainly danger of a one-sided development of the pupils. Both sexes are being educated by the sex whose relation to the political and industrial systems is not usually either that of voters or wage-earners. The basis of this last statement is the fact that less than one woman in five is engaged in earning a living, and of these, comparatively few are under the necessity of so doing. Many of them have no one dependent upon them for support, and would not suffer if thrown out of employment. In many cases, their earnings are additional to the support given them by others, and are regarded as supplementary to the family budget. "It might naturally be inferred that the education of both sexes by that sex upon which the necessity of earning a living is rarely imposed would tend to keep economic considerations in the background. And it is true. Even in the higher grades, economic independence is seldom a conscious aim; and the æsthetic has a larger place than the useful. There ought to be more sympathy than there is for the boy with a yearning, as he enters the age of adolescence, to get out into the workaday world and earn a place for himself; a thing which the enrollment shows he is pretty likely to do if school does not prove that he will be the gainer by the delay or appeal to this side of his nature."

WHERE WOMEN FAIL IN THE APPEAL TO BOY-NATURE.

Because women, as a rule, are interested in the æsthetic rather than the practical or industrial side of life, the boy pupil, not finding this latter side emphasized in his school work, and arguing from the fact that women teachers so greatly predominate that education is chiefly associated with the interests of women, becomes restive and dissatisfied with school life. In the opinion of Mr. Sandwick, this is one of the reasons why so few boys take the step from grammar to high school.

> At this age, boys begin to notice differences of sex. They are proud of their masculinity. The voice changes; they are conscious of superior strength, and they love to show their muscle. They cultivate gruffer ways of men, and often learn to smoke and chew, not because they want to be vicious, but because men use tobacco and women do not and they want to emphasize the fact that they are men. From fourteen to twenty, they love football. It is a game that calls for masculine strength and masculine courage. So, everything that is distinctly masculine is admired and imitated; everything womanish is despised. Few boys at this age are ready to admit that women are the equals of men. Even the mother's influence wanes. Her word is not final in everything. She is only a woman, and cannot understand all that men should do.
>
> So it is in school. The woman teacher is at a disadvantage with high-school boys. She must be of a decidedly strong personality to appeal to him. He sees intuitively that the tastes and preferences of women are different from those of men, and he is not at all ready to take a woman teacher's advice in choosing a course of action for himself.
>
> We believe thoroughly in coeducation; but coeducation does not exist when both sexes are educated by one. The living teacher and the ideal his personality presents is more effective than anything else in holding students in school. The lady teacher cannot present such an ideal to young people of the opposite sex. With all the growth in number of schools and teachers during the last half-century, there are fewer men teaching to-day than there were in 1860. In spite of our boasted progress in education, there are fewer school children enrolled to-day in proportion to the number of school age than there were in 1860. If we would hold boys in school between the ages of twelve and fifteen, we must appeal to the more practical bent of a boy's mind and the ideals of manhood which attract him. We must have more men teachers.

THE SALARY QUESTION.

The demand for more men as public-school teachers implies, of course, an increase in salaries. The average salary of men teachers in the United States is higher than that of women, but still very low. It amounts to about $337 a year, while the average wages of operatives, skilled and unskilled, for males above sixteen, is about $498. The United States census for 1900 gives the mean annual wages of laborers, including men, women, and children, white and black, skilled and unskilled, as $437.—one hundred dollars more than the average male teacher receives. Competent men can only be secured by increase of salaries and more secure tenure of office. The changes among teachers in the smaller towns, from year to year, are so numerous that both men and women regard their tenure as insecure. If they do not succeed in obtaining positions, the women teachers go home to their parents for a time and perhaps try again the following year, while the men are very likely to go into some other occupation, leaving the inexperienced and unfit in the ranks of the profession. In the meantime, half of a year's salary may have been spent in the unsuccessful endeavor to find a suitable situation.

AN ITALIAN ESTIMATE OF AMERICAN LITERATURE.

AMERICAN literature, says Gis Leno, in *Italia Moderna* (Rome), is "rich in classic celebrities." He proceeds to enumerate the poets, historians, and novelists, as well as divines and philosophers, who flourished in the United States from 1820 to 1860. There exists, he observes, a kind of literature which is "preëminently American, and which, after having had a glorious past, still enjoys a brilliant present." This literature boasts such names as Washington Irving, Mark Twain, Bret Harte, and Bill Nye. "Side by side with these generals and colonels of American humor march in battle array the young writers who carry a marshal's baton in their knapsacks."

Last year, the United States celebrated the centenary of American humor, and the press proudly announced that the home of humor was ever to be found in free America. . . . It would be rash to attempt a characterization of that American humor which is represented by a hundred writers and some thousands of volumes. All of these writers exalt, while they ridicule, the enterprising energy of the Americans in conflict with the stupidity of the administration, the buffoonery of Irish immigrants, the vanity of the *nouveaux riches*. A host of delightful stories reflect with light-heartedness the sorrows of life, and are characterized by a manner so grotesquely droll that the reader feels as if he were transported into a facetious world of circus clowns.

The writer mentions with approbation "The Jumping Frog" of Mark Twain, Frank Stockton's "Rudder Grange," "The Dooley Papers" of Finley Peter Dunne, and George Ade's "Fables in Slang." In 1901, he continues, two books of another kind obtained "a grand and legitimate success." One, "Up from Slavery," is a true autobiography of the celebrated Booker Washington, the first negro invited to dine at the White House, who from being an insignificant Virginia slave has risen to be "a kind of official representative of American negroes." Side by side with this autobiography is the work of Jacob A. Riis, "The Making of An American," which testifies to the "energy with which these audacious Americans exhibit even in the arts." This writer then proceeds to condemn in vigorous terms the methods of American booksellers in advertising new novels in exaggerated terms of laudation. On this point, he says :

There is not a single young miss just out of school but brings a romance to the publisher. The offices of the great publishing houses are really filled with busy critics and readers. . . . The majority of those who are thus in pursuit of literary fame and profit are women, some of whom gain their end by force and patience, insistency, intrigue, and the recommendations of others.

To tell the truth, this success is a necessary result of the publicity gained through advertising. It is well known that the American advertisement outstrips in audacity anything of the kind in Europe, and the literary advertisement in America is the *ne plus ultra*. No Barnum could possibly vie with the advertiser who wishes to float a popular novel in America.

The writer quotes an advertisement of a Fifth Avenue bookseller who ranks Gertrude Atherton with George Sand, Goethe, and Dickens, and Gertrude Atherton, he adds, "has a talent or genius of merely third-rate rank, if even so much can be said of her."

The spirit of bluff thus prevailing among American publishers may have no weight excepting with the uncultivated; nevertheless, it exercises a pernicious influence over literature in general. As long as American publishers make themselves purveyors of fustian, works of real importance must necessarily suffer neglect. Real literature, such as would recall Bryant and Longfellow, Whittier and Whitman, in poetry, Hawthorne and James in romance, must disappear unnoticed in this rising flood of inflated mediocrity.

ALFRED RUSSEL WALLACE.

ALTHOUGH he was associated with Darwin in the discovery of the origin of species, Dr. Alfred Russel Wallace has never shared the public renown that attached to that discovery, and in America, if not in England itself, his name is comparatively little known, excepting among the scientists. Mr. Harold Begbie has included a sketch of Dr. Wallace in his "Master-Workers" series, contributed to the *Pall Mall Magazine* (London).

DARWIN AND "DARWINISM."

In the first place, Darwin and Dr. Wallace, says Mr. Begbie, both derived their inspiration from Malthus' work on "Population," and, secondly, but for Dr. Wallace, Darwin's work might have been presented to the world in so many volumes that few would have cared to read them. Mr. Begbie writes :

Darwin had been working on "Natural Selection" for twenty years when Dr. Wallace sent his famous pamphlet to him for Sir Charles Lyell to read ; and but for this sudden surprise of his great secret it is most probable that the careful and laborious Darwin would have spent another twenty years on the completion of its presentation. Dr. Wallace's pamphlet, so similar to Darwin's work that even some of its phrases appeared as titles in Darwin's MS., had at any rate the happy result of hurrying into the world a brief and concise exposition of the case for natural selection from the pen of Darwin.

But learned men, adds Mr. Begbie, are now beginning to throw over "Darwinism." Darwin's work, as set forth in the "Origin of Species," retorts Dr. Wallace, is safe from attack. But "Darwinism," that is a different matter.

Darwinism (says Dr. Wallace) is very often a different thing from the "Origin of Species." Darwin never touched *beginnings*. Again and again he protested against the idea that any physicist could arrive at the beginning of life. Nor did he argue for *one* common origin of all the variety in life. He speaks of "more than one" over and over again : and he also speaks of the Creator. It is only a few of his followers who have presented Darwin to the world as a man who had explained the beginning of everything, and who had dispensed altogether with the services of a Creator. Darwin must have turned in his grave more than once if any echoes of "Darwinism" ever reached him there.

THE SPIRITUAL NATURE OF MAN.

Darwin and Dr. Wallace differed on the question of the mind and the spiritual nature of man. What has to be acknowledged and recognized is the spiritual nature of man, which separates him completely and absolutely from the highest of all mammals. Dr. Wallace distinguishes between the struggle for existence, *per se*, and the struggle for spiritual, intellectual, and moral existence. Evolution can account for the land-grabber, the company-promoter, and the sweater ; but, if it fails to account for the devotion of the patriot, the enthusiasm of the artist, the constancy of the martyr, the resolute search of the scientific worker after nature's secrets, it has not explained the whole mystery of humanity.

Dr. Wallace is then induced to speak of Spiritualism. He holds that proof of the existence of the soul beyond the grave is already established. The study of the spiritual nature of man, he says, is coming more and more to the front of human inquiry.

Spiritualism (says Dr. Wallace) means the science of the spiritual nature of man, and that is surely a science which deserves a place among the investigations of mankind. Geology is important, chemistry is important, astronomy is important ; but "the proper study of mankind is man," and if you leave out the spiritual nature of man you are not studying man at all. I prefer the term spiritualism. I am a spiritualist, and I am not in the least frightened of the name !

It is only because the scientific investigations of spiritualists are confounded in the popular mind with the chicanery and imposture of a few charlatans that the undiscriminating world has not studied the literature of spiritualism. A study of that literature, an honest and unbiased examination of spiritual investigations, would prove to the world that the soul of man is a reality, and that death is not the abrupt and unreasoning end of consciousness.

THE MOST COURAGEOUS OF SCIENTISTS.

Mr. Begbie adds :

Dr. Wallace is not one of those men who believe that everything not made by man must have been made by God. His cosmogony is spacious, and finds room for other intelligences than those of humanity and deity. We are compassed about, he believes, by an infinity of beings as numerous as the stars, and the vast universe is peopled with as many grades of intelligences as the forms of life with which this little earth is peopled. To deny spiritual phenomena because some of them appear to be beneath the dignity of Godhead seems to this patient and courageous investigator an act of folly, a confession of narrow-mindedness. No phenomenon is too insignificant or too miraculous for his investigation, and in his philosophy there is no impossible and no preternatural.

He is, undoubtedly, the most courageous of men of science. Other eminent men have examined spiritual phenomena as carefully and earnestly as he, and some of them have uttered their faith in the reality of these mysteries ; but from the year 1863, from the very beginning of his scientific career, on the very threshold of his work in a materialistic and suspicious world, this brave and earnest man—with everything to lose and nothing to gain—has been the avowed champion of spiritualism, and has fought for his belief with a steadfastness which has only increased with time.

MIRACLE PLAYS IN MEDIEVAL ENGLAND.

THE revival of "Everyman" has created an interest in the old English "morality plays," most of which had been virtually obsolete for nearly five hundred years. Prof. Felix E. Schelling, writing in *Lippincott's* for October on "Old English Sacred Drama," says that from the first the English people seem to have preferred the miracle play,—that is, a play founded more or less strictly on the Bible itself, as distinguished from the legends of the saints and martyrs, which were popular on the Continent.

The wide diffusion of miracle plays over England may be judged from the fact that no less than one hundred and twenty-seven places are recorded as the scenes of these performances. There is record of many performances in London. Some lasted several days and were witnessed by royalty in the presence of vast concourses of people. But not only in London and in the great sees of Canterbury, York, and Winchester were miracle plays held in high esteem and popularity, but at the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, and in many lesser places. The vogue of these plays even extended beyond the confines of England and the geographical boundaries of the English tongue. In Scotland, plays were acted at Edinburgh, Aberdeen, and elsewhere. In Dublin, too, the miracle play found a welcome, and in Cornwall the sturdy Welsh showed their independence and national spirit by performance of miracle plays in Cornish. Several distinctive traits distinguished the miracle play as acted in England from similar performances abroad. The most notable was the preference for Bible story already mentioned. Another was the tendency to link scene to scene until at length a complete cycle of plays was produced beginning with Creation and extending to the Day of Judgment.

Professor Schelling shows how the trades' guilds, the members of which commonly, but not universally, acted these old religious dramas, played a peculiar and interesting part in medieval town life.

Not only did they provide for the proper training of apprentices and the protection and regulation of trade,



MEDIEVAL CRAFTSMEN, THE ACTORS IN MIRACLE PLAYS.

but it was from the officers of the guilds that the mayor, the sheriffs, and the aldermen of the town were chosen. The custom of linking plays on kindred subjects was fostered by the ambition of the guilds to commemorate a festival so august with becoming dignity; and a natural rivalry sprang up among those taking part as to which should present the finest pageant and the one most properly acted and fittingly staged.

PROGRESS IN FRENCH LABOR LEGISLATION.

A *RÉSUMÉ* of the present status of labor laws in France is given by M. Paul Razous in the *Revue Scientifique*. France, he tells us, was the first to follow England in the restriction of the labor of children and women. By an act passed in 1841, it was provided that children between the ages of eight and twelve should not work more than eight hours a day if employed in any factory making use of power or of continuously running furnaces. If between twelve and sixteen years of age, they might be worked twelve hours, but no child under sixteen years of age was permitted to work between the hours of 9 P.M. and 5 A.M., nor on Sundays or public holidays. In 1848, a law was passed limiting the hours of labor in all factories to twelve per day; but this did not apply to railways, canals, or warehouses. In 1874, the law was altered so as to prohibit the employment in factories of children under twelve years of age, save in some special cases. In 1892, this act was amended, and it was provided that children between thirteen and sixteen years of age must not be worked more than ten hours per day, and those between sixteen and eighteen years of age not more than eleven hours a day nor more than sixty hours a week.

Women were also not permitted to work more than eleven hours a day, but the weekly limit did not apply in their case. At the same time, the legal limit for adult men was fixed at twelve

hours a day, save when less than twenty men were employed and no mechanical power was made use of. The last important act was passed in December, 1900, and came into force April 1 last. By its terms, no men in factories where women and children are also employed must work more than ten hours per day. The employment of children of less than thirteen years is prohibited, unless certain educational standards be passed and the child be physically fit, and then work may be commenced at twelve years of age. In no case, however, must the working day of women or children exceed ten hours, and these must not be consecutive, a rest of at least one hour being given. No night work for these is permitted, and they must have one day of complete rest a week. Further, the employment of women in certain dangerous trades is also prohibited. The hours for adult males are restricted to twelve a day, save in the case cited above, when, if women and children are also employed, the working day must not exceed ten hours. These rules and regulations do not apply to railways, but here other regulations provide that the hours shall not exceed, according to circumstances, ten or twelve a day, and the employee must have one day free in seven or in ten.

HOME RULE FOR WALES.

FROM time to time the need of a separate parliament for the principality of Wales has been urged on sentimental and historical grounds, but a practical and definite agitation for legislative independence seems now to be under way. The *Independent Review* for September opens with an important article in which Mr. Lloyd-George, M.P., writing under the title of "The Welsh Political Programme," practically puts forward a formal demand for autonomous government in the principality.

THE WELSH LIBERAL PLATFORM.

Welsh Liberalism, Mr. Lloyd-George points out, has a distinct programme of its own, embracing, "not merely the disestablishment of state churches, but temperance reform, educational reform, land reform in all its aspects, and in recent years a large extension of the principles of self-government and decentralization."

The last problem is the most serious, for in its solution lies the solution of all the others. "Wales wants to get on with its national work, and it finds itself delayed and hindered at every turn by the interference or actual hostility of a parliament knowing but little of the local conditions of which the constitution has made it the sole judge."

THE GERM OF HOME RULE.

In the new Welsh National Council, which is to be elected on a population basis by the county councils, Mr. Lloyd-George sees the germ of self-government. But the powers of the council are too restricted. "Why should its operation be confined to administering acts of Parliament passed by a legislature out of sympathy with the Welsh aspirations and too preoccupied with other affairs to attend the Welsh requirements even if its sympathy could be reckoned upon?"

SELF-GOVERNMENT AND TEMPERANCE.

A Tory government has granted the National Council; therefore, says the Welsh leader, the least the Liberals can do will be to add generously to its powers. Education is the problem now before the council. But Mr. Lloyd-George demands powers also to deal with the drink problem. The Welsh representatives are five to one in favor of local veto, yet the Welsh local veto bill never got beyond a second reading in Parliament. Let the imperial parliament, he says, reserve to itself the principles upon which property in licenses should be dealt with, and leave other temperance legislation to the people of the principality.

PROBLEMS FOR AUTONOMOUS WALES.

In addition, there are many functions now intrusted to government departments which could, with advantage, be left to the council. "Much can also be done to improve the private-bill procedure. There is no reason why the National Council should not dispose of all bills and provisional orders relating to Wales which do not affect very great interests. The committee which sat upon the private-legislation procedure (Wales) bill, while reporting against that measure, found that there was a case made out for separate treatment for Wales."

BRIEFER NOTES ON TOPICS IN THE PERIODICALS.

SUBJECTS TREATED IN THE POPULAR AMERICAN MAGAZINES.

American Politics.—The Presidential campaign is recognized by the *Atlantic Monthly* in two articles—"The Issues of the Campaign: A Republican Point of View," by Samuel W. McCall; and "The Democratic Appeal," by Edward M. Shepard. A similar method, applied to the discussion of the candidates rather than of the principles of the campaign, is followed in the September number of the *North American Review*, in which the question, "Who Should Be Our Next President?" is answered by Senator Henry Cabot Lodge and William F. Sheehan, speaking, respectively, for President Roosevelt and Judge Parker.—An interesting account of the political career of Governor La Follette, of Wisconsin, is contributed to *McClure's* by Lincoln Steffens, who incidentally tells a great deal about the "boodle" politics of a State where, he says, the people have restored representative government by a vote against ring domination.—In the *Cosmopolitan*, Mr. Robert Clark, Jr., tells the story of the successful warfare waged by a member of the Kansas Legislature upon the State machine of his own political party.—"From Blacksmith to Boss" is the title of Joseph J. McAuliffe's story, in *Leslie's Monthly*, of the rise to power and influence of Edward Butler, of St. Louis, whom he characterizes as the shrewdest manipulator in municipal politics.—The same magazine has a character sketch of the "Military Dictator of Colorado," Gen. Sherman Bell.—Lindsay Denison contributes to *Everybody's Magazine* an account of "The Fight for the Doubtful States."—In *Gunton's Magazine* for September is an editorial article on the elusive "labor vote" of the country.—In the September *Arena* (Boston), Mr. Allan L. Benson writes on "The President, His Attorney-General, and the Trusts."—The Hon. Robert Baker, M.C., contributes to the same magazine an article on "The Reign of Graft, and the Remedy."

Discussion of the Trusts.—It is not easy to generalize concerning the magazines of any particular month, but a glance at the October numbers seems to indicate a return, on the part of the editors, to the practice of securing articles on those topics in the industrial world which have a prominent place in current newspaper discussion. *McClure's Magazine*, which has been active in this field for many months, brings to a close, in its current number, the elaborate "History of the Standard Oil Company," by Miss Ida M. Tarbell. In this concluding paper of her very able and exhaustive series, Miss Tarbell makes it clear that in all discussion of the trust problem the transportation question is still at the front; for she has shown that it is still possible for a company to own the exclusive carrier on which a great natural product depends for transportation, and to use this carrier to limit a competitor's supply, or to cut off that supply entirely, if the rival is offensive, and always to make him pay a higher rate than it costs the owner. Transportation, then, is the crux of the whole monopoly question. Prof. John B. Clark, on the other hand, writing in the *Century* on "The Real Dangers of the Trusts," while he specifies as one of the things to which we must put an end, if we are to convert the trusts into friendly agencies, the discriminations by railroads, shows that other precautions must be taken by the public as well. For example, the practice of flooding a particular locality with goods offered at cutthroat prices for the sake of crushing a competitor must be stopped. Then, too, we must put an end to the scheme of selling one kind of goods at a cheap rate for the sake of crushing competitors who make only that kind of goods and forcing them to sell their plants to the trust on its own terms. Finally, the so-called "factor's agreement" must be suppressed. This agreement consists in the refusal by the trusts to sell goods to a dealer at a living price unless he will promise not to buy any similar articles from a competitor. Professor Clark admits that any government will have an uphill road in accomplishing these various prohibitions. But if a regulation of this kind cannot be brought about, the only alternative, in his view, will be socialism.

Other Phases of the Corporation Problem.—A writer in the *World's Work* considers the increasing popular demand in this country for fuller publicity of corporation affairs. Beyond the recommendation that every business company issue at least a balance sheet, it is not clear that any general rule can be laid down by which any single system of accounting may be applied to companies organized in varied industries. In conclusion, the article advocates the passage of a law whereby 10 per cent. of a corporation's stockholders may demand an independent audit and appraisal, and a report of the results of this audit directly to the stockholders.—In the same magazine, Mr. Henry W. Lanier states the pros and cons of certain great questions in life insurance,—for example, Have the great insurance companies, which have more money than any other institutions, reached their limit? Do they endanger their soundness by new business? Will "good risks" demand lower rates? Some of the facts that Mr. Lanier presents in his article are indeed startling. To say that the insurance companies of this country collect every year some five hundred million dollars from their policyholders, besides another million dollars as interest and the like, may mean much or little, according to the point of view. But when we consider that the total income of these companies is a little larger than the income of all the railroads of this country, and that their receipts for eighteen months would pay the United States national debt, we begin to realize what the insurance business in this country amounts to.—In the series of articles in *Everybody's Magazine* entitled "Frenzied Finance: The Story of Amalgamated," Mr. Thomas W. Lawson is making sensational revelations of certain stock-market operations in which he was engaged not long ago in alliance with some of the leading

directors of the Standard Oil Company and affiliated interests.—In a series on the great industries of the United States, the *Cosmopolitan* has a description of the making of tin and terne plates, by William R. Stewart. It will be news to some people that the United States, last year, produced a thousand million pounds of tin and terne plates, an amount greater by several million pounds than Great Britain's total output.—The September number of the *North American Review* contains articles on "Legal Supervision of the Transportation Tax," by Brooks Adams, and "Four Years of Anti-Trust Activity," by James W. Garner. The latter article summarizes and reviews the legislation of Congress and the important judicial decisions of the past four years which bear in any way on the regulation of corporations.

Current Discussion of Labor Problems.—Two important articles on phases of the labor question appear in the current number of the *Atlantic Monthly*. From one of them,—that on the closed shop,—by Dr. Charles J. Bullock, we have quoted in our department of "Leading Articles of the Month;" the other is an admirable study of the intelligence office as it is conducted in American cities, by Miss Frances Kellor.—*Gunton's Magazine* for September discusses the question of arbitration in labor disputes. The writer contends that, to be effective, arbitration must take place before the conflict, and that the arbitrators must be the direct representatives of the parties to the struggle. The arbitrating board should consist of a joint organization of laborers and employers, a body in which both are represented in equal numbers and by the most competent members of the group.—We have quoted elsewhere from Dr. John Bascom's discussion of "The Right to Labor" in the *Quarterly Journal of Economics*.

American Railroad-Building.—Mr. Frank H. Spearman tells, in *Harper's*, the impressive story of the first transcontinental railroad,—a story which the pioneers are never weary of telling to their children and their children's children, although in the Eastern States it may be less familiar. Truly, "the days when Dodge ran the line, Jack Casement laid the rail, Leland Stanford drove the spike, and Bret Harte supplied the poem can never return."—Another article by Mr. Spearman (in the *World's Work*) describes in fascinating detail the processes by which a great Mississippi Valley railroad was entirely "made over,"—tracks straightened, bridges rebuilt, and locomotives and cars replaced by better ones.—Mr. M. G. Cunniff (also in the *World's Work*) gives an excellent illustrated description of the New York subway, with a rapid review of its construction.

Popular Treatment of the Fine Arts.—At least two of the October magazines are noteworthy for successful attempts to popularize important art topics. In *McClure's*, Mr. John La Farge continues his admirable criticism of "One Hundred Masterpieces of Painting" in a second paper on "Triumphs," which is illustrated by reproductions of five of the great works of Rubens. The secretary of the Royal Academy, Mr. Fred A. Eaton, contributes to *Scribner's* the first of a series of papers on the history of that venerable institution. This opening paper gives an insight into the traditions and customs of the Academy, describing its methods of administration, and noting especially the organizing work of Sir Joshua Reynolds, the Academy's first president, and the hardly less important influence of the American artist, Benjamin West.

Character Studies.—In *Harper's* appears Mr. Henry Loomis Nelson's study of Count Frontenac, the great Colonial governor of New France in the last three decades of the seventeenth century. He shows that Frontenac's policy long outlived his administration, for it was not until after the middle of another century that the English triumphed over the French in the contest for supremacy on our northern and western border.—In *Munsey's*, Katherine Hoffman summarizes a part of the material brought to light by the recent publication of the "Creevey Papers," which throws new light on the love-affairs of George IV., the "First Gentleman of Europe."—Very fitly in this campaign year appears, in *McClure's*, an appreciation of the late George William Curtis by his friend and coworker in political life, Carl Schurz.—A sketch of the Archbishop of Canterbury, now visiting the United States, is contributed to *Munsey's* by Curtis Brown.

The History of the War,—It is noticeable that while the articles on the Russo-Japanese war appearing in the English and Continental reviews are chiefly devoted to the causes of the struggle and the underlying motives of the combatants, the articles in the American monthlies are more generally accounts of the actual fighting or concrete descriptions of the opposing forces. In the October *Scribner's*, for example, there is a detailed story of the operations of the army under General Kuropatkin during the four months ending in the middle of July last. This article affords much information that has direct bearing on the subsequent history of the engagements around Liao-Yang, which are described this month in our department of "The Progress of the World." The writer of the article is Mr. Thomas F. Millard, who has been with the Russian army continuously during the period covered by the narrative.—Another installment of the "Vivid Pictures of Great War Scenes" appears in the current number of *World's Work*. This month's paper is devoted to "The Forlorn Hope at Kinchau," and describes the actual wiping out of two Japanese battalions in the attempt of the fourth division to take the walled town of Kinchau.—In the *Century*, Mr. David B. Macgowan contributes an excellent illustrated article on "The Cossacks," describing the modes of fighting and marching of these hardy Russian troopers.—In the same magazine, "Togo,—the Man and the Admiral," is the subject of a spirited sketch by Adachi Kinnosuke.—*Leslie's Monthly* has an account of "The Battle of Yalu River as I Saw It," by a brigade commander in the Japanese army. The prefatory editorial note states that the name of the field officer who contributed this vivid story is withheld because of the fact that Japanese custom revolts at the idea of the exploitation of the army by any of its officers. The editors, however, guarantee the genuineness of the article.—Another article in *Leslie's* is contributed by the Marquis Ito, on the subject of "The Future of Japan."—Among the articles in the October numbers which were possibly suggested by the present war are "The Japanese Spirit," by Nobushige Amenomori, in the *Atlantic Monthly*, and "Russia's Red Record," by John V. Van Arsdale, in *Munsey's*. The latter article discusses assassination as a political force in the Czar's empire,

and analyzes the proposed reforms.—Another writer in *Munsey's*, Mr. M. M. Scott, declares that the Territory of Hawaii is more deeply concerned in the present crisis in the far East than any other portion of the United States. This is due to the fact that the Japanese are now the largest element in the population of Hawaii and are steadily advancing.—An important article on "The Personality of the Czar," which originally appeared in the *Quarterly Review* (London), is reprinted in the current number of the *World's Work*.

Agricultural Topics.—The illustrated magazines, this month, contain several articles of special interest to the farmer. Perhaps the most important of these is Mr. Gilbert H. Grosvenor's account, in the *Century*, of a remarkable discovery in scientific agriculture, which he fittingly describes as "Inoculating the Ground." This inoculation is accomplished by nitrogen-fixing bacteria. These germs, as now prepared for distribution among farmers, cost the Government less than four cents a cake. One of these cakes is sufficient to inoculate seeds of from one to four acres of land, and saves the farmer from thirty to forty dollars, which he would have to spend for an equal amount of fertilizer.—"What American Crops Mean to the World" is the subject of an interesting statistical article by Frank Fayant, in *Success*.—Will Irwin contributes to *Everybody's Magazine* a paper on "Harvesting the World Over."—In the *Cosmopolitan*, Gov. Alexander O. Brodie, of Arizona, describes the practical operation of the Hansbrough-Newlands reclamation law in the arid West.—The Yale Summer School of Forestry, in the valley of the Delaware River, near Milford, Pa., is described in the *World's Work* by James W. Pinchot, a pioneer in American scientific forestry.

Literary Criticism.—Purely critical articles are not numerous in this month's magazines. The most ambitious attempt at literary criticism in the October numbers is Miss Elisabeth Luther Cary's study of Henry James, the novelist, in *Scribner's*. This is a serious and sympathetic essay.—There is a study of the character of "Othello," by Algernon Charles Swinburne, in *Harper's*, the accompanying pictures being the work of Mr. Edwin A. Abbey.—Mrs. Mary Mills contributes to the *Chautauquan* a paper on "Maeterlinck, the Belgian Shakespeare."—In the *Atlantic Monthly*, the principal literary paper, this month, is contributed by Mr. Charles Miner Thompson, on "The Art of Miss Jewett."—Mr. James Huneker's article on "Gerhart Hauptmann," in the September number of the *Lamp*, should not be overlooked; and in the same magazine there is an interesting paper on "Literature as a Practical Force in England," by J. M. Bulloch.

THE SPIRIT OF THE FOREIGN REVIEWS.

The Japanese Triumvirate.—An anonymous article in *Blackwood's Magazine* for September says that Field Marshal Oyama, Baron Kodama, and General Fukushima make up a triumvirate which is conducting the war with Russia. The writer begins with Baron Oyama. Twelve years ago, he says, this very marshal was called upon to command the Japanese army in the field against the strength of China. The opening phases of his present campaign are being conducted over the very ground through which he then maneuvered his victorious troops. "The small, podgy, pockmarked man, whom no caricaturist could fail to lampoon as a frog, is Baron Oyama, the Roberts of Japan. We use the parallel to our own great soldier only as a figure of location. In temperament there is no likeness between the two, except that each in his respective country is a great soldier. The little general seated at the marshal's right is the Kitchener of Japan. If we had not known that he was Japanese, his quick dark eye, dapper figure, and pointed beard would have led us to believe that he was a Spaniard, or perhaps a Mexican. General Baron Kodama is the executive brain of the Japanese general staff. Of the third member of the triumvirate, however, we have no parallel in the British army. Like his illustrious associates, he also is small. He is fair for a Japanese, and the splash of gray at either temple enhances the fairness of his skin. Save for a rare and very pleasant smile, the face is unemotional. The dark eyes are dreamy, and the poorest expression of the great brain that works behind them. This is General Fukushima, whose genius has been the concrete-mortar which has cemented into solid block the rough-hewn material of Japan's general staff." General Fukushima made a tour of Russia and Siberia several years ago and learned much about the country.

White Slave Traffic in Italy.—A recent number of the *Civiltà Cattolica* (Rome), following the good example set by the *Nuova Antologia*, publishes a strongly worded article on the white slave traffic. The author frankly admits the unhappy preëminence of both Genoa and Naples as recognized centers of the foreign trade both with other Mediterranean ports and with South America. After quoting numerous instances of young girls being inveigled by specious promises into houses of ill-fame, he gives a useful summary of the various international organizations founded for their protection. Quite recently, it appears, the work, which now has a branch at Rome, received the emphatic approval of Pius X. This discussion of a once banned topic in the foremost Italian magazines will certainly effect great good in the cause of social purity.

China the Stake in the Far East.—The relations of China and the European powers for the decade 1894–1904 are discussed by the political writer, René Pinon, in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. In China there are great interests, and therefore great conflicts, he says. Round China, and because of China, the last ten years have brought us a series of fierce and bloody struggles, and to-day the eyes of the whole world are fixed on Port Arthur and Manchuria. In the last ten years we have had three great wars, besides a number of minor incidents; and in addition there has been the Philippine war, which introduced the United States into the Oriental drama. The whole question resolves itself into that of the attitude of China. The Chinaman is filled with contempt for the vain agitation and restless activity of the Europeans, of whom he knows only the more active and the more adventurous. He does not undervalue the profits of commerce, but he thinks, with

Confucius, that life is worth living if it have no other aim than the realization and the contemplation of the beautiful and of the true. The European, on his part (the missionary excepted), has never cared to show himself other than a merchant greedy for gain; he has been too much inclined to subordinate his moral ideas to the needs of his economic life; preoccupied with business and gain, he has forgotten that true civilization is not measured by scientific progress and perfection of machinery, but by social progress and moral perfection. It is because of the third and silent actor in the drama that the world is so anxious as to the end of the great struggle between the two races disputing about the empire of the far East. China cannot remain a disinterested party, for she is the stake.

A Japanese Opinion of President Roosevelt.—The *Taiyo* (Tokio) contains a character sketch of President Roosevelt which is quite a eulogy. The writer calls the President a greater man than Lincoln or Grant. He is much stronger, says this writer, than the Republican party.

Japan's Best Policy.—In a "special supplement" on the war, in the *National Review*, C. à Court Repington considers Japan's best policy. He says: "It is a war of exhaustion, and Japan, since the real Russia is impervious to her blows, cannot aim at far-reaching conquests, and must aim at concentration of strength and conservation of energy, seeking to make the war too difficult and too onerous for Russia to pursue with any hope of final victory. Such result cannot best be achieved by long marches and exhausting enterprises, seeking to penetrate far into the interior, since there is nothing whatever to show, even if the Japanese armies appear on the shores of Lake Baikal, that Russia will, for that reason, sue for peace. The strength of Japan lies upon the sea and within striking distance of the shores of the Pacific. With Port Arthur, Korea, and Vladivostok in her grasp, suitably occupied and defended, a Russian counter-offensive can only take place with great numbers, difficult to provide and maintain, and so long as Japan maintains her vitally important maritime preponderance this counter-offensive will probably fail."

Why Do Not Socialists Agree?—Robert Mitchells, commenting, in the *Riforma Sociale* (Rome), on the criticism of Saverio Merlino, to the effect that the Socialists of Europe "have so far failed to formulate a programme clear and consistent," adds that "the confusion and contradiction is less in the socialistic programme than in socialistic practice and action." Thus, German social democracy leaves religion to the personal conviction of the individual, opposes the Kulturkampf, and favors the abolition of laws against the Jesuits. In France, the socialistic party is decidedly anti-Catholic and anti-clerical. The same contradiction appears in the socialistic views and practice in the matter of the duel. In Germany, Socialists have rejected the duel. In France, it is still in vogue among Socialists as a means of settling questions of personal honor. In Austria, that country of a thousand nationalities and of an eternal and bitter race war, the different groups of Socialists are ranged each under the flag of their own nationality. In commercial politics, the German Socialists are free-traders, while the French, Hungarian, and Swiss champions of socialism have shown a decided leaning toward free trade. A like inconsistency is shown in the way in which the socialistic press regards the heads of the various states, kings and emperors. The German socialistic press does not notice by a single word "the arrival of this or that prince in Berlin or the festivities which are instituted in his honor." But elsewhere, just the opposite is the case. *La Petite République* hailed "the recent arrival in Paris of Victor Emmanuel III. as the representative of Italian democracy!" When William II., in May, 1903, "visited Christian IX. of Denmark at Copenhagen, the *Socialdemokraten*, the organ of the Danish Socialists, inserted a paragraph of cordial welcome." When Nicholas II., Czar of All the Russias, announced his intention of visiting Italy, the members of the socialistic party, as well as the socialistic press, expressed their approval in terms of personal compliment, although the majority of Italian Socialists declared themselves as opposed to the threatened visit. "Complete liberty in religion," he concludes, "prohibition of dueling, and an active anti-dynastic propaganda seem to me to be absolutely necessary principles of international socialism and to form an harmonious basis upon which alone can be united so many varied forces and directed toward a single goal."

American Administration of the Philippines.—A severe criticism of American government in the Philippines in contributed to the *Contemporary Review* (London) for September by Mr. John Foreman, a British subject who became famous during the Spanish-American War as the only contributor to English periodical literature who had, up to that time, established a reputation as an authority on those islands. Mr. Foreman arraigns the military *régime*, especially in Manila, as wholly debasing, makes charges of wholesale corruption against the civil officials, and declares that American capital has not yet been attracted to the islands, while in fair competition, on equal terms with foreigners, the Americans have thus far failed to capture the Philippine trade. He states that to-day, after five years' occupation, there is not a mile of new railroad capitalized by Americans. All this contrasts strongly with the reports of former Civil Governor Taft, but it should be said that even Mr. Foreman admits the value of much of the educational work conducted under American auspices, although he criticises certain features of it.

The American Woman from a British Point of View.—Mr. Marriott Watson writes in the *Nineteenth Century* (London) on what he terms the "decline of muliebrity" in the American woman. In spite of the gradual desiccation that this writer observes as a phenomenon of her nature, the American woman attracts Europeans by her "nimble intellectual equipment and her enlarged sense of companionship. She is, above all, adaptable, and fits into her place deftly, gracefully, and with no diffidence. She knows not shamefacedness; she has regal claims, and believes in herself and her destiny. If her fidelity is derived from the coldness of her nature, she owes her advancement largely to her zest for living. Her range is wide,—wider than that of her sisters in the old world; but her sympathies are not so deep. She is flawless superficially, and catches the wandering eye as a butterfly, a bright patch of color, something assertive and arresting in the sunshine."

Woman Suffrage in Australia.—Mr. Tom Mann contributes to the *Nineteenth Century* for September the result of his investigation into political and industrial conditions in Australia. Of Australian women as voters, he says: "To most of them, it was an entirely new experience, and naturally there was a small percentage of odd cases; but over the whole commonwealth the lively interest shown by the women and the all-round efficiency that characterized them at the polling-booths commanded the most hearty admiration of the sterner sex. During the election campaign, great amusement was caused by the wrigglings of those candidates who for many years had opposed woman suffrage, but who on this occasion were taxing their brains as to how to secure the votes of the women. Their sudden discovery that, after all, women would probably impart a healthy tone to matters political, and that there really was no valid reason as to why the right of citizenship should be exclusively held by one sex when the every-day interests of both sexes were directly affected thereby, etc.; this, in face of the most determined opposition to the women's claims all through their political careers until they were beaten, relieved the monotony of many a meeting when women themselves, or men on their behalf, insisted upon reminding such candidates of their previous attitude on this subject."

Some Minor Gains of Peace.—In *La Revue*, M. d'Estournelles de Constant has a little article entitled "The Minor Gains of International Peace." He records his experiences in the canton of Lude, Switzerland, where he has lived among the people and discussed his ideas with them. The people recognize that war could only ruin them, whereas in times of peace foreign visitors to France bring trade; the hotels, the ways of transport, the watering-places,—all France, and particularly Paris, are all gainers.

Some Advantages of a National Church.—In opposition to the contention that the absence of a state church in America has been a great gain, the *Church Quarterly Review* (London), reviewing Sanford H. Cobb's "Rise of Religious Liberty in America," observes: "Mr. Cobb more than once pleads that the American nation is essentially a religious one. If by that he means that the life of the nation, as a whole, in its conformity to the teaching and moral principles of Christianity, compares not unfavorably with other communities placed under like conditions, we have no wish to dispute the point. . . . We . . . admit that the existence of a state church may be a danger to the warmth and intensity of spiritual life. The compensation, we think, lies in this,—that a church which is historically identified with the national life, which at every turn shows the outward and visible signs of that identity, offers safeguards against impatience, against rawness of thought, against the dictation of individual caprice. Will any one say that the religious life of America has not needed such safeguards, and often needed them all the more in proportion to its vitality and intensity? Would not the mental life of the United States as a whole have gained by a little more reverence, would not her spiritual life have gained by a good deal more sanity and reflectiveness? Continuity, too, is an effective guaranty against the reappearance of outworn fallacies and thrice-condemned experiments disguised as the latest product of advanced and enlightened thought. A national church, elastic enough to provide channels for fresh manifestations of spiritual life, yet anchored to the past, holding adherents by the joint spell of conviction and association, might, if its existence had been a possibility, have saved the United States from many of those grotesque and worse than grotesque features which have at various times disfigured their spiritual life."

SCIENCE IN FOREIGN PERIODICALS.

Artificial Cold for Industrial Purposes.—In a comprehensive analysis of the production of low temperature by artificial means, Henri Desmarest, in the *Revue Universelle* (Paris), traces the history of the idea back to the famous chemist, Leslie, in 1811. Since then, he declares, the artificial production of cold has been carried on by the same method,—the freezing of water by rapid evaporation. All the machinery for the manufacture of artificial ice, he declares, is operated on the same principle. The gases usually employed are sulphuric-acid, ammonia, or carbonic-acid; though sometimes, but rarely, methyl is used. Among the materials used to prevent melting after the artificial ice is formed, he names mineral wool, charcoal, and cinders, in the order of their effectiveness. He closes with a compliment to American family life, in the statement that ice plays as prominent a part in the management of the American home as charcoal does in France. There is no American house, no matter how small, he says, in which the food is not preserved and improved by storing it in some sort of refrigerator or ice-box.

"Spark Telegraphy."—A study of wireless telegraphy is presented in the Dutch review, *Elsevier* (Haarlem). The writer, Captain Collette, quotes, in his introductory paragraph, the words uttered by Hertz in 1889, to the effect that light is an electrical phenomenon, and that if we take away the ether we shall practically destroy electricity, magnetism, and light. Braun's invention, and other matters connected with the system, are touched upon or explained. It is curious to note the word used by the author to denote wireless telegraphy; it is equivalent to "spark telegraphy;" he also uses the German word "telefunken" (to telesparkle). Perhaps we shall sooner or later find ourselves using such a word as teleflash! At a time when every one is on the look-out for some fresh word to denote some action or object which already has its good and sufficient appellation, who knows what we may adopt to replace the lengthy "wireless telegraphy?"

Prevalence of Cancer.—Dr. Roger Williams, in the *Lancet* (London), treats of the prevalence of cancer. He states that it is reported that the Imperial Research Fund has come to the conclusion that there is no real increase in the number of cases of cancer. This statement he disputes, and gives his reasons for believing in a most decided increase. His statistics from 1840 to 1900 show that the death-rate per thousand has changed from 177 at the earlier date to 828 in 1900, and that the proportionate number of cases to the population has changed from 1 in 5,646 to 1 in 1,207. According to these

figures, which are presumably trustworthy, there is no question of the increase. He then takes up the various ways in which this apparent increase is explained. Many have thought this increase due simply to an increase in the population, but it is shown that the cancer mortality has increased threefold, while the population has doubled. It is not true that it is due to increase of average age, because of better hygienic conditions, for this increase is in the ages below those most subject to cancer. He then takes up the claim that the increased number may be due to more accurate diagnosis, and claims that this is balanced by the fact that old practitioners classed as cancer many tumors not of a malignant nature. The greater increase in men as compared with women he explains as probably due to urbanization, by which men are, to a large extent, living under conditions to which women were formerly more especially subject.

Ancestry of the Modern Horse.—Professor Lydekker, in *Knowledge and Scientific News*, discusses, in some detail, the origin of the modern horse. He finds that the horse of neolithic times was not specifically distinct from the horse of the present. While there is no doubt that the horse of that period was used by man for food, there seems to be no conclusive evidence as to whether it was domesticated or not. His own opinion, however, is that it was probably domesticated. The horse of that time was closely allied to the tarpan, or semi-wild horse, that lived in southern Russia up to a century ago. This was a "hog-maned," short-legged, large-headed beast. It seems probable that the domesticated horses of the Germans of Cæsar's time were derived from this breed. The Egyptians had horses as early as 1900 B.C. These were long-maned, more like the Arab horses, and came from Assyria. Where the Assyrians obtained them is unknown, but it was probably from southern Asia, where this long-maned breed has been developed, in all probability, as the result of long-continued domestication. Our modern horse is a cross between these two breeds, with a further mixture of the Arab horse. This Arab horse, too, was itself a descendant of the earlier long-maned horse. The origin of the long-maned horse is a matter of doubt, but Professor Lydekker thinks it may have been from an extinct Indian species.

Is the Lemon Antiseptic?—*La Nature* has a short note on the antiseptic properties of the juice of the lemon. A summary is given of the results obtained by Mr. Bissell under the direction of the Board of Health of Buffalo. A series of experiments, using juice of the lemon in the approximate strength of the ordinary lemonade, was made, and apparently showed that lemon-juice did not kill typhoid germs, but only retarded their growth. The author of the article in *La Nature* calls attention to the fact that these results are in disagreement with the results obtained in Europe, and that further experiments are necessary.

The Psychology of the Negro of Tropical Africa.—An article under this title, by Dr. Cureau, in *Revue Générale des Sciences* (Paris), is a somewhat detailed discussion of the intellectual and moral qualities of the African negro. There is no essential difference in qualities between the civilized man and the savage, the author believes. There is nothing in the civilized peoples that does not exist potentially in the negro. The difference is a quantitative one. Among the whites there is greater individual difference. One negro is very much like another; whites are more diverse. The whites possess greater extremes; there are among them individuals more vicious and more debased than the indigenous African. The savage simply lacks morality, while the white may be steeped in crime and debauchery. But, on the other hand, the white reaches heights of intellectuality and morality of which the negro has no conception. Then comes the question of the possibility of developing the negro. Can he reach the heights of the white? Anatomically, there is no reason why he should not; theoretically, evolution is possible, but this course of evolution should not be forced too rapidly. It has appeared, in some cases, that too rapid development has killed out savage races,—that, in the attempt to keep up with the civilized peoples, they have perished by the wayside. This, in the case of the negro, would not only be a misfortune from the standpoint of the humanitarian, but also from that of the economist, for negroes are necessary for the development of parts of Africa to which whites have not, and apparently cannot, become acclimated. The conclusion is that the evolution of the race should be gradual. They should be trained to greater skill in agriculture and the mechanic arts, and the highest results should be expected only after a long period of time. It is possible that this may be brought about, however, by the process of prolonged training.

The Production of Sugar in Europe.—The International Association of Statistics has made an investigation of the probable production of sugar in the principal European countries during the season 1903–04, and the *Revue des Statistiques* (Paris) gives the following data: The total production was 5,286,800 tons of raw sugar, as against 5,207,500 tons in 1902–03. All the countries of Europe increased their production except France and Russia, in which there was a decrease. The figures for the different countries are: France, 757,000 tons; Russia, 1,103,000 tons; Germany, 1,803,100 tons; Austria, 1,116,500 tons; Belgium, 215,300 tons; Holland, 129,000 tons; Sweden, 110,800 tons; Denmark, 51,800 tons.

The Psychology of Vanity.—A French scientist, M. Camille Mélinand, discusses, in *La Revue* (Paris), the psychological aspects of vanity, which, he declares, is the desire for praise become all-powerful. Vanity in the beginning, he declares, is more a caprice than a vice, but vices may arise out of it. He discusses vanity of dress, of manners, and of intellect. To prevent the development of vanity, he says, we should begin very early with the child. In fact, it is we who make the child vain by the misuse of praise, comparisons with companions, too much admiration; also by raillery, which may cause the child much suffering and teach him to fear criticism. There is too much appeal to *amour propre*, and there are too many competitions and prizes which may stimulate energy but require very prudent use. It would be better to compare the scholar with himself. To work to be the first need not be bad, but to work for the joy of working and learning is much better and less exciting. Finally, let us remember that the advantages we boast of have little value in themselves; all depends on the use we make of them. The only quality of which we can never be vain is justice.

THE NEW BOOKS.

NOTES ON RECENT AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS.

ANCIENT AND MODERN HISTORY.

A SERIES of lectures delivered before the Bangor (Maine) Theological Seminary by Dr. John P. Peters, rector of St. Michael's Church, New York, and author of "Nippur, Explorations and Adventures on the Europhrates," have been collected and published under the general title of "Early Hebrew Story : Its Historical Background" (Putnams). Dr. Peters considers the whole Old Testament story and its origins in history and ethnology.

A new edition of Wolf von Schierbrand's "Germany : The Welding of a World Power," has been issued by Doubleday, Page & Co. Dr. von Schierbrand's book was noticed in this REVIEW when it first appeared, in 1902.

John Fiske's "How the United States Became a Nation" (Ginn) has just been issued in attractive illustrated form, with many portraits and a map.

A valuable series of annotated reprints, entitled "Early Western Travels, 1748–1846," is now in course of publication (Cleveland : Arthur H. Clark Company). The editor, Mr. Reuben Gold Thwaites, secretary of the Wisconsin State Historical Society, whose work on "The Jesuit Relations" and other important historical publications has won the commendation of historical students the world over, has supplemented these reprints with notes on the history, geography, and ethnology of the regions described. Few readers to-day, we imagine, have any conception of the number of books of travel relating to the interior of North America that appeared during the last half of the eighteenth and the first half of the nineteenth centuries. Some of these were published in the United States, and some in Great Britain, and from them Mr. Thwaites has selected what he considers the volumes that are best fitted for permanent preservation as historical sources. Mr. Thwaites is himself an eminent authority on Western history, and his judgment will be accepted as that of an expert. Six volumes of the series have been issued thus far, and it is intended to issue thirty-one in all. The first volume comprises tours to the Ohio and what was then called the Western country, in 1748–65. This volume epitomizes the history of the English relations with the French and Indians upon the Western borders during the last French war, and its sequel, Pontiac's conspiracy. Two of the authors (Weiser and Croghan) were government Indian agents; one (Post) was a Moravian missionary, and the other (Morris) was a British army officer. The succeeding volumes comprise the voyages and travels of Indian traders, scientists, and men of leisure. All of these narratives have at least the value of genuineness, and form the very best of contemporary materials for the history of the exploration and settlement of the great West.

One of those contributions to history the value of which is recognized only by the few who are constantly delving for fresh material in the record of their country's beginnings has been made by Mr. Burton Alva Konkle in the form of a volume entitled "The Life and Times of Thomas Smith, 1745–1809" (Philadelphia : Campion & Co.). This Thomas Smith, whose name has almost faded from the pages of American history, was a Pennsylvania member of the Continental Congress, and his relations with the important men of the Revolutionary period, both in State and nation, make his biography important even at this day. The work seems to have been done with great care and thoroughness, and is vouched for by Attorney-General Carson, of Pennsylvania.

The second part of Mr. Thomas C. Dawson's "South American Republics," in "The Stories of the Nations Series" (Putnams), deals with the republics of Peru, Chile, Bolivia, Ecuador, Venezuela, Colombia, and Panama. The method of treatment adopted by Mr. Dawson is somewhat cumbersome, since it involves a repetition of certain topics which were common to the history of all the South American republics prior to the wars of liberation, in the early part of the nineteenth century. There is, however, an advantage in having each republic separately treated. This is especially true in the case of the youngest of all South American republics, that of Panama.



MR. THOMAS C. DAWSON.

Surely, nobody could be better qualified to tell the story of the Red Cross in America than Miss Clara Barton, who was the founder of the American National Red Cross and its president for so many years. Her little book, including glimpses of field work, has recently been published by the Appletons. After the introductory chapter, dealing with the early history of the organization, Miss Barton describes, in succession, the various calamities and periods of distress during which the society has rendered such efficient aid, beginning with the Texas famine and the Mount Vernon cyclone, 1885–88, and ending with the Galveston inundation of 1900. The longest chapter of all is devoted to the Cuban experiences of 1898. No patriotic American can read the record of this society without feeling that the Red Cross in this country has a distinct field and mission.

TOUCHING ON THE FAR-EASTERN SITUATION.

A very timely and informing little volume is Prof. T. J. Lawrence's "War and Neutrality in the Far East" (Macmillan). It contains the substance of four lectures delivered at Cambridge last spring and a paper read before the Royal (British) United Service Institution in May. Professor Lawrence, who is lecturer on international law at the British Royal Naval College, at Greenwich, deputy professor of international law at

Cambridge University, and author of "The Principles of International Law," etc., discusses most of the mooted questions which had arisen out of the far-Eastern conflict up to the middle of June, including those of Japan's attack without a declaration, blockading under modern conditions, rescues by neutrals, newspaper correspondents and wireless telegraphy, marine mines, the Russians in the Red Sea, contraband of war, the rights and duties of neutrals, and the position in international law of Korea and Manchuria.

Frederick Starr has written a brief account of "The Aino Group at the St. Louis Exposition," which has been published, with pictures, by the Open Court Publishing Company. Mr. Starr, it will be remembered, went through Yesso, the home of the Aino, and brought this group of individuals to the United States.

SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC DISCUSSION.

Not a few business men, we imagine, will be interested in Prof. Thorstein Veblen's book on "The Theory of Business Enterprise" (Scribners). The author of this work has taken as his point of view that given by the business man's work,—the aims, motives, and means that condition current business traffic. The author deals with "The Machine Process," "Business Enterprise," "Business Principles," "The Use of Loan Credit," "Modern Business Capital," "The Theory of Modern Warfare," "Business Principles in Law and Politics." "The Cultural Incidence of the Machine Process," and "The Natural Decay of Business Enterprise." Professor Veblen is shrewd and original in analysis, and has a facility in the statement of his positions that is, to say the least, unusual in academic treatises.

President Charles F. Thwing has done a useful service in collecting the opinions of practical men of affairs engaged chiefly in the lines of banking, transportation, and insurance concerning the value of a college training to the business man and presenting them in a little book of one hundred and fifty pages (Appletons). There is also a chapter on the advantages which a college may give to man as man; for, in Dr. Thwing's opinion, "the human worth of the college is incomparably superior to its worth in the training of efficient administrators."

A text-book which, it would seem, should speedily find a place for itself in academies, high schools, and business colleges is "A Geography of Commerce," compiled by Dr. John N. Tilden, author of "A Commercial Geography," and Albert Clarke, president of the United States Industrial Commission (Boston: Benjamin H. Sanborn & Co.). In this work, the various countries of the world are treated in the order of the importance of their existing commerce with the United States, while the industries and commerce of our own country receive much fuller consideration than is given to those of any other country. There is a good supply of excellent maps and diagrams accompanying the text.

The political and economic justification of the peace movement is ably set forth in "The Society of To-Morrow," by G. de Molinari, a translation of which has just been published by the Putnams. The appendix contains tables on the cost of war and of preparation for war, from 1898 to 1904, compiled by Edward Atkinson.

The latest volume in the Citizen's Library (Macmillan) is Prof. David Kinley's treatise on "Money." While this writer covers the ground recently occupied by Professor Laughlin's "Principles of Money," and in part by Professor Scott's "Money and Banking," he is not fully in accord with either of those writers on all points. Especially in his view of the influence of credit, Professor Kinley holds an independent position, maintaining that credit is one of the determinants of the price-level.

FOUR NEW NOVELS.

Mr. Alfred Henry Lewis has written another political novel, even more of a novel and more political than "The Boss." The new story is entitled "The President" (Barnes), and is full of dramatic incidents. Washington, Wall Street, and all the great game of national politics form the theme, while a tale of love and intrigue runs throughout. The illustrations are in color, by Jay Hambridge.



MR. ALFRED HENRY LEWIS.

Irving Bacheller has gone the way of many other writers in an attempt to produce a Roman story. His novels of American life have been accorded success, and it is to be regretted that he has left a field of writing peculiarly his own. The new tale, "Virgilius" (Harpers), is of the time of the birth of the Saviour, the scenes being in Rome under Augustus, and in Jerusalem under Herod. "Virgilius" is unfortunately weak. The situations are violent, but not strong. The scenes, some of which, like the visit of the Wise Men and the Angelic Chorus, offer great possibilities, fail to create an atmosphere; and the characters, while they are as good and as bad as it is possible for people to be, are story-book people only.

Henry Seton Merriman's latest (and last) novel, "The Last Hope" (Scribners), will hold the reader's interest throughout. It is a story of a Dauphin of France, grandson of Louis XVII., and of an attempt, in the troublous times of 1840–50, to place him on the throne and thus to perpetuate the Bourbon line.

Rose Cecil O'Neill, whose distinctive work in illustrating has been appearing for some time, makes her *début* in the literary field with "The Loves of Edwy" (Lothrop). Miss O'Neill's literary style is distinctive, and remarkably like her drawing in being highly exaggerative. The employment of words and phrases the meaning of which is extremely vague detracts largely from the enjoyment of the book. The story is really a vehicle for a good many trite sayings, and for the portrayal of some very strange people whom the reader will be glad to know of in the abstract only. On the whole, the book displays considerable originality.

ON LITERARY TOPICS.

A critical biography of Émile Zola from the pen of Mr. Ernest A. Vizetelly has just been brought out by John Lane. Mr. Vizetelly was associated with the late French master for many years, most of the English translations of Zola's works being the product of his pen. Enjoying Zola's friendship, and being thoroughly familiar with his work, views, and aspirations, Mr. Vizetelly is unusually well equipped for his task. He throws sidelights on the man by sketching pen portraits

of the novelist's friends, rivals, and enemies, and reviews social and literary tendencies of the times. Frequent quotations from the novelist's writings are interspersed in the text, which is also varied by excerpts from private letters and brightened with numerous portraits and other illustrations.



MR. ERNEST A. VIZETELLY.

"Journalism and Literature" (Houghton, Mifflin), by H. W. Boynton, is made up of a series of critical papers which have appeared in the *Alantic Monthly*. They deal for the most part with present-day tendencies in American literature.

The National Library series of little volumes issued by Cassells is very convenient in size and satisfactory in make-up. The volumes "Edgar Allan Poe's Tales" and "The Pilgrim's Progress" are before us.

"New England in Letters" is the title of a little book recording a series of pilgrimages to the New England scenes and places associated with the men and women who have helped to make our national literature (New York: A. Wessels Company). The author, Mr. Rufus Rockwell Wilson, is known by his "Rambles in Colonial Byways" and other attractive descriptive works. The writers whose homes and haunts are described in this book are Longfellow, Whittier, Hawthorne, Emerson, Holmes, and many other literary worthies of Concord, Cambridge, and Boston. There is also an entertaining chapter devoted to Connecticut authors, and a chapter on "The Berkshires and Beyond" includes some interesting allusions to William Cullen Bryant.

PHILOSOPHY, EXPOSITORY AND HISTORICAL.

In his "Outlines of Psychology" (Macmillan), Dr. Josiah Royce, professor of the history of philosophy at Harvard, presupposes a serious reader, not, he says, "one trained either in experimental methods or in philosophical inquiries." He endeavors "to tell him a few things that seem important, regarding the most fundamental and general processes, laws, and conditions of mental life." The whole volume, in fact, which is subheaded "An Elementary Treatise, with Some Practical Applications," is free from technical details, and is presented in Dr. Royce's own charming style.

An ambitious and yet not heavy work is Dr. William Turner's "History of Philosophy" (Ginn). This is a comprehensive history, presented primarily as a textbook, covering the entire field of philosophy to the present day, written in the spirit of recent scholarship, and presented in an attractive typographical form. Dr. Turner is professor of the history of philosophy in the St. Paul Seminary.

Gabriel Tarde's rather famous work, "The Laws of Imitation," has been translated (from the second French edition) by Elsie Clews Parsons, and Prof. Franklin H. Giddings (of Columbia) has written an introduction to the volume (Holt). Dr. Tarde, who is professor of modern philosophy in the Collège de France and a member of the Institute, has been a pioneer in that section of the philosophical field in which he writes.

Several months before his death, the late Henry Sidgwick, professor of moral philosophy at Cambridge University, completed a work on philosophy, which has since been published, combined with a course of lectures, in the whole of which an attempt is made to define the scope and relations of philosophy, especially to psychology, logic, and history. The volume has been issued (Macmillan) under the title "Philosophy: Its Scope and Relations."

Prof. James Mark Baldwin's "Development and Evolution" (Macmillan) is intended to complement his first work, "Social and Ethical Interpretations." Professor Baldwin's work at Princeton University needs no introduction or qualification. In this volume, which includes treatment of psychophysical evolution, evolution by orthoplasy, and the theory of genetic modes, he has combined philosophic style with a smooth and pleasing diction,—so desirable and yet so rare among scientific writers.

"An account of the philosophical development, which shall contain the most of what a student can fairly be expected to get from a college course, and which shall be adapted to class-room work," is what Dr. Arthur Kenyon Rogers has attempted to do in his "Student's History of Philosophy" (Macmillan). Dr. Rogers is professor of philosophy in Butler College.

SOME NEW WORKS ON PHYSIOGRAPHY AND ELECTRICITY.

Up to thirty years ago, the works published on earthquakes were little more than narratives of disasters. Scientific study of the subject began with the invention of the seismograph, the instrument by which is registered the violence of earthquake shocks. The first real scientific study of earthquakes in attractive, comprehensive typographical form is "Earthquakes in the Light of the New Seismology" (Putnams), by Clarence Edward Dutton, major in the United States army, and author of "The High Plateaus of Utah," "Hawaiian Volcanoes," "The Charleston Earthquake," etc. This volume is well illustrated.

Dr. Edwin Grant Dexter's book on "Weather Influences" (Macmillan) is, so far as we know, the first successful attempt to bring within the compass of a single convenient-sized volume the results of scientific investigations into the physiological effects of meteorological conditions. The relations of weather states to the child, crime, insanity, health, suicide, drunkenness, attention, and literature form subjects for chapters, and will indicate the range of the book. Dr. Dexter is professor of education at the University of Illinois.

"Practical Lessons in Electricity" consists of "The Elements of Electricity and the Electric Current," by L. K. Sager, formerly assistant examiner of the United States Patent Office; "Electric Wiring," by H. C. Cushing, Jr., author of "Standard Wiring for Electric Light and Power," and "Storage Batteries," by Dr. F. B. Crocker, of Columbia University. The whole is "selected from the text-books in the electrical engineering course of the American School of Correspondence at the Armour Institute of Technology," in Chicago.

Dr. O. Rosenbach's "Physician *vs.* Bacteriologist" has been translated from the original German by Dr Achilles Rose and brought out in this country by the Funk & Wagnalls Company. Dr. Rosenbach's aim is to oppose "unjustified and unwarranted claims of the bac-

teriologist, aiming directly at tuberculin and the legion of serums." He criticises what he calls "morbid specialism" in medicine.

Israel C. Russell, professor of geology in the University of Michigan, has prepared a volume on North America for "The Regions of the World" series, which the Appletons are issuing under the editorship of Mr. H. J. Mackinder, of Oxford. Professor Russell's book is comprehensive, even exhaustive, and is copiously illustrated with maps and diagrams.

EDUCATIONAL AND REFERENCE BOOKS.

A useful little manual for all who are interested in educational matters, and, indeed, as a text-book itself, is Dr. Cheesman A. Herrick's "Meaning and Practice of Commercial Education," which has just been issued by the Macmillans. Dr. Herrick is director of the School of Commerce which is part of the Philadelphia Central High School, and brings to his task a scholarship which has been vitalized by long and active contact with the business world.

"Nay vwooe kawng taung whar may?"—Do you speak Chinese?—greets us on the cover of Dr. Walter Brounder's interesting volume, "Chinese Made Easy" (Macmillan). This is a scholarly but not abstruse outline of the genius, structure, and distribution of the Chinese language, with lists and definitions. In the compilation, Dr. Brounder has been assisted by Fung Yuet Mow, a Chinese missionary in New York.

"The Teaching of English" (Longmans), written in collaboration by Profs. G. R. Carpenter and F. T. Baker, of Columbia University, and by Prof. F. N. Scott, Ph.D., of the University of Michigan, has recently appeared in the American Teachers Series. Although intended primarily for teachers, the book will be found to be of interest to all people of literary tastes. The authors are among the foremost teachers of English in this country, and their discussion of the methods employed and the results obtained, together with a history of study of our mother tongue, is highly instructive and entertaining.

The American Jewish Year Book for 1904–1905 (5665), edited by Cyrus Adler and Henrietta Szold, has just been issued by the Jewish Publication Society of America. It is the sixth volume, and is prevailingly biographical in character. The two chief phases considered are the biographical sketches and the passport question, the latter particularly with reference to Russia.

Mr. Hamilton Busbey, well known as an authority on horses, has contributed a volume on "The Trotting and the Pacing Horse in America" to "The American Sportsman's Library" (Macmillan). The book contains enough of common interest to make it appeal to the general reader as well as to the horse-fancier.

OTHER LATE BOOKS.

An entirely new biographical sketch of Emperor William of Germany, under the title "Imperator et Rex," by the author of "The Martyrdom of an Empress," has been issued by the Harpers. In this well-illustrated sketch, the Kaiser is shown to be a warm-hearted, impulsive man, with a deep love for family and home. His family and charming home life are described with picturesque touches.

"Man and Superman" (Brentano) is the title of a brilliantly written drama by George Bernard Shaw, which is subtitled "A Comedy and a Philosophy." Every one who has enjoyed "An Unsocial Socialist," "The Quintessence of Ibsenism," and "Candida" will find in "Man and Superman" the same crisp phrasing of philosophical and witty truths. It is the story of a modern Don Juan, and is supplemented by an exposition of the author's philosophical and social views, under the heading "The Revolutionist's Handbook."



MR. GEORGE BERNARD SHAW.

Mary Platt Parmele, author of "The Kingdom of the Invisible," has written a plain but searching little booklet entitled "Christian Science,—Is It Christian? Is It Science?" (J. F. Taylor). The conclusion may be found in these words: "Mrs. Eddy has not discovered Idealism. What she has done is to lay violent hands upon an old Philosophy which will not die because it contains a sublime truth, and then to supplement this misunderstood truth with an unrighteous addition of her own, which is *not* true."

In her own gentle, thought-provoking way, Margaret E. Sangster has written a pleasant volume entitled "The Little Kingdom of Home" (J. F. Taylor). It consists of good advice to American home-makers,—a plea for a quiet, gentle home life which shall bring out the best in our boys and girls.



MR. GEORGE LORIMER.

"Old Gorgon Graham," the "self-made merchant," who has charmed us all by his homely, pungent wisdom, has been writing more letters to his son, and they show no diminution of humor or wisdom. Mr. George Lorimer's second volume, which has just been brought out by Doubleday, Page & Co., is somewhat of a departure from his first, in that it deals with larger problems. These letters are from old John Graham to his son, not the subordinate clerk, but one of the managers of his business. This volume is illustrated.

BOOKS RECENTLY RECEIVED.

Adventures of Buffalo Bill, The. By Col. W. F. Cody. Harpers.
American Boy's Life of Theodore Roosevelt. By Edward Stratmeyer. Lee & Shepard.
American Myths and Legends. By Charles M. Skinner. Lippincott.
Analytical Psychology. By Lightner Witmer. Ginn & Co.
Assyrian and Babylonian Letters. By Robert Francis Harper. University of Chicago Press.
Blue Grass Cook Book, The. By Minnie C. Fox. Fox, Duffield.
Boys' Self-Governing Clubs. By Winifred Buck. Macmillan.
Brief History of Mathematics, A. By Wooster Woodruff Beman and David Eugene Smith. (Translation of Dr. Karl Fink's Geschichte der Elementar-Mathematik.)
Broader Elementary Education. By J. P. Gordy. Hinds & Noble.
Castle Comedy, The. (Illustrated edition.) By Thompson Buchanan. Harpers.
Child Mind, The. By R. H. Bretherton. John Lane.
Comments of Ruskin on the Divina Commedia. By George P. Huntington. Houghton, Mifflin.
Compendium of Drawing. Two volumes. American School of Correspondence.
Complete Pocket-Guide to Europe, The. By Edmund Clarence Stedman and Thomas L. Stedman. W. R. Jenkins.
Composition and Rhetoric. By A. Howry Espenshade. D. C. Heath & Co.
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EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW.

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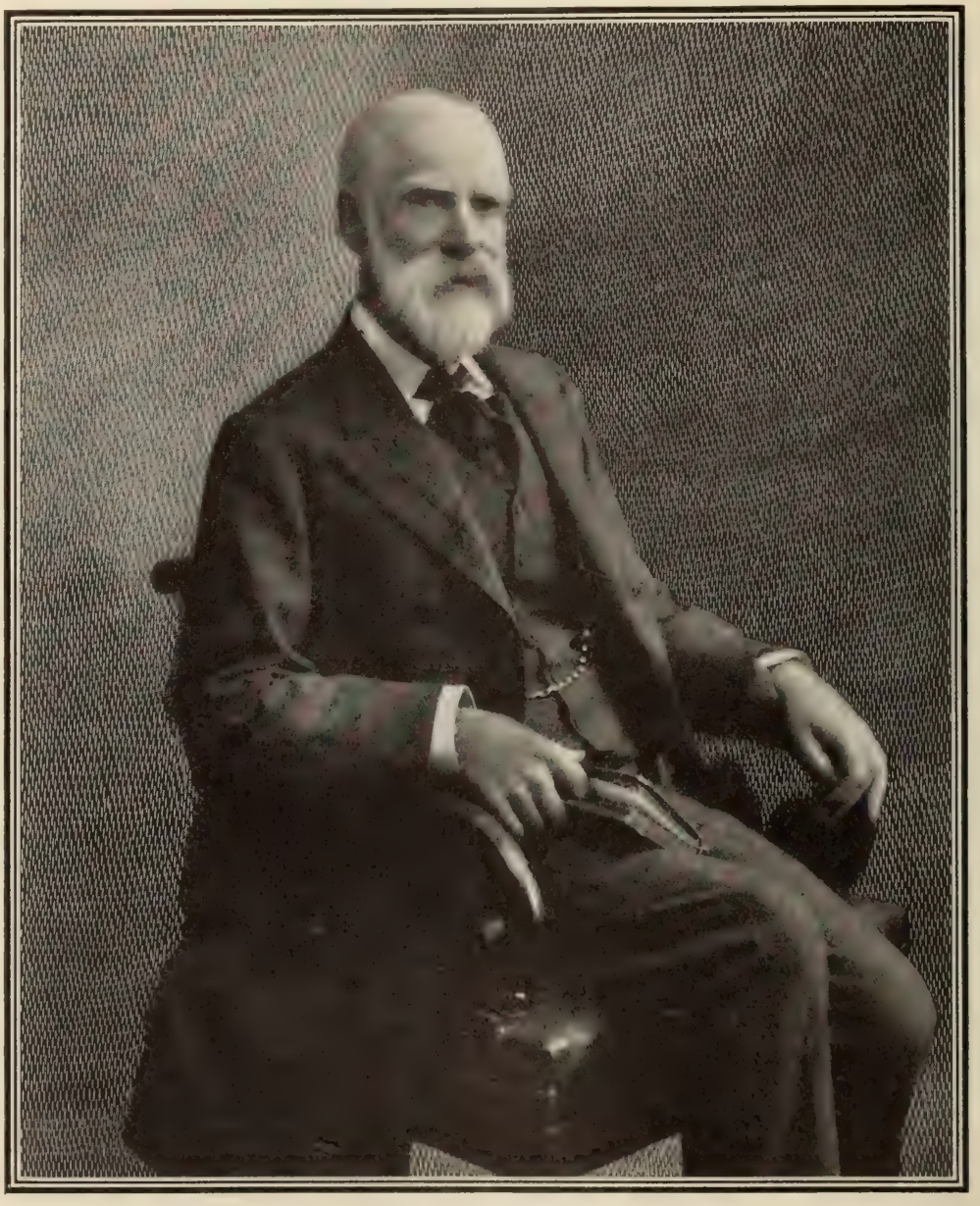
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THE RT. HON. JAMES BRYCE, M.P.

WHO IS NOW VISITING THE UNITED STATES.

(From a photograph taken last month for this magazine by Messrs. Davis & Sanford, of New York.)

THE AMERICAN MONTHLY

Review of Reviews.

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THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

The Presidential Election.

In accordance with the Constitution and the laws of the country, an election is held every four years to select a group of men who in turn are charged with the duty of electing a President of the United States. The date of the popular election is always the first Tuesday after the first Monday, in the November preceding the expiration of a Presidential term. The term ends on the fourth day of next March. The balloting for Presidential electors occurs on the eighth day of the present month. The number of electors to be chosen this year is 476. This number is in accordance with the clause of the Constitution which directs that the number of electors shall equal that of the whole number of Senators and Representatives in Congress. Since the last election, this number is, of course, affected by the reapportionment of seats in Congress that follows each decennial census-taking. Including the 3 electoral votes of Utah, which were first counted in 1896, the so-called "Electoral College," under the census of 1890, has consisted of 447 members. It is now increased by 29 members. The electors, as chosen on November 8, will meet in their respective States on the second Monday of next January and cast their ballots, first for a President, and then for a Vice-President. The results of their voting on that day will be transmitted to Washington, and the president of the Senate, with the two chambers of Congress in joint session, will, on the second Wednesday of next February, open the certificates that have come from the forty-five States, and the votes will be duly counted and the result declared. The person having the greatest number of votes will be President of the United States, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors. In other words, this year there must be at least 239 electors voting either for Mr. Roosevelt or for Judge Parker in order to secure the election of one or the other of these leading candidates.

A Complicated System.

If a part of the electoral votes should be cast for Mr. Watson, Mr. Swallow, Mr. Debs, or some other Presidential candidate, then it might happen that neither Mr. Roosevelt nor Judge Parker would have a clear majority of the whole number of electors. In that case, the three names having the highest number of votes,—for example, Mr. Roosevelt, Mr. Parker, and Mr. Watson,—would be presented to the House of Representatives at Washington, and this house would be in duty bound, under the Constitution, to make an immediate selection, by ballot, from those three names. The present house being Republican, it would, of course, vote accordingly. We make no apology whatever for recalling to the minds of our readers these facts, familiar as they are to almost every one. The method of electing a President of the United States is quite arbitrary in some of its aspects, and also rather complicated. A good many of our readers live in foreign countries, and it is not to be expected that they should be familiar with the mechanism of American elections. On the other hand, there are not a few intelligent Americans of both sexes who sometimes, for a moment, are either puzzled or forgetful about some point in the Presidential election system. The most important thing to remember is that the framers of the Constitution did not foresee the development of our rigid party organizations and thought they were providing for an electoral college which should have actual as well as theoretical discretion in the selection of a President. It was the belief of the fathers of the republic that there would be chosen as Presidential electors a group of citizens very highly trusted by the people and especially conversant with public men and measures. It was supposed, further, that an electoral body thus constituted would be more likely to select for President some truly fitting successor of Washington than would the people themselves.



Mr. Nathan Straus, of New York. Mr. Herman Ridder, of New York.

THE TWO MEN WHO LEAD THE LIST OF THIRTY-NINE NAMES ON THE DEMOCRATIC ELECTORAL TICKET IN NEW YORK.

How the Parties Control the Machinery.

Quite early in our history, however, the public men of the country began to be divided into parties, and the private citizens followed their leaders, until the party system became firmly fixed. Then there was gradually evolved the party machinery for selecting candidates, the most important manifestations of party life being found in the great national conventions for the selection of candidates for the Presidency and the Vice-Presidency, the framing of a national party platform, and the appointment of a national party committee to conduct the quadrennial campaign. Under this system, there came into being an unwritten law in accordance with which the Presidential electors under normal circumstances gave up their discretionary functions. Thus, the Democratic party having made Judge Parker its candidate for President, all the electors who will be chosen in Democratic States on the 8th of the present month will in January cast their votes for him without question; and they would be rightly regarded as guilty of a most heinous breach of faith if on any mere ground of personal or private preference they should cast their votes for Mr. Bryan, Mr. Cleveland, or any other Democrat except Judge Parker, the duly chosen candidate of the party.

The Distribution of Electoral Strength.

It remains a very honorable thing to be selected in any State by the fellow-members of one's party as a candidate for Presidential elector. But the honor carries with it no anxious burden of discretion or duty. In the case of the death of Mr. Roosevelt or Judge Parker before the electors convene on the second Monday of next January, general party action would be taken to select a new candidate, and the electors would faithfully obey the mandate of the duly constituted party authorities. The number of electors at present assigned to each of the forty-five States of the Union is as follows:

Alabama	11	Nevada	3
Arkansas	9	New Hampshire	4
California	10	New Jersey	12
Colorado	5	New York	39
Connecticut	7	North Carolina	12
Delaware	3	North Dakota	4
Florida	5	Ohio	23
Georgia	13	Oregon	4
Idaho	3	Pennsylvania	34
Illinois	27	Rhode Island	4
Indiana	15	South Carolina	9
Iowa	13	South Dakota	4
Kansas	10	Tennessee	12
Kentucky	13	Texas	18
Louisiana	9	Utah	3
Maine	6	Vermont	4
Maryland	8	Virginia	12
Massachusetts	16	Washington	5
Michigan	14	West Virginia	7
Minnesota	11	Wisconsin	13
Mississippi	10	Wyoming	3
Missouri	18		
Montana	3	Total	476
Nebraska	8		

Advantages of the Small States.

Two or three general facts are to be noted as characterizing the existing electoral system. In the first place, it gives to the people living in small States a much larger part in the selection of President than to the people living in large States. This is because the very smallest States are accorded by the Constitution their two members of the United States Senate and at least one representative in the other house of Congress, and so they must be allowed at least three votes in the Electoral College. To show the effect of this method upon the election of President, a concrete statement or two may be useful. Thus, Delaware, Nevada, Wyoming, Idaho, Montana, and Utah have each 3 Presidential electors, or 18 for the six States. Their aggregate population, by the census of 1900, was 1,001,451. The States of Missouri and Texas, on the other hand, have each just 18 members in the Electoral College, and by the same census Missouri had 3,106,665 people, while Texas had 3,048,710. In other words, the voters in the six smaller States just named have on the average three times as much voting power in the choice of President of the United States as those in Missouri or Texas. North Dakota and South Dakota have each 4 members in the Electoral College, and aggregating them with the six States named above, we find a total population of 1,722,167 possessing 26 votes in the Electoral College. Over against this we find Illinois having 27 electoral votes, with a census population of 4,821,550; and, also, we find Ohio having

only 23 electoral votes, with a population of 4,157,545. As the newer States grow in population, these inequalities diminish. Furthermore, the distribution of party strength is such that in practice neither of the chief political organizations feels itself at any great disadvantage on account of this concession in favor of the small States.

The General Ticket Plan.

Another point to be noted is that it has now come to be the uniform method throughout the States to choose the electors on a general ticket. At an earlier period it was the custom for all the voters of the State to vote for the two electors corresponding with the two members of the Senate, while the others were chosen singly in Congressional districts of the State. Gradually this plan was given up in favor of the existing system, by which each party in State conventions selects its full list of electoral candidates; so that it is usually quite certain that in each State the entire group of electors will belong to the same party. It is this existing method which gives such tremendous importance to the political campaign in a large State where the parties are somewhat evenly divided. Under the system that formerly prevailed, for example, the electoral vote of the State of New York would be of comparatively small importance at the present time. This can be explained in a word. New York, having 2 Senators and 37 seats in the House of Representatives, obviously has 39 Presidential electors. At the present time, 20 of the New York members of the House are Republicans and 17 are Democrats, while the 2 Senators are Republicans. Under the former method of choosing Presidential electors, one would be chosen in each Congressional district, and if there should be no party gain or loss in these districts since 1902, there would be 20 Republican and 17 Democratic electors, whereas if the Democrats carried the State, they would also have the 2 electors-at-large, and New York, in the electoral voting of the 9th of next January, would cast 20 votes for Theodore Roosevelt and 19 votes for Alton B. Parker. In such case, the Republican half of the State and the Democratic half would almost exactly neutralize each other in the Presidential election, just as in several past Presidential elections Iowa and Kentucky have offset each other, Iowa choosing 13 Republican electors and Kentucky choosing 13 Democratic electors. The Congressional districts throughout the country are practically uniform in population, while the States are very diverse in size. If Presidential electors were chosen singly in Congressional districts, the total result would better express the sentiment of the country; while it is also evident that there would be far less temptation to improper election methods.

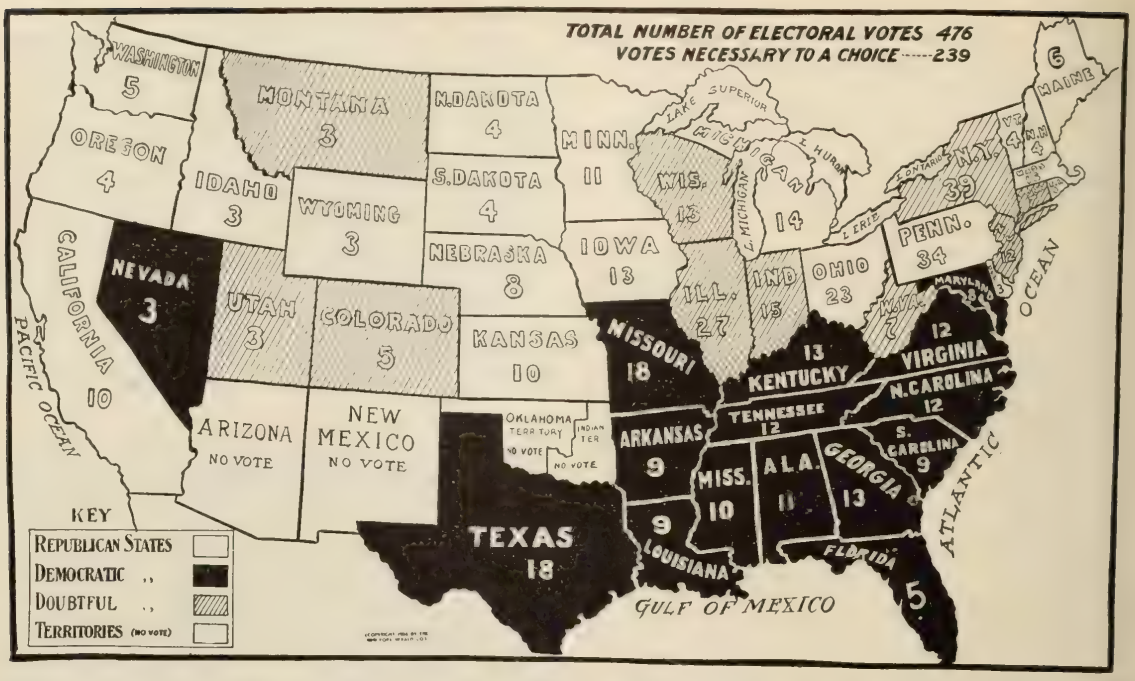
New York as the Great Prize.

Under the present system, everything turns upon the carrying of several important States regarded as doubtful enough to give either great party a so-called "fighting chance." This year, for example, the great prize to be competed for is the block of 39 electoral votes belonging to the State of New York. When, as is the case often, the Republican majority in the State outside of New York City is almost exactly matched by the great Democratic majority of the metropolitan area, the situation becomes tense in the extreme. Thus, James G. Blaine would have been President of the United States but for the lack of a few hundred votes in the State of New York, and the Republicans have claimed for twenty years that the frauds perpetrated by the late John Y. McKane in a single voting precinct in the suburbs of Brooklyn were alone sufficient to have turned the scale and given the country four years of Democratic administration. It would be better if so much were not depending upon the count in a single State. There is no practical politician who for a moment regards the success of the Democratic national ticket this year as possible without the electoral vote of New York. The Republicans, on the other hand, may lose New York and still carry the country, although they would not think it safe to run the risk, and are exerting themselves to the utmost to make themselves absolutely safe by winning the 39 New York votes. During the closing days of the campaign, the fight in New York will therefore become very intense.



Mr. Charles A. Schieren. Mr. George Urban.

THE TWO MEN WHO LEAD THE LIST OF THIRTY-NINE NAMES ON THE REPUBLICAN ELECTORAL TICKET IN NEW YORK.



THE NEW YORK "HERALD'S" CHART INDICATING THE CONDITIONS AT THE OPENING OF THE PRESIDENTIAL CONTEST OF 1904.

"Conceded" and "Doubtful" States.

At the very outset of the campaign it was conceded by the Republicans that the Democrats would probably in any case have the 162 electoral votes of the following States: Alabama, Arkansas, Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi, Missouri, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, and Virginia. Conditions have since changed somewhat in Delaware through the patching up of the feud between the Addicks faction and the regular Republicans, but as the campaign approaches an end, it is probably fair to say that the Republicans do not expect to have an electoral vote from any of the other States mentioned in the list above. The States regarded from the outset as most certainly Republican, and virtually conceded to be such by the Democratic campaign managers, were, to take them alphabetically, California, Iowa, Kansas, Maine, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Nebraska, Nevada, New Hampshire, North Dakota, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Dakota, Vermont, Washington, and Wyoming. These States have a total electoral vote of 180. As the campaign advances, the Democrats become more hopeful as respects one or two of the smaller of these States,—Nevada, for example. But little or nothing has happened to change the early expectation that all the more important of these States would cast their electoral vote for the Roosevelt and Fairbanks ticket. If these two lists, then, be allowed to stand, there will remain 134 electoral votes belonging to the States not conceded in advance to either party. From this list of so-called "doubtful" States, the Republicans, in order to get the necessary majority of 239 votes from the total body of electors, would have to win at least 59, while the Democrats must win at least 77. Eleven States have been commonly assigned to this list, and they are as follows, in the order of their political importance, with the number of their respective electoral votes: New York, 39; Illinois, 27; Indiana, 15; Wisconsin, 13; New Jersey, 12; Connecticut, 7; West Virginia, 7; Colorado, 5; Montana, 3; Utah, 3, and Idaho, 3.

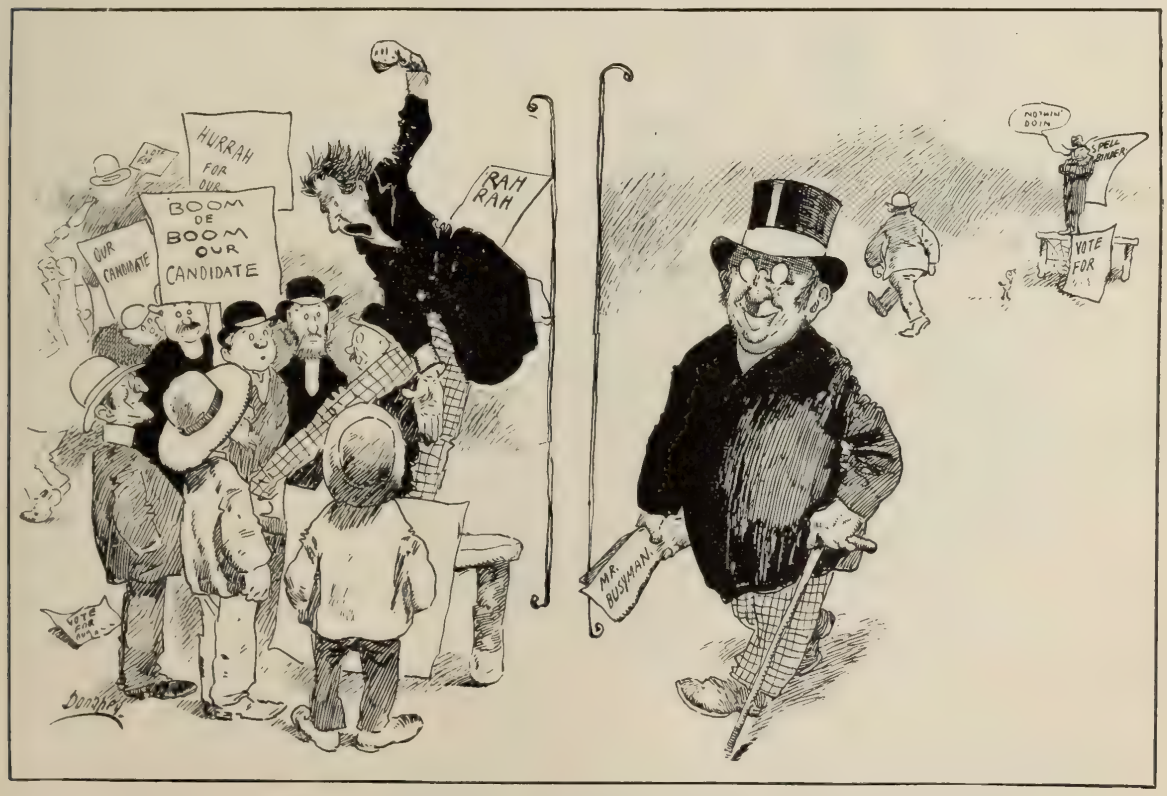
The Drifting Straws of Opinion.

As October advanced, the confidence of the Republicans seemed to increase very steadily, and the opinion seemed to prevail quite generally throughout the country that Mr. Roosevelt would be elected. Such a result, however, was by no means a certainty, and the Republican managers were not a little apprehensive lest their cause might suffer from over-confidence. While no particular importance should attach to the election betting, and while on many occasions the odds as published are the result of campaign devices and strategies, it is still true that to some extent the recording of election bets in Wall Street indicates the drift

of opinion among tolerably shrewd men as to how the political tides are setting. Thus, in July, very soon after Judge Parker's nomination, the prevailing odds were 10 to 7 in favor of Roosevelt on the general result. In the middle of October the odds had become 4 to 1. As explained in these pages last month, the principal campaign activities were deferred until October. Even then the campaign was marked by a general calmness and lack of the noisy and spectacular incidents that have usually accompanied Presidential elections. There remained, of course, room in the last week of October and the first week of November for some marked change in the current; but, so far as could be judged in a period when impartial views are naturally very difficult to obtain, the Republicans were much more hopeful than the Democrats, and with apparently good reason for their optimism.

Persistent Apathy.

It had been found useless to try, through the months of July, August, and September, to galvanize a cheerful but apathetic public into a mood of political furor. It was therefore determined that the demonstrative side of the campaign should be postponed until October 1. But even then the public maintained its calmness, persisted in giving its attention to the ordinary affairs of life, and did not clamor at all for spellbinders, torchlight parades, or political documents. It was not until the middle of October that the observer could begin to discover any of those outward signs that have usually marked a Presidential election period. Day after day spent upon the exposition grounds at St. Louis, with hundreds of thousands of men passing under inspection, failed to discover half-a-dozen campaign buttons or badges. In the trains, on the street cars, and in places where men congregate, there was almost as little political talk to be overheard as in an off year. Heated discussions like those of 1896 or 1900 were hardly to be heard anywhere. At national campaign headquarters, in New York, while doubtless there was due diligence on the part of those in authority, the visitor could discover no signs of tense effort or thrilling activity. On the contrary, the political headquarters were among the least strenuous and bustling places, so far as visible indications went, to be found anywhere in the metropolis. The chief topic was the apparent total lack of political interest.



AS IT WAS IN 1896 AND 1900; AS IT IS IN 1904.—CHANGED TIMES FOR THE CAMPAIGN ORATOR.
From the *Plain Dealer* (Cleveland).

The Campaign Money.

This was partly to be accounted for by the reduced size of the campaign funds. The estimate that the Republicans have had less than half as much to spend this year as they had four years ago would hardly be contradicted by those who know the facts. The Democratic funds are probably much larger this year than four years ago, for the reason that the Parker candidacy was promoted and secured by Eastern men of financial strength and influence, while the Bryan movement of four years and eight years ago was distinctly a poor man's movement, and was supported by intense feeling and enthusiasm rather than by cash. But there is no reason to suppose that the Democrats this year have much, if any, more money to spend than the Republicans. It is not alone in the Wall Street betting odds that the Republican cause has been looking up in that particular center of interest. A great many Wall Street men are now of opinion that it was a very salutary thing for the business of the country that the Northern Securities litigation was entered upon by President Roosevelt. The earlier belief that business and corporation interests centering in New York would this year withhold both votes and money from Republican support has not been borne out.

Mr. Cortelyou and the Trusts.

There has been a widespread attempt to make it appear that Mr. Cortelyou, chairman of the Republican National Committee, has been engaged in blackmailing corporations for political funds. An air of good faith and plausibility has been given to this accusation by the placing of much stress upon Mr. Cortelyou's recent relations to the business of the country in his position as Secretary of Commerce and Labor. This new department at Washington has power to investigate, under the President's direction, certain matters relating to interstate commerce; and its Bureau of Corporations may also look into alleged abuses on the part of any of the so-called trusts. The new department has, however, a vast number of other interests and duties pertaining to it. It has occurred to some ingenious minds that Mr. Cortelyou might have been employing his brief period as Secretary of Commerce in prying into the secrets of corporations, in order that he might subsequently use these as a means by which to extort campaign contributions. Having conceived of such a thing as possible, several of the New York newspapers adopted the assumption that the possible was the real. For weeks past, therefore, they have day by day made general charges and accusations. Of course, the simple fact is that Mr. Cortelyou did not spend even a fractional part of his time as Secretary in prying into the secrets of corporations. As for getting such secrets for campaign use, nobody had any idea that he would have the campaign on his hands. Mr. Hanna's illness and death made it necessary to find a new chairman. Various men were invited to take the



"THE DEMOCRATIC PARTY HAS NO INDUSTRIAL FAVORITES FROM WHOM, EITHER BY PROMISES OR BY THREATS, IT CAN DRAW CAMPAIGN SUBSCRIPTIONS." George Foster Peabody, treasurer National Democratic Committee.

From the *Leader* (Cleveland).



THE DOUBLE-HEADED CORTELYOU,—A WORD TO THE WISE.

THE CHAIRMAN HEAD: "Better get on good terms with my other head; he's got a good memory."

From the *Brooklyn Eagle* (New York).

arduous post, but for one reason or another they could not assume a responsibility that usually taxes both time and physical strength so severely.

The Real Cortelyou.

Mr. Cortelyou's final selection, far from being made with a view to getting campaign funds, was sharply criticised and much opposed on the ground that his inexperience and lack of acquaintance with business men would much increase the difficulty of raising money. He was selected because of his remarkable executive abilities, his loyal and sincere qualities (so thoroughly tested by three Presidents), and the harmonious feeling likely to result from the choice of a man thoroughly trusted and esteemed by the especial friends and supporters of the late Mr. McKinley and the late Mr. Hanna, on the one hand, and on the other by the friends and supporters of President Roosevelt. Every true and thoughtful citizen, whatever his party, wishes to see politics run on legitimate lines. The country is to be congratulated when high-minded men do hard, energetic political work, while repudiating every form of corruption or fraud. Mr. Cortelyou's selection was honorable and creditable. It adds grievously to the difficulties in the way of political progress when the newspapers that assume to stand for the highest and best things carry on campaigns of slander, preferring to call the good bad and the bad good.

The Temper of the Contest.

It is undeniable that men of honor and good faith like President Roosevelt and Mr. Cortelyou have been much more fairly treated throughout this campaign by the regular Democratic newspapers than by the so-called independent press, which has carried malignity into a contest from which that quality of mind has otherwise been happily absent. The Democrats have been quite justified, in accordance with the traditions of party campaigning, in making all the capital they could out of the Philippine question, the tariff question, Republican extravagance, or any other aspect of public policy. The Republicans, on their part, have been justified in pointing out the essential incoherence of the Democratic party, and the reasons why it should not now be intrusted with the powers of government. In a general way, the campaign has been one of remarkably good temper. There has been scrupulously fair personal treatment of Judge Parker; in the main, there has been as good treatment of President Roosevelt as could have been expected. Obviously, Mr. Roosevelt was the more open to attack, because the real issue of the campaign is his record as President. The attacks have nearly all been along the lines of public action and policy, rather than private or personal.



CONGRATULATIONS IN ORDER.

ROOSEVELT: "De-e-lighted to hear that you have a cinch."

PARKER: "Allow me to congratulate you. I understand there is no longer any doubt but that you will be elected to the high office to which you aspire."

From the *Journal* (Minneapolis).

A Little-Known Candidate

It is to be noted as a singular fact that Judge Parker, toward the end of the campaign, still remains to the great majority of Americans a man of mystery, —indeed, almost a myth. The whole campaign was marked by strong difference of opinion among leading Democrats on the question whether or not Judge Parker should have made a speaking tour of the country. Republicans, also, have, both in the newspapers and in private circles, discussed this question a good deal. Now that the campaign is so near its end, the matter may be regarded in a somewhat academic or historical light. On the one hand, it is said that no candidate for the Presidency was ever elected who made a stumping campaign on his own behalf. Perhaps a fair answer to this point would be that circumstances alter cases, and that no two campaigns are alike. It makes a difference whether a candidate is already well known to the people or not. It also makes a difference whether the voters are principally choosing between candidates, between parties, or between opposite sides of questions. Thus, in 1896 it was not a question of the personality of candidates, nor yet one of a choice between parties. It was rather a matter of decision upon a controverted public question,—namely, that of money. In 1892, it was mainly a question of parties with respect to policy on a great issue,—the tariff. Mr. Cleveland and Mr. Harrison were both highly respected candidates, and the personal equation did not rule the case. This year, particular questions are not very sharply dividing public opinion. Party feeling is not acute. The question is one mainly of confidence or lack of confidence in President Roosevelt's ability to direct the affairs of the country wisely for another four years. The dominating question of President Roosevelt's personality gives great importance to the next question of interest, which is that of the personality of the man who is proposed by the Democrats to take his place.

An Unutilized Asset.

Looking at the situation from this standpoint, the best asset of the anti-Roosevelt forces this year is Judge Parker himself. The mere utterances of a man on certain topics with which he is not very familiar are of small consequence when compared with the qualities of the man himself. His firmness, sagacity, intelligence, and, in general, his power to meet situations as they may present themselves, are what the people want to know about. A New York workingman, a Democrat and a supporter of the ticket, remarked, rather dubiously, last month, "I reckon that the Jedge hain't quite riz to the occasion." Whatever of truth there may be in this remark may be attributed to bad advice on the part of the Democratic managers. The country has not really cared to know how ingenious Judge Parker might be in the making of phrases or in the creating of issues in his letter of acceptance. President Eliot is quoted as saying that the Judge's style is prolix and otherwise imperfect. But the people care very little about that. Mr. Cleveland's style has been very much criticised, and there be many purists who object to Mr. Roosevelt's way of using the English language. The people have wanted to see, hear, and know the man, not the rhetorician or debater.

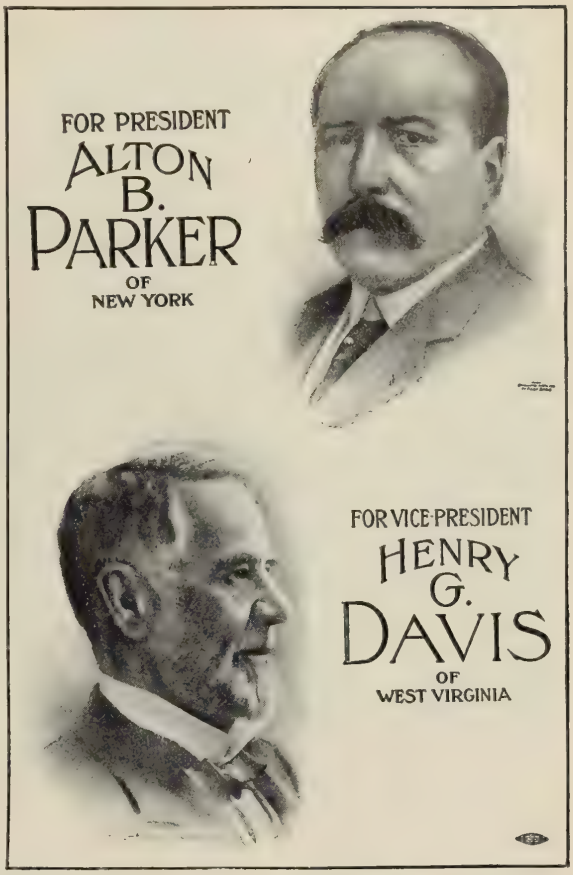
The Man Rather Than His Views.

Nobody would have expected Judge Alton B. Parker, of Albany and Esopus, N. Y., forthwith and immediately after being made a candidate, to evolve the last word of wisdom on extravagance in government expenditures, on the workings of the tariff system, or on our dealings with the people of the Philippine Islands. Every one knows that, if elected President, Judge Parker will begin to understand about federal expenditures when his departments and bureaus are making up their first annual estimates and the budget becomes a concrete condition rather than a theory. Mr. McKinley's long service in Congress had, of course, made him familiar to the last detail with budgetary matters, tariff legislation, and the



MR. PARKER: "These are the targets we're going to shoot at." - From the *Tribune* (Chicago).

like. Mr. Cleveland and Mr. Roosevelt, on the other hand, went into the Presidency without such grounds of practical knowledge. Mr. Parker could not fairly be expected to be any wiser at the outset than these two eminent public men. The country knows this, and it cares very little whether or not Judge Parker agrees exactly with the form of words used by the obscure individual who writes the literature for the Anti-Imperialist League or with the similarly unknown author who has turned out the documents signed by the prosperous corporation lawyers whose names adorn the letter-heads of the Parker Constitution Club. Every one who thinks a very little knows that, if elected President, Judge Parker will have a conference with the distinguished Democrat, Gen. Luke E. Wright, who is now governor of the Philippines, and will take hold of that business in a practical way, with very little time to give to the lucubrations of the Anti-Imperialist League. And likewise, everybody knows quite well that the Constitution of our beloved country will be most sacredly and beautifully observed by any candidate now running,—whether Roosevelt, Parker, Watson, Swallow, or Debs,—and that none of these could hurt the Constitution appreciably, even if he so desired; whereas every one of the five is honest and patriotic, and would scrupulously observe the obligations of an oath of office. It is not, therefore, Judge Parker's improvised views,—or his campaign predilections touching public matters with which he has not yet come into contact,—that the country really cares anything about. What, on the other hand, the country does care a great deal about is the personality of the man.



(This is reduced from a large poster sent out by the Democratic committee. It shows the fine face of a candidate that the voters would have preferred to see in person.)

The Tour That Was Not Made.

Judge Parker was unanimously nominated at St. Louis by a great convention representing all the States and Territories. Out of all the throng there gathered, only a little handful of men had ever so much as seen him. Is it not fair to suppose that it would have been a great help to Judge Parker's candidacy if he had gone into a large number of States, met the party leaders who had nominated him, and attended mass meetings held in his honor? There would have been no reason for long speeches on subjects not really before the people. The situation is as different as possible from that which existed when Mr. Bryan was making his two campaigns. It is true enough that the occasion did not require Judge Parker to transform himself into a great platform speaker, or to exhaust himself in a campaign of incessant public argument or debate. There were plenty of other men to do the heavy stumping. What the people wanted was to come into some contact with the Democratic candidate, and to form for themselves an opinion as to whether his personality and his qualities of character seemed to fit him for the Presidential office. Now, it happens that Judge Parker has most admirable qualities of character, and a remarkably attractive and winning personality; and men have only to meet him once to find this out. His duties as a judge in years past have kept him from being known to the multitude. A franker and abler campaign management than that which has surrounded Judge Parker would have responded promptly to the very suitable and natural demands of the party, and would have introduced the candidate to the people on every possible occasion in as many towns and cities of as many States as could have been visited during three months.

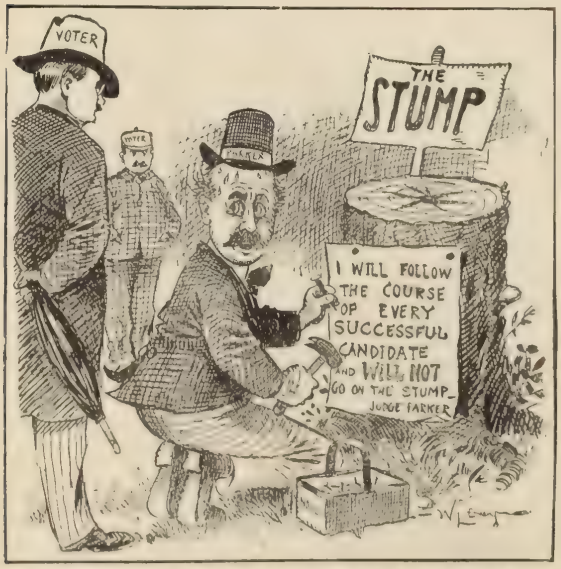
Mr. Roosevelt's Wide Acquaintance.

Mr. Roosevelt, of course, could not, as President, do any campaign touring between the nomination and the election. But for several years he has been

much in evidence throughout the entire country. Four years ago, his speaking tours were very extensive; and more recently, as President, he has been seen and heard from the Atlantic to the Pacific. He has many personal and private friends in every State and Territory, and there are several millions of people in the country who have either seen him or heard him speak. Judge Parker is known to the legal profession of the State of New York, but not to very many people of other callings even in his own commonwealth, while outside of the State of New York he is not known personally to any considerable number of people. He could not in three or four months have penetrated to every nook and corner of the country, but he could easily have attended political receptions and gatherings in very many places, leaving to other people the debating of points raised by him in his speech and letter of acceptance, but responding in a brief way to the greetings of his fellow-citizens, and impressing upon hosts of influential men throughout the country his very agreeable and reassuring personality. The Roosevelt campaign had really been made in advance of the convention that nominated him, and there remained nothing for the Republican National Committee to do except to use due diligence to take care of the party situation and to see that the voters were registered and brought to the polls.

The Democratic Mistake.

The opposition, on the other hand, had not only to push the negative side of its campaign,—namely, that of attack upon Republican candidates, policies, and record,—but it had also to spare no effort in pushing the positive side,—that of enthusiasm for its candidate as a personal leader. This positive side it has sadly neglected, with injustice to its candidate, and with what seems to be practical loss to its cause. This, to sum up again, —this is not so much a campaign of questions as of persons. The Republicans hold most positively that the country ought to seize the opportunity to prolong the Rooseveltian period until March, 1909. The Democrats seem to have forgotten that it was not enough for them to attack Rooseveltism, but that they were also expected to build up at the same time a warm and convinced support for their own candidate.



VOTERS (to candidate Parker): "Yes, Judge, but we knew what they would say." From the *Leader* (Cleveland).



Photograph by Davis & Sanford, New York.

HON. FRANCIS BURTON HARRISON.
(Who is making an active campaign as Democratic candidate for lieutenant-governor of New York.)

Politics in New York.

In the closing days of the campaign, local situations often change rapidly. We shall endeavor to record some current opinions, but shall venture upon no prophecies of our own. On the 1st of October, it seemed to be the real opinion of politicians that the State of New York would go Democratic. A little later, the Republicans began to think they would pull the Roosevelt electoral ticket through, but would lose the State ticket headed by Mr. Higgins. Reports from various parts of the country that Roosevelt was almost certainly

going to be elected seemed later to affect the drift of things in New York. There had been a prevalent notion that Mr. Higgins would not poll the normal party vote; and many people who wished to vote against Governor Odell's mastery of the State organization were expected to vote the Democratic State ticket. In the face of this impression, however, there began to appear the most remarkable tributes, evidently sincere, to the character and fitness of Mr. Higgins. President Roosevelt's high opinion of him became known, and Republicans of national fame like Mr. Root were saying in public and private that Mr. Higgins was better qualified for the duties of the governor's office than any man proposed by either party during many years past. As for Judge Herrick, there seemed also a steady growth of opinion favorable to his fitness and ability, with the consequence that as the election drew near there seemed no reason why New York Democrats should not vote for Parker and Herrick alike, and Republicans for Roosevelt and Higgins.

The Wisconsin Differences.

The situation in Wisconsin had been greatly changed by the opinion of the Supreme Court of the State in the matter at issue between the two Republican factions. The court decided that under the law there was no way of going behind the decision of the State Central Committee of the party as to the validity of conventions. Since the Central Committee had indorsed the La Follette convention and its proceedings, the court held that the La Follette ticket was entitled to go on the official ballot-paper under the regular Republican emblem. This led to the withdrawal of Mr. Cook, whom the Stalwarts had nominated for governor, but the Hon. Edward W. Scofield was substituted for Mr. Cook, and the Stalwarts decided to keep their separate ticket in the field under the name "National Republican." This action met with the disapproval of the National Campaign Committee, which proceeded at once to cooperate with the La Follette forces as being the regular Republican organization. It seemed to be the general opinion that President Roosevelt would carry Wisconsin, and that the La Follette State ticket would also win.



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HON. FRANCIS W. HIGGINS, OF NEW YORK.

(Republican candidate for governor, as photographed last month.)



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GOVERNOR LA FOLLETTE, OF WISCONSIN, FROM A NEW PHOTOGRAPH.

Other Campaign Notes.

The Colorado situation was also an interesting one last month, with indications favorable for President Roosevelt, but with signs of a close fight on the State ticket. The Democratic candidate, ex-Governor

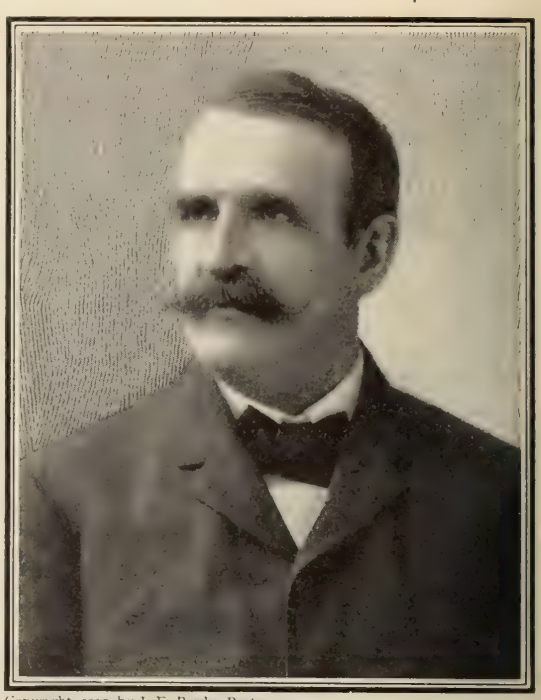
Adams, seemed to be making the most of the opposition to Governor Peabody on the part of the organized labor elements. The effect of Mr. Bryan's remarkable series of speeches in Indiana on behalf of Judge Parker has not been easy to estimate. The Republicans, naturally, have exploited the view that the Parker movement, which had as its chief object the dethronement of Bryanism from control of the Democratic party, was obliged in the end to call Mr. Bryan to the rescue and put him forward as its chief spokesman and most effective campaign



HON. ALVA ADAMS, OF COLORADO.

(Democratic candidate for governor.)

orator. Furthermore, Mr. Bryan in the earlier part of the campaign had spoken very frankly of a party reorganization that he himself intended to undertake in case of Judge Parker's defeat. Whether, therefore, the enthusiasm of the Indiana Bryan men at the appearance of their old leader could be transmuted into a genuine Parker support, or whether, on the other hand, it indicated a keen recollection of what had happened in the St. Louis convention, and a zeal for Mr. Bryan's future plans, can be better understood after election day. Meanwhile, the Republicans were claiming Indiana by a small but definite plurality, and were counting upon Illinois in very large figures.



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THE LATE HENRY C. PAYNE, POSTMASTER-GENERAL.

Death of the Postmaster-General.

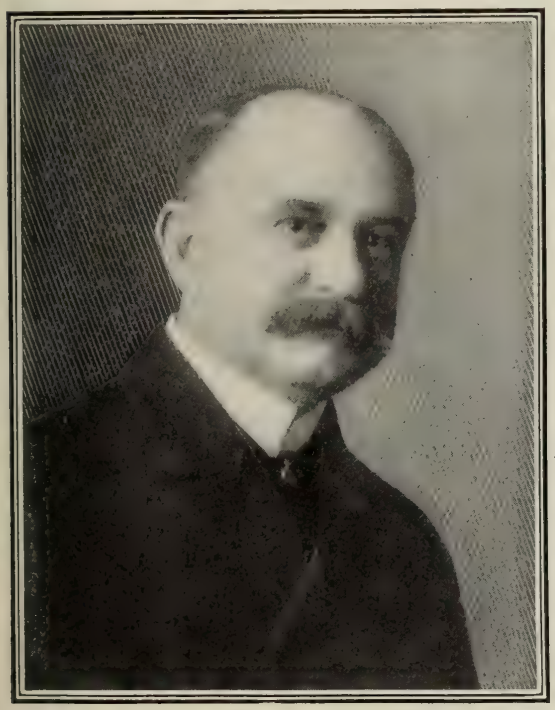
Postmaster-General Payne, who had been in poor health for a year or two, died at Washington on October 4. He had seemed more vigorous in the early summer, and was prominent at the Chicago Republican convention, having succeeded Mr. Hanna temporarily as chairman of the National Committee. President Roosevelt, in his proclamation announcing the death of the head of the great postal service, paid the following tribute to Mr. Payne :

> Mr. Payne was one of the most lovable men I ever knew. He was a man of the highest integrity in all his relations in life, and gave to the discharge of his public duties more strength than he could well spare. The work in the Post-Office Department is very comprehensive and exacting ; he brought a mind trained in extensive business affairs to the consideration of its development, and it had striking growth under his management.

Mr. Payne was sixty-one years of age, was during the years 1876–86 postmaster of the city of Milwaukee, and for a long period was identified with the business interests of that community. He had been prominent in the councils of the Republican party. He had found the duties of his cabinet post very arduous, and had given them close attention. He had also given the fullest support to the work which led to the indictment of a number of post-office officials.

Mr. Payne's Successors.

It had been publicly announced some time ago that Mr. Payne intended to retire from the cabinet soon after the election, and that the President would then appoint Mr. Cortelyou to succeed him. On October 10, Mr. Robert J. Wynne, First Assistant Postmaster-General, was promoted to cabinet rank, with the understanding that he would serve for a brief time, after which Mr. Cortelyou would probably be made Postmaster-General. Mr. Wynne was living in Washington as correspondent of the New York *Press* at the time when, on April 17, 1902, Mr. Roosevelt made him First Assistant in the Post-Office Department.

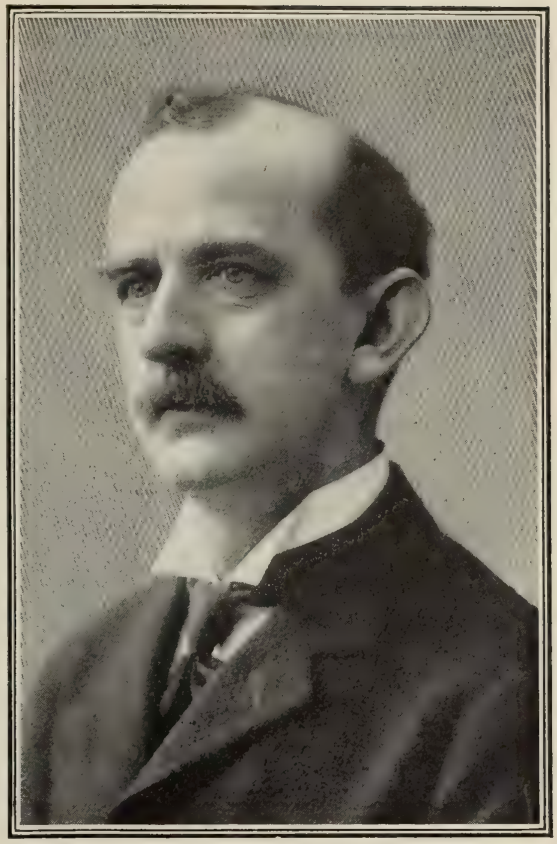


HON. ROBERT J. WYNNE.
(New Postmaster-General.)

ment. He is credited with having done more than any one else to initiate the investigations which were carried out by the Fourth Assistant Postmaster-General, Mr. Bristow.

New England Senators.

The death of Senator Hoar, of Massachusetts, which had been expected for a number of weeks, occurred on September 30. Elsewhere in this number we publish an article characterizing the man and his career, from the pen of Dr. Talcott Williams. The vacancy has been filled by the appointment of ex-Governor Winthrop Murray Crane, of Dalton, one of the most progressive business men of New England, whose administration as



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HON. WINTHROP MURRAY CRANE.
(Who succeeds the late Senator Hoar, of Massachusetts.)

governor of the State was commended by men of all parties. It is no secret that Mr. Crane was President Roosevelt's first choice as the manager of the present campaign. It is the New England habit to send good men to the United States Senate, and to keep them there term after term. Mr. Crane is likely, therefore, to remain for a long time to come as the colleague of Mr. Lodge. Senator Proctor, of Vermont, was last month reëlected to the Senate for a third term.

Mr. Hay to Remain.

Apart from the expected return of Mr. Cortelyou to the President's cabinet, no other changes in the group of department chiefs have been foreshadowed. If reëlected, President Roosevelt will presumably invite the members of his cabinet to retain their portfolios after the 4th of March. The country was interested to learn, last month, through an interview with President Benjamin Ide Wheeler, of the University of California, published in the Chicago *Tribune*, that Mr. Hay, whose health seems much firmer than several

years ago, would remain as Secretary of State in case of a Republican victory. Dr. Wheeler, as a close friend of Mr. Hay, as well as of the President, would not have made such a declaration without knowing his ground. Mr. Hay's prestige as the American foreign minister is so great throughout the world that his probable continuance in public life becomes a matter of international news of first class importance.

The Cabinet and Others on the Stump.

All of the members of the cabinet have taken some part in the political canvass, the most active campaigners being Secretary Taft and Secretary Shaw. Mr. Taft has naturally devoted himself in particular to the Philippine question in answer to Democratic attacks, while Mr. Shaw has given more attention to the tariff and the various topics relating to public revenue and expenditure. The most extended campaign tours on the Republican side have been made by Senator Fairbanks, the candidate for Vice-President, who has been well received in all parts of the country and has made an excellent impression as a man of sagacity and conservative ideas. The speaking campaign, as we have already said, did not become extremely active until after the middle of October. It was in the main conducted upon a high plane, and appealed rather to the intelligence than to the passion or prejudice of the voters. Both parties brought forward their ablest speakers, as the campaign advanced, for service in New York, Indiana, and the more important doubtful States.



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SENATOR FAIRBANKS, CANDIDATE FOR VICE-PRESIDENT, AS HE APPEARED ON THE STUMP LAST MONTH.

A Reading, Not a Speaking, Contest.

It is undoubtedly true, however, that the campaign this year has been a reading rather than a speaking affair. The principal work has been done by the newspapers and periodicals. The campaign committees on both sides have confined themselves to a comparatively small number of documents and brochures, carefully selected, and of a better quality than the average of former campaigns. Upon this point, Mr. Louis A. Coolidge, director of the literary bureau at the Republican national headquarters, New York, in reply to an inquiry late in October, wrote a letter from which we are at liberty to quote. By way of preliminary, we may quote from another letter of Mr. Coolidge's, as follows:

> Our greatest asset in this campaign has been the personality of our candidate. We have played that up in every possible way, and, as you may imagine, have welcomed the Democratic attacks, which have given us all the greater opportunity for exploiting the real Roosevelt.

The letter cited above came to our desk just after the paragraphs on a preceding page had been written in which it is attempted to show that the Democrats made an error in failing to appreciate the value as a campaign asset of the fine personality of their own candidate. Mr. Coolidge's letter to the editor of this REVIEW on campaign literature is of much interest. It is as follows:

> You ask me what forms of Republican campaign literature have, in these recent weeks, been found most in demand.
>
> I do not know how I can answer this question better

than by indicating the kind of documents which we have published in large quantities. First of all comes the President's letter of acceptance, which has been circulated more widely than any other document issued by the committee, and which has evidently been read with eagerness and conviction wherever it has gone. I doubt whether any more effective campaign document was ever published.

Next to the President's letter there come the speeches of Secretary Root at the Chicago convention and Secretary Hay at the celebration at Jackson, Mich. These two documents, covering the record of the Republican party, and especially of the McKinley and Roosevelt administrations, were published together in a single pamphlet, and have great influence. Early in the campaign they were printed for private distribution by friends of the President in New York in especially handsome form, under the title "The Republican Party, a Party Fit to Govern," and circulated among lawyers and business men throughout the State. The effect was immediate and pronounced.

Aside from these documents, very few pamphlets of any kind have been issued by the committee. It has been our belief that a better effect would be produced by issuing a few strong documents in an attractive form than by issuing a great number of documents in a cheap guise. The only pamphlets issued in large quantities by the committee besides the letter of acceptance and the Root-Hay pamphlet have been the speech of acceptance; the President's record in regard to labor, entitled "The Elevation of Labor;" the President's military record, prepared by Gen. H. V. Boynton from the official papers, and a compilation from the President's speeches and writings, entitled "What Roosevelt Says."

The committee has been assisted greatly by documents published by private concerns which were bought in large quantities for distribution. Chief among these is "Issues of a New Epoch," by Joseph Bucklin Bishop, a pamphlet giving the history of the President's action in the coal strike, in Panama, and in the Philippines.

For the first time in a national campaign, some use was made of more ambitious documents than the ordinary pamphlet. "The Roosevelt Doctrine," a compilation from the President's addresses and messages, was widely circulated. So also was a booklet entitled "A Square Deal for Every Man," consisting of short and pithy quotations.

Another innovation was the use of illustrated documents; the most ambitious of these has been "Our Patriotic President," which was in effect the story of the President's life told in pictures, with appropriate quotations. "Lest We Forget," a booklet consisting entirely of photographic reproductions from *Leslie's* and *Harper's Weekly* during the financial distress in the second Cleveland administration proved to be an exceedingly effective document, and was issued in great quantities. But more effective than all documents put together has been the work of the Republican newspapers all over the United States, which began early and has continued to the end with cumulative force.

Our only object has been to present as clearly, truthfully, and forcefully as possible the record of the party and of its candidates. Our experience has shown that that is what the voters are most anxious to get. We have depended hardly at all upon Congressional speeches. Only two documents have been sent out under frank,—"What Roosevelt Says" and "The Elevation of Labor." This is a remarkably frank statement, and it discloses something of the spirit as well as the method of the work at Republican headquarters.

Panama as an Issue.

The documents used by the Democrats are able and vigorous attacks upon the party in power, chiefly with regard to particular lines of public policy. Both campaign text-books are valuable as compact digests of political information, with documents and statistics. The Democrats, toward the end of the campaign, made a vigorous effort to bring the Panama Canal question into the campaign in sensational ways. They revived the attempt of a year ago to connect President Roosevelt with the revolution which liberated Panama from Colombia and led to the formation of a new Panama republic. In this they were entirely unsuccessful. The Republicans on their side were glad to have this Panama question raised, because they regarded their success in arranging for the construction of an American canal at Panama as one of the principal achievements entitling them to the continued confidence and support of the country. The Democrats, furthermore, made some effort to bring into the field of our own political controversy those inevitable frictions and differences of opinion which have been disclosed on the Isthmus in the practical working out of the relations between the Canal Commission and the government of the republic. In the first place, there have been two factions among the Panamans themselves; and in the second place, there has been a feeling that the canal commissioners were more energetic and business-like than formal and diplomatic in their relations with the Panama Government.

Mr. Taft to Visit the Isthmus.

While the work of the canal under Chief Engineer Wallace is already going forward in a most hopeful and satisfactory way, and while there is no danger at all of any permanent or deep-seated differences of opinion between the canal commissioners and the Panama Government, there will not be the slightest neglect or delay on the part of our own government at Washington in correcting misapprehensions and giving friendly assurances to the Panama people. Since it was arranged when the Canal Commission was appointed that it should report to the Secretary of War and through him to the President,—while diplomatic phases of the situation are also reported by Minister Barrett (now in this country) to the Department of State,—the situation is one that was taken up last month in a conference by the President with Secretaries Hay and Taft. The result was a letter written to Mr. Taft by the President, and given at once to the press, expressing the

kindly attitude of our government toward the Panama Republic, and proposing that Mr. Taft should visit Panama and there confer with the authorities in order to settle any questions of detail having to do with tariffs and administration in the canal zone, and so on. Such trouble as exists may possibly be due to having too many important people in high authority. We have Admiral Walker at Panama as chief of the Canal Commission; we have General Davis, also of the commission, as governor of the canal zone; we have Minister Barrett representing the sovereignty of the United States Government; we have Chief Engineer Wallace, who is really building the canal and is, of course, by far the most important man of all; then we have all the other members of the Canal Commission, with Judge Magoon also called in to act as the chief legal authority of the United States in devising the governmental arrangements of the canal zone. Finally, there is Secretary Taft at Washington, whose administrative experiences in the Philippines give him especial fitness, and who acts as chief arbiter, subject only to the President himself. It was at first announced that Secretary Taft, accompanied by the Panaman minister, Mr. Obaldia, and others, would probably start for Panama on November 14. It was then thought that he would be accompanied by the members of the canal committees of Congress, who were in any case planning to visit Panama. But later it was said that he would probably make his visit at an earlier date, perhaps before election.

Another Hague Conference.

The Peace Conference at Boston, early in October, attended as it was by many foreigners, including a large number of the official delegates to the meeting of the Inter-Parliamentary Union at St. Louis, was an event of great timeliness and importance. In spite of the terrible spectacle of war on a vast scale in the far East, the speakers at the Boston meeting were able to show that there has been real and gratifying progress since the Hague Conference in the good cause of international arbitration. It will be remembered that when the Inter-Parliamentary Union visited the President at the White House, on the 25th of September, Mr. Roosevelt frankly acceded to the formal request of the union and declared that he would in the near future take steps to propose another peace conference for the further development of the work begun at The Hague. This announcement has been received with the greatest interest throughout the world, and has called out a vast amount of discussion. Meanwhile, Secretary Hay had been preparing a note to the powers that adhered to the Hague treaty, and there will follow a period of diplomatic correspondence. It is not to be supposed that such a congress as is contemplated could be held until after the restoration of peace between Russia and Japan.

Favorable Business and Crop Conditions.

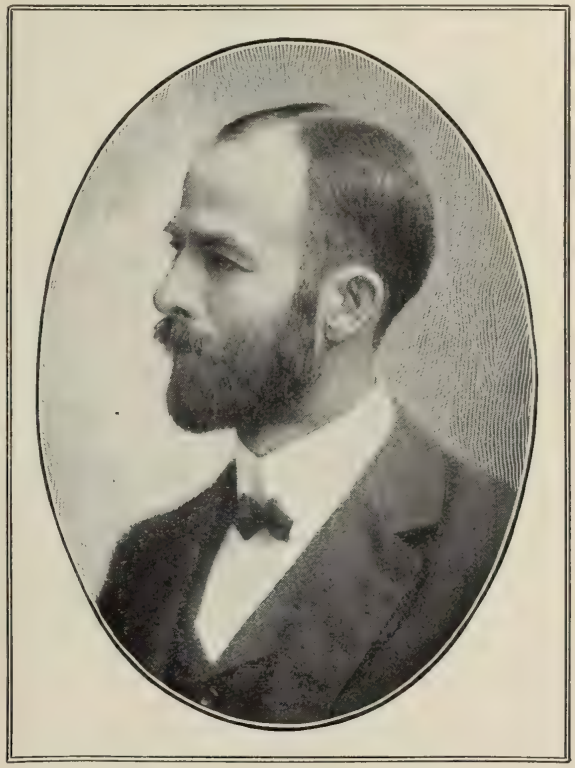
The activity of the market for railroad and other shares quoted on the Stock Exchange was quite unprecedented last month in the face of a Presidential election. The business situation was promising in almost every direction. The October bank



UNCLE SAM, ADVANCING WITH ROOSEVELT AND HAY TOWARD THE TEMPLE OF UNIVERSAL PEACE, INDORSES MR. HAY'S SENTIMENTS, AND ADDS: "And we'll continue right along the same path, boys!"

From the *Ohio State Journal* (Columbus).

clearings, as indicating to some extent the relative volume of business activity, showed remarkable gains when compared week by week with the statistics for October of last year. The improvement in the iron and steel trade was reflected in the rapid advance in the prices of shares of the United States Steel Corporation and other large companies. The crops of the year have come out decidedly better than was expected in September, and the harvest is bountiful. There had been discouraging reports about the corn crop, but good September weather helped in the final result. We publish in this number a very interesting article contributed by Professor Holden, of the Iowa Agricultural College, on the means used in that State to secure more corn by better farming methods. The Government reports the probable yield of corn as nearly 2,464,000,000 bushels, which is about 10 per cent. more than last year, and almost as much as the record crop of 1902. The wheat crop is tentatively reported as about 551,000,000, as compared with 638,000,000 last year, and more than 748,000,000 in the record year 1901. The oat crop of 887,000,000 bushels is just about 100,000,000 more than that of last year, and 100,000,000 less than that of 1902. The aggregate bulk yield of all reported grain crops is about 7 per cent. more than last year. The South, thanks to its enormous profits on the last cotton crop, is in a more prosperous condition than ever before in its history. The Agricultural Department has taught the Southern farmers that the way to circumvent the boll weevil is to improve the methods of culture and stimulate the cotton plant into early and vigorous growth.



PROFESSOR HOLDEN, OF IOWA.

(See page 562.)



MR. DUMONT CLARKE, LAST MONTH ELECTED PRESIDENT OF THE NEW YORK CLEARING HOUSE.

(Mr. Clarke is an old-time banker, and is at the head of the American Exchange National Bank. He is a trustee of the Mutual Life Insurance Company.)

Last Month of the Fair.

The fortunate harvesting of the crop and the ending of the political campaign ought to give a tremendous boom to the great fair at St. Louis in its closing weeks. It should be remembered that the Exposition will remain open until the 1st of December. It is a marvelous creation, so varied in its appeals to the intelligent and open-minded visitor that it almost baffles comprehension. We shall probably see nothing like it again in our generation. November weather in St. Louis is usually favorable, and during its last month the fair should be visited by hundreds of thousands of people. Its influence upon the ideals and progress of the Southwest will be vital for a century to come.

Great Religious Gatherings.

The present autumn season has been a rather notable one because of the focusing of various forces that make for the higher life of the American people. The arrival of an unprecedented number of foreign visitors at the St. Louis Exposition congresses is referred to elsewhere in these pages. Then there was the triennial convention of the Protestant Episcopal Church at Boston. The most important proceedings of this convention are summarized on pages 586–588 of this number of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS. The House of Deputies finally adopted a compromise canon on the marriage of divorced persons which permits the remarriage, after an interval of not less than one year from the granting of the divorce, of the innocent party in an action for adultery. As this magazine went to press it was believed that the House of Bishops would concur in the action of the deputies. Simultaneously with the Episcopal convention, another great religious body—the National Council of Congregational Churches—was holding its triennial meeting at Des Moines, Iowa. The election of the Rev. Dr. Washington Gladden as Moderator of the Council was a fitting recognition of a fine type of Christian citizenship. The council heard the representatives of organized labor in a full and frank discussion of the industrial problem. An outline of the work of Commander Booth Tucker, who for more than eight years past has been at the head of Salvation Army work in this country,—one of the foremost forces for social betterment,—is found on another page of this issue.

Canada and Great Britain.

The Canadian general election will be held on November 3, five days before our own. It is beyond a reasonable doubt that the Liberal party will win again, and Sir Wilfrid Laurier triumph at the polls. Canadian commercial and economic development is a matter of world-wide interest, and we are very glad in this connection to publish a graphic and illuminating article on the great Canadian Northwest, by Mr. Theodore M. Knappen, on page 578. Miss Laut's article on page 574 outlines the political situation, and shows how deeply the Canadians are interested in tariff matters, particularly in Mr. Joseph Chamberlain's preferential tariff scheme. The Canadian Manufacturers' Association will meet in London next year, and it is proposed to establish a commission which will frame a tariff acceptable to Canadian commercial interests. In Great Britain itself, the present is a dull period so far as politics are concerned. But great things are preparing. If not forced out of power next March, it seems more than likely that at that date the Balfour ministry will expire with this session of Parliament. A Liberal victory is almost certain, and it is confidently expected that in such an event the King will summon Earl Spencer to form a Liberal cabinet. Our two distinguished visitors from England, Mr. John Morley and Mr. James Bryce, will in all probability be prominent members of this Liberal cabinet, which will be faced by a number of serious problems and afforded splendid opportunities.

Social Disorder in Italy.

We are learning through letters from Italy which have escaped the censor that, while the strike which was to have taken place throughout the kingdom in the middle of September at the instigation of the Socialist party lasted only a few days, it was nevertheless quite general. That a serious social and political condition existed in the middle of October was shown by the circular addressed by the minister of war to the Italian military authorities. This circular declared that even in the army, revolutionists were busy, and that it was necessary to call under arms the reserves of 1903, placing about fifty thousand more troops at the disposal of the government. The Italian Labor Exchange had been virtually in control of the entire productive capacity of the kingdom, and for the last two weeks of September it had succeeded in exercising a practical dictatorship over the city of Milan. Meanwhile, the little Prince of Piedmont, heir to the Italian throne, had been christened, and it had been confidently hoped that his birth, in a state loyal to the Church, would have some real influence in the direction of bettering the relations between the Vatican and the Quirinal.

Portugal's Troubles in Africa.

The continent of Africa had been claiming the attention of the world during early October. In the far south, the Germans had been finding their war with the Herreros a serious drain on their resources of men and money, and it was still far from settled. It had been announced from Berlin that eight thousand European troops were to be put in the field against the tribesmen. The Portuguese, also, now have an African war on their hands. On October 7, it was announced in the Chamber of Deputies, at Lisbon, by the minister of marine, that a force of Portuguese troops operating against the Cuanahamas (neighbors of the Herreros) in Portuguese Southwest Africa had been ambushed by the tribesmen, losing some two hundred and fifty men. The government decided to prosecute the war against the natives,

but the news of the disaster, disclosing, as it does, official incompetency, has already precipitated the fall of the Portuguese ministry. England still has her troubles with the Chinese labor question in her South African possessions, and it had been reported that Lord Milner would resign from the premiership of Cape Colony. Trade, however, particularly between South Africa and the United States, would appear to be on the increase, with a good future in store, if we are to believe the official figures of the United States collectors of customs.

United States Will Not Intervene in the Congo.

In Central Africa, in the Congo, the outrages for which King Leopold's government is responsible still continue, we are informed. The agitation on foot to check these systematized atrocities is being kept up steadily. The war has been carried into this country by the Congo Reform Association, which early in October sent its secretary, Mr. Edward Morel, and also Mr. Fox-Bourne, of the Aborigines Protection Association, organizers and agitators, to petition the United States, as the first to recognize the Congo State, to bring about some sort of intervention on behalf of the unfortunate natives. President Roosevelt, however, had declined to interfere, on the ground that we are under no legal or moral obligation to do so. The International Peace Congress, in session in Boston, in the first part of October, had denounced Belgian rule in the Congo, and Baron Moncheur had contributed an article to one of the American reviews defending this rule. Neither defenders nor assailants of King Leopold's administration in Central Africa, however, have as yet been able to make out to the world a sufficiently clear case to call for international action.

Spain and France and Morocco.

In northern Africa, France and Spain had agreed each to recognize the other's rights in Morocco. An agreement was signed on October 7 in which Spain gave her adhesion to the Anglo-French agreement of April last, permitting France a free hand. It will be better for the rest of the world, including the United States, when France establishes a full protectorate over Morocco, as her interests entitle her to do. We are not anxious for a repetition of the Perdicaris incident.

Russia and American Mail.

Russia's partial accession to the demands of the governments of the United States and Great Britain in the matter of conditional and absolute contraband of war (outlined in the REVIEW last month) had



THE CHUNG CHOONG, CHINESE VICEROY OF MANCHURIA.

(Tartar general of Mukden, the "Most Unhappy Man in China," who is said to be secretly aiding Japan.)

settled in large measure the most important questions pending between the Russian Government and the Western nations with regard to neutral commerce. Our own government, however, had still a score to settle. When the British steamer *Calchas* was seized by the Vladivostok squadron, last July, the Russians took a number of sacks of American mail, including a large quantity of registered mail, some of it addressed to Japanese cities, but some addressed to American citizens and sailors on American warships. The registered sacks were opened and the mail detained, some of it for several months. According to the Russian statement, the whole American mail, with the exception of the correspondence addressed to the Japanese Government, was sent on to Japan by a German steamer and subsequently released. Russia's contention has been that her declaration on the subject of contraband inhibits neutrals from carrying dispatches to the enemy. Russia, however, is a member of the International Postal Union, and is bound by the treaty which guarantees the right of uninterrupted transit of mail throughout the entire territory of the union. It has been the general rule that, while neutral ships should not carry dispatches for a belligerent, mails should be immune from detention as contraband. On October 10, President Roosevelt instructed the State Department to ask the Russian Government for full information concerning the mail matter on the *Calchas*.

The Baltic Fleet Again.

Again it was announced that the Baltic fleet had started on its long journey for the far East, and again it was reported to have stopped at Reval. On

October 19, a number of vessels of the fleet were reported to have been seen in the North Sea, steaming westward. It was even announced that part of the fleet would go around the Cape of Good Hope and be coaled by colliers sent on in advance. The world, however, still refuses to believe that the fleet will ever actually accomplish the great voyage to the Pacific. The uncertainty of its movements may have been partly due to the shake-up in the Russian navy, which had been actually brought about in the first part of October. According to "confidential information," Vice-Admiral Avellan, minister of marine, had been removed, and was to be succeeded by Vice-Admiral Doubasoff. According to the same information, Vice-Admiral Rojestvensky, who had up to that time commanded the Baltic fleet, was superseded by Rear-Admiral Chouknin, formerly chief of the Black Sea fleet.

The Siege of Port Arthur.

The repeated departures of the Baltic fleet from Kronstadt and Reval had evidently ceased to enter into the Japanese calculations at Port Arthur, however. The situation at this beleaguered fortress had shown no new features up to October 20. There had been several vigorous assaults by the Japanese on the fortifications, with much loss of life, but with no very great success. General Stoessel had announced that in four or five attacks, from September 19 to September 26, the Japanese had been everywhere repulsed. In giving out this report, the Russian war office had announced that since the siege began the Japanese losses had been 45,000 in killed and wounded. Baron Hayashi, the Japanese minister to Great Britain, however, denied these heavy losses, and declared that the troops of his country were advancing surely every day, with comparatively small losses. On September 18 (it was learned from a dispatch received in the middle of October), a Japanese armored gunboat, the *Hei Yen*, struck a mine in Pigeon Bay, just west of Port Arthur, and sank, only four of her crew of three hundred being saved. On the other hand, it was reported on October 19 that the Japanese shells from the hills surrounding Port Arthur had reached and sunk the Russian cruiser *Bayan* at her anchorage. The garrison in Port Arthur was reported to be suffering greatly from lack of coal, ammunition, clothing, and food. The failure of General Kuropatkin's advance movement, which had in view the relief of Port Arthur, had greatly discouraged the defenders; and reports received in the middle of October indicated that this failure, and the tightening of the blockade by Admiral Togo's squadron, had rendered the condition of the garrison all but desperate. There were only about five thousand defenders left.



GENERAL GRIPPENBERG.
(Appointed by the Czar to command the second Manchurian army.)

Pause After Liao-Yang.

For nearly three weeks after the terrible battle of Liao-Yang, the Russians and the Japanese seemed to suspend operations for a much-needed rest and to rearrange their plans of campaign. The Japanese commanders had held the city of Liao-Yang, but had not occupied it, for sanitary reasons, on account of the number of dead bodies. The three Japanese armies had been following the Russians in their retreat along the railroad to Mukden. At this ancient sacred capital of the Manchus, the greater part of the Russian force had been posted, although a large section had passed on to Tieling Pass, some forty miles north. Both armies were said to be reluctant to fight at Mukden, lest the imperial tombs near by should be injured and the the Chinese be enraged

Will Kuropatkin Divide the Command?

Despite the reiterated statement in the newspaper dispatches from St. Petersburg that the Czar and the Russian people still retain absolute confidence in General Kuropatkin, late in September it had become evident that political influence at home was again at work against him. On September 26, it was officially announced in an imperial rescript that General Grippenberg, commander of the Russian Third Army Corps, in the prov-

ince of Vilna, had been appointed commander of the second army, which was being mobilized for immediate dispatch to the far East, leaving General Kuropatkin in command of the first army. In an autograph letter to General Grippenberg, Emperor Nicholas had complimented the Japanese on their "high warlike qualities," and had declared that, in view of the large number of men necessary for success in the war, he had found it necessary "to divide the active forces in Manchuria into two armies, leaving one in the hands of General Kuropatkin." The new army, it was announced, will consist of 300,000 additional troops, the two armies to be in command of some high imperial figure; and report said that the Grand Duke Nicholas Nicholaievitch was to be supreme military chief. This had been generally regarded as indicating the intention of the Czar to take away the supreme command from General Kuropatkin. The fact was soon recognized, however, that, with all her facilities worked to their utmost, Russia had not been able in seven months to transport more than 200,000 men to the far East, and that therefore the arrival of the second army of 300,000 men at the seat of war was not a matter of the near future, and that for some months, at any rate, General Kuropatkin would remain in actual if not in nominal chief command.

A Pompous Proclamation.

This impression had been strengthened by the fact that by October 9 General Kuropatkin had announced that he had received sufficient reënforcements to begin the long-expected Russian advance. In a somewhat pompous address to his army, dated at Mukden, October 2, the general asserted in positive terms that he was about to take the offensive. He complimented his troops on their bravery, and declared that "heretofore we have not been numerically strong enough to defeat the Japanese army." He said, further:

> Heretofore the enemy, in operating, has relied on his great forces, and, disposing his armies so as to surround us, has chosen as he deemed fit his time for attack, but now the moment to go to meet the enemy, for which the whole army has been longing, has come, and the time has arrived for us to compel the Japanese to do our will, for the forces of the Manchurian army are strong enough to begin a forward movement.

In the same proclamation, the general had announced that the Siberian Railroad had been bringing, during the past seven months, "hundreds of thousands of men" to Manchuria. This statement was probably meant as much for the ears of the Japanese commanders as for those of his own men. The Russian leaders have proved themselves past masters in the art of issuing proclamations, and it could scarcely fail to be discreditable to Russian bravery (which has been proved of such a high order so many times during the present war) to believe that the Czar's forces have been, or are now, so vastly superior to the Japanese as General Kuropatkin's figures would indicate.



GENERAL MISTCHENKO.

(Russia's most successful Cossack leader.)

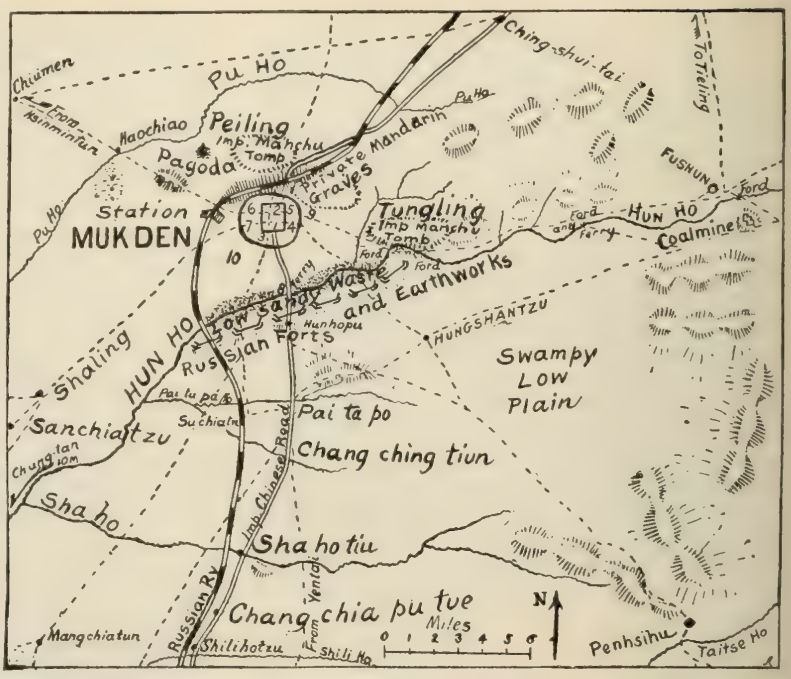
The Russian Advance Begins.

Several days after this proclamation had been issued, the Russian forward movement actually began, and at first it seemed to find the Japanese unprepared, for several important outposts, notably General Kuroki's strongly fortified position at Bentsiaputze, had been captured by the Russians with but small loss. The Russians were in heavy marching order, full of enthusiasm, and overjoyed at receiving the order to advance. In the first impetus of their forward movement, they drove in the scattered outposts of the Japanese armies with but little difficulty, as the latter occupied a front of some fifty-two miles, stretching east and west across the railroad from Bentsiaputze on the east, through the Yen-Tai coal region, and across the railroad to the banks of the Hun River, on the west. Generals Rennenkampf and Mistchenko, with their Cossacks, had been successful in a number of small engagements against

the Japanese, ending with the occupation of the Shakhe railway station, on the banks of the river of that name, on October 4.

The Battles Along the Shakhe River.

Having quickly consolidated his lengthened lines, Field Marshal Oyama strongly reënforced the division guarding Pensihu, on Kuroki's extreme right, and a column was sent eastward to take the Russians in the rear. Meanwhile, General Kuropatkin had pushed the bulk of his army, which, it was reported, had been increased to 280,000 men, across the Hun River and along the main road toward the railway station and the Yen-Tai coal mines. Here he was faced by General Oku, who was guarding the railway with the Japanese left, and General Nodzu, who was guarding the mines and the main road with the Japanese center. The Russian general's chief effort would appear to have been to break through the Japanese right flank, commanded by General Kuroki, and in the battle which followed, and which raged for eleven days, General Kuropatkin's plan evidently had been to pierce the Japanese lines by breaking through between General Kuroki and General Nodzu. On their side, the Japanese commanders tried their favorite game of flanking, the center army bearing the brunt of the Russian attack, while General Oku, on the left, and General Kuroki, on the right, endeavored to "roll up" the Russian flanks. In fact, General Kuroki's forces apparently had been lost to view for several days, having made such a wide détour to the eastward in their flanking movement.



BATTLEFIELD OF THE SHAKHE (SHA-HO) RIVER AND THE VICINITY OF MUKDEN.

The First Stage a Russian Check.

The heavy series of battles extending over the eleven days from October 6 to 17 were variously referred to in the dispatches as the battle of the Shakhe River, of Yen-Tai, and, as Marshal Oyama prefers to call it, of Shaho, which is presumably another form of Shakhe, the river along which most of the fighting took place. This battle, or series of battles, was distinguished by heavier fighting than that at Liao-Yang, and the losses, according to reports received up to October 20, aggregated 70,000, of which the Russian share was probably fully 50,000. There were 4,500 Russian dead left in front of General Kuroki's army alone. The Japanese also suffered severely. Nodzu's army alone lost over 5,000 killed. From the mass of conflicting reports published from day to day, most of which referred to single actions, charges, and movements of troops as victories or defeats for the entire army, it had been impossible to gain any definite idea of the result of the eleven days' fighting. Like Liao Yang, however, it is now plain that the battle was not decisive. By October 9, the Russian advance had been practically checked, and it looked as if the Japanese had been decisively victorious. Generals Oku and Nodzu reported a repulse of the Russians along their entire front and the capture of twenty-eight guns.

The Japanese Lose Fourteen Guns.

All through the week following, a sanguinary series of engagements was fought, with the honors about even, although General Kuropatkin's forces were gradually retiring to the northward. On October 16, the tide seemed to change in favor of the Russians. A column of Japanese from General Oku's army, under the command of Brigadier-General Yamada, attempted to capture a position on the Russian right, but was enveloped by almost an entire division of the enemy. General Yamada eventually succeeded

in breaking through and escaping, but at the cost of many lives and about fourteen guns, said to have been the first taken from the Japanese in the war. On the same day (Sunday), the Russian center, reported to have been commanded by General Kuropatkin himself, performed a brilliant feat in capturing Lone Tree Hill, a very heavily fortified position, the key to the Russian southwest front, and defended by a whole division of fourteen thousand Japanese. Several desperate attempts were made to retake this position by the Japanese, but they were repulsed with tremendous slaughter. The fierceness of the fighting is indicated by the fact that the village of Shakhe, containing the railroad station, changed hands five times during the battle, finally remaining with the Russians. Correspondents refer to the ferocity of the fighting as unequaled in modern warfare. According to the dispatches, General Kuropatkin personally led a charge to within sight of Oku's staff.

The Net Result:

Developing from a rear-guard action, after the first check, the Russian advance was made possible by the arrival on the field of several divisions which had been held in reserve north of Mukden for the purpose of preventing the cutting of the railroad by the Japanese. The terrible state of the roads, caused by heavy rains, and the exhausted condition of the combatants, forced a cessation of hostilities, and on October 20 the situation was quiet, with reports of flanking movements by Generals Oku and Kuroki to the north of Mukden. Whether or not General Kuropatkin had received orders from St. Petersburg to advance, or whether his forward movement was really a desperate endeavor to cover his retreat beyond Mukden, the battle of Shakhe, or Shaho, may be regarded as a victory, although not a decisive one, for the Japanese, who were too exhausted to follow up their success. The ability of the Russians as fighters to stand against the Japanese has never been disputed, but it is evident that General Kuropatkin has been outgeneraled. The net result of the fighting up to October 20 seemed to have been—(1) the Japanese possession of the field; (2) much heavier Russian losses in men and munitions than those sustained by Oyama; (3) the capture by the Japanese of many guns and much other spoils; (4) the positive and almost disastrous check of a somewhat theatrical Russian advance, and, despite the elation over partial successes, the deepening of the discouragement and depression in St. Petersburg. An early Russian advance is announced from the capital, just as soon as the condition of the roads permits.

Russian Weakness and the Future.

Frequent charges of wholesale corruption in the Russian conduct of the war have been made by high Russian officials themselves as well as by newspaper correspondents at the front. In the article by Professor Simkowitch, from which we quote in one of the "Leading Articles" this month, accounts of the influence of "graft" in the far East are vividly presented. A number of Russian journals, among them the *Russkaiya Viedomosti*, draw pictures of the horrible torments endured by the common soldier in the far East on account of the lack of ordinary necessities,—a lack caused by official stealing. Even Red Cross supplies had been "held up" until a "recognition" had been given. Confirmatory of this are the letters of General Count Keller (who was killed at the battle of Yang-tse Pass, on July 29) to his wife. Whole regiments, he declares, were without uniforms or sufficient clothing, and "the deficiency in sanitary arrangements is appalling." A dispatch from Liao-Yang just after the battle also told of the discovery in the abandoned Russian headquarters of a number of documents, and orders from Viceroy Alexieff cashiering officers for abandoning positions, for drunkenness, etc., and censuring others for lawless treatment of Chinese, waste of ammunition, and other offenses. Frequent reports come, also, of the killing of officers by reservists who were unwilling to go to the front. Yet the brave stand made by the Russians in the battles on the Shakhe River has done much to restore the tone of confidence at the capital. The government is determined to fight to the bitter end. The encouraging signs for the Russians are the patient heroism of the Czar's forces at the front and the inauguration of the *régime* of Prince Sviatopolk-Mirsky as minister of the interior. An outline of Prince Mirsky's career and of his reforms is given on page 589 of this issue of the REVIEW.

Feeling in Japan.

In Japan, the feeling is also practically unanimous in favor of continuing the war until Russia has been thoroughly defeated, although it is being recognized by thoughtful Japanese that probably the best thing for Japan would be to have the war end now. Russian prestige in Asia having been shattered and Japanese capacity vindicated, the Tokio government is not blind to the fact that it will probably be harder to win the next campaign than it has been to win this one. Although the financial resources of the empire are in admirable condition, the withdrawal of so many men from active production is beginning to bear heavily on even so patriotic a people as the Japanese.



From a stereograph. Copyright by Underwood & Underwood.

COUNT OKUMA, LEADER OF THE JAPANESE PROGRESSIVE PARTY; EX-MINISTER OF FOREIGN AFFAIRS.
(From a photograph taken at his home in Tokio.)

The Cost in Men and Money.

The Mikado and his advisers realize that the war may be a long one. The cost to Japan will probably be $1,000,000,000, and to Russia, $2,000,000,000. This is the opinion of Count Okuma, leader of the Japanese Progressive party. In a recent address before the united clearing houses of Tokio, Count Okuma warned his hearers that the war would probably last for several years, and urged the nation to husband carefully its strength and resources. The Emperor of Japan, also, had issued a message to the entire people, through the premier, stating that "our prospects for final success are still far distant," and urging patience and further sacrifices in the prosecution of the war. The country is without a doubt ready to sacrifice the last man, and, in answer to the Russian determination to send a second army to the far East, an imperial edict amending the army conscription law was gazetted in Tokio on September 30, extending the service term of the reservists from five to ten years. This will bring more than six hundred thousand men to the colors. Japan is also beginning to build her own ships. She recently ordered a large consignment of armor plates from the Carnegie works, at Pittsburg, and now has under way several battleships and cruisers.

Why Japan Has Been Victorious.

One of the most remarkable tributes to the Japanese Government on its conduct of the present war was made at St. Louis, recently, by Dr. Louis L. Seaman, of New York, who was a volunteer surgeon in the Spanish War. In an address before the International Congress of Military Surgeons, on October 12, Dr. Seaman recounted his recent observations of Japanese sanitary and surgical methods. Dr. Seaman shows the consummate superiority of the Japanese to be in their employment of measures for the prevention of disease rather than in their ability to destroy their enemy. Never in the history of warfare, he says, has a nation approached Japan in the methodical and effectual use of medical science as an ally in war. According to Dr. Seaman, Japan has eliminated disease almost entirely. Manchuria is a country "notoriously unhealthy;" yet so perfect have been the sanitary precautions of the Japanese that "the loss from preventable disease in the first six months of the conflict will be but a fraction of one per cent." The rule in war has been four by disease to one by bullet. The medical officer is omnipresent during a Japanese campaign, Dr. Seaman declares. You will find him in countless places where in an American or a European army he has no place.

He is as much at the front as in the rear. He is with the first screen of scouts, with his microscope and chemicals, testing and labeling wells, so the army to follow shall drink no contaminated water. When the scouts reach a town, he immediately institutes a thorough examination of its sanitary condition, and if contagion or infection is found, he quarantines and places a guard around the dangerous district. Notices are posted so the approaching column is warned, and no soldiers are billeted where danger exists. Microscopic blood tests are made in all fever cases, and bacteriological experts, fully equipped, form part of the staff of every divisional headquarters. The medical officer is also found in camp, lecturing the men on sanitation and the hundred and one details of personal hygiene,—how to cook, to eat, and when not to drink; to bathe, and even to the direction of the paring and cleansing of the finger-nails, to prevent danger from bacteria. Up to August 1, 9,862 cases had been received at the reserve hospital at Hiroshima, of whom 6,636 were wounded. Of the entire number up to that time, only 34 had died.

Japan is certainly showing the world how to wage war under civilized conditions. A Japanese officer, quoted by Dr. Seaman, really made no vain boast when he claimed that by such a system of practical elimination of disease in war a Japanese army of half a million men is made quite the equal of two million Russians. Having destroyed the greatest enemy in war—disease—the Japanese need not fear the lesser enemy of sword and bullet.

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From September 21 to October 20 1904.)

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

September 21.—New York Democrats nominate Judge D. Cady Herrick for governor.

September 23.—President Roosevelt resumes official duties at the White House.

September 26.—Judge Alton B. Parker's letter of acceptance of the Democratic nomination for the Presidency is made public.

September 29.—Rhode Island Democrats renominate Gov. Lucius F. C. Garvin.



KING FRIEDRICH AUGUST OF SAXONY.

(Successor to his father, the late King George, who died on October 14, 1904.)

October 5.—President Roosevelt designates First Assistant Postmaster-General Wynne as Acting Postmaster-General, *vice* Henry C. Payne, deceased....The Wisconsin Supreme Court decides that the ticket headed by Governor La Follette is entitled to the designation "Republican" on the official ballot....Mayor McClellan, of New York City, dismisses the entire Municipal Civil Service Commission and appoints a new commission, headed by Bird S. Coler.

October 6.—The "Stalwart" Republicans of Wisconsin nominate ex-Gov. Edward Scofield for governor, in place of S. A. Cook, withdrawn.

October 7.—Massachusetts Republicans renominate Gov. John L. Bates....Massachusetts Democrats nominate William L. Douglas for governor.

October 10.—President Roosevelt appoints Robert J. Wynne Postmaster-General....The "regular" and Addicks factions of the Republican party in Delaware agree on a ticket headed by Preston Lea for governor.

October 12.—Governor Bates, of Massachusetts, appoints ex-Gov. W. Murray Crane to succeed United States Senator Hoar, deceased.

October 17.—President Roosevelt summarily dismisses Robert S. Rodie, head of the steamboat inspection service at New York, and steps are taken toward the removal of the other inspectors found guilty of negligence in regard to the *Slocum* disaster, on June 15.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT.—FOREIGN.

September 21.—King Peter of Servia is corwned at Belgrade.

September 22.—The German Social Democratic Congress opens at Bremen.

September 23.—An order of martial law for some of the principal provinces of Russia, drawn up by the late M. Plehve and sanctioned by the Czar, is promulgated ....Don Jose Pardo is proclaimed president of Peru.... King Edward gives assent to the Cape Colony Chinese exclusion bill.

September 24.—Peace negotiations in Uruguay are broken off; the government forces surround the insurgents.

September 29.—Prince Sviatopolk-Mirsky (see page 589) takes charge of the Russian ministry of the interior; it is announced that the police will no longer be under the management of the ministry....The Canadian Parliament is dissolved (see page 574) ....The Portuguese Cortes opens....The governor of Queensland resigns.

October 3.—Premier Balfour, of Great Britain, declares that he cannot remain the leader of his party if protection is adopted.

October 5.—The prime minister of the principality of Lippe defies the German Emperor in a speech to the Diet.

October 8.—The Witbois, in German Southwest Africa, revolt and attack stations.

October 11.—A Boxer outbreak is reported in Taming-Fu, China.

October 12.—Manuel Quintana is inaugurated president of Argentina....The Japanese Government decides to float a domestic loan of $40,000,000.

October 19.—Italian Socialists issue a manifesto setting forth their platform in the national campaign.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

September 24.—President Roosevelt announces to the delegates of the Inter-Parliamentary Union that he will soon invite the powers to hold a second peace congress at The Hague.

September 26.—Admiral Sigsbee calls to account the governor of Cartagena, Colombia, for insults to the American legation.



The Grand Duchess Tatiana. Born 1897 | The Grand Duchess Anastasia. Born 1901. | The Grand Duchess Olga. Born 1895. | The Grand Duchess Marie. Born 1899

THE FOUR DAUGHTERS OF THE CZAR OF RUSSIA.

September 27.—The Institute of International Law, in session at Edinburgh, expresses approval of President Roosevelt's plan for a second Hague conference.

September 28.—The Association of British Chambers of Commerce urges its home government to conclude a treaty of arbitration with the United States.

October 3.—The thirteenth international peace conference opens at Boston.

October 7.—The Franco-Spanish agreement relative to Morocco is signed at Paris.

October 11.—The United States cabinet considers the seizure of American mail on the British steamer *Calchas* by Russia.

October 19.—Russian troops are withdrawn from the German frontier....It is announced at Washington that Secretary Taft will go to Panama to convey assurances to the people of the canal strip that their rights are guaranteed by the United States.

THE RUSSO-JAPANESE WAR.

September 21.—Two Japanese divisions attack the Russian left flank on the Hun River, but are repulsed after three hours' fighting, losing over 700 men.

September 22.—The Contraband Commission, sitting at St. Petersburg, declare coal, cotton, and iron materials contraband of war....The Japanese capture two more important forts at Port Arthur....The Russian auxiliary cruiser *Terek* arrives at Las Palmas for coaling, but is ordered by the authorities to leave at once.

September 23.—The Russian auxiliary cruiser *Terek* leaves Las Palmas....The *Petersburg* and *Smolensk* arrive at Suez on their way to Port Saïd....The Japanese flanking movement to the east of Mukden makes progress....Cold weather begins in Manchuria....The Japanese occupy the Tieling Pass, south of Mukden.... Junks come up the Liao River with Japanese supplies.

September 25.—The Circum-Baikal Railway is completed and opened....General Grippenberg is appointed commander of the second Russian army in Manchuria; it is reported in Paris that General Kuropatkin has received 60,000 men as reënforcements during the past fortnight....After three days' desperate fighting, the Japanese capture six forts on the second line of defense at Port Arthur.

September 26.—Japan's rice crop is 20 per cent. greater this year than usual....There are frequent encounters in the valley of the Hun-ho River, east of Mukden.

September 27.—All news from Mukden shows that important events are near at hand....The Chinese at Mukden refuse to act as Russian spies.

September 29.—The Japanese military system is changed, so that whereas men hitherto passed into the territorial army after twelve and a half years, they will henceforth remain eligible for foreign service for seventeen and a half years; this increases Japan's fighting strength by 600,000 men.

October 1.—The first Japanese train arrives at Liao-Yang; the transport question is thus solved for the Japanese.

October 2.—The first south-bound train on the reconstructed railway from Liao-Yang leaves with 490 Japanese wounded and 100 sick and 33 Russian wounded.

October 3.—Official announcement is published in Tokio to the effect that a Russian steamer was sunk outside Port Arthur on September 20.

October 4.—The Russian army under General Kuropatkin begins an offensive movement, capturing Bentsiaputze, after sharp fighting.



ONE WHO KNOWS.

HEIR TO ALL THE RUSSIAS (to heir of Italy): "I say, young Piedmont, if you'll take an older man's advice, keep clear of these nasty jumping toys. They get on your nerves."

From *Punch* (London).

October 10-12.—The Japanese stubbornly contest the Russian advance near Yen-Tai; 38 Russian guns are reported captured.

October 13-15.—The Russian troops retreat before the Japanese near Yen-Tai; the Russian losses are estimated at 30,000, and the Japanese at 20,000.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

September 21.—Work is resumed in all the large cities of Italy.

September 22.—The Institute of International Law opens its annual congress at Edinburgh.

September 23.—The volcano of Vesuvius is more active than for ten years past.



THE LATE SIR WILLIAM VERNON HARCOURT.

September 24.—Seventy persons are killed and 125 injured in a head-on collision on the Southern Railway, near Knoxville, Tenn.

September 27.—The British torpedo-boat destroyer *Chamois* is lost in the Gulf of Patras by an accident to her screw.

September 28.—A conference between delegates of the United Free and Free Churches of Scotland, to discuss arrangements in view of the recent decision of the British House of Lords, is held in Edinburgh (see page 629).

September 29.—The United States battleship *Connecticut* is launched at the New York navy yard.

October 3.—A train on the New York subway makes a run of seven miles in ten minutes.

October 5.—The Triennial General Convention of the Protestant Episcopal Church meets at Boston (see page 586).

October 14.—Twelve lives are lost in a shipwreck near Chatham, Mass.

October 18.—Columbia University confers the degree of LL.D. on the Rt. Hon. James Bryce (see page 548).

OBITUARY.

September 21.—Judge Andrew Howell, author of the annotated statutes of Michigan, 77.

September 22.—Prof. Samuel Ives Curtiss, of Chicago Theological Seminary, 60....Benjamin Matlack Everhart, of Pennsylvania, an expert botanist, 87....Walter Severn, the English landscape painter, 74....Chief Joseph, of the Nez Perces.

September 23.—Henry L. Butler, of Paterson, N. J., 71....Gen. Edwin C. Pike, of Massachusetts, a veteran of the Civil War, 81.

September 24.—Neils Finsen, the Danish discoverer of the light treatment of lupus, 43....Ex-Mayor Franklin Edson, of New York City, 72.

September 25.—Rear-Admiral Fernando P. Gilmore, U.S.N. (retired), 57....Louis Fleischmann, the wealthy baker-philanthropist of New York City, 68....Frederick W. Rhinelander, president of the Metropolitan Museum of Art, of New York, 76.

September 26.—Lafcadio Hearn, the author, 54 (see page 561)....John F. Stairs, of Halifax, formerly a member of the Canadian House of Commons, 56.

September 27.—Arthur Kirk, known in Pennsylvania as the "Father of Good Roads," 80.

September 30.—Senator George Frisbie Hoar, of Massachusetts, 78 (see page 551).

October 1.—Sir William Vernon-Harcourt, late Liberal leader in the British House of Commons, 80.

October 3.—Rev. Horace G. Day, of Schenectady, N. Y., 85.

October 4.—Frédéric Auguste Bartholdi, designer of the statue of "Liberty" in New York Harbor, 70 (see page 560)....Postmaster-General Henry C. Payne, 61.

October 5.—Col. Harlan P. Lillibridge, diplomatist, railroad-builder, and capitalist, 62....Prof. Samuel Foster Upham, of Drew Theological Seminary, Madison, N. J., 70.

October 6.—Ira Davenport, an unsuccessful Republican candidate for governor of New York State, 63.

October 7.—Mrs. Isabella L. Bishop, the English traveler and author, 72.

October 8.—Ex-United States Senator Matt W. Ransom, of North Carolina, 78.

October 9.—Gustavus W. Pach, the New York photographer, 59.

October 10.—John Hollingshead, the well-known London journalist, 77.

October 14.—King George of Saxony, 72.

October 15.—Ex-Gov. Alonzo B. Cornell, of New York, 72.

October 16.—Brig.-Gen. William Scott Worth, U.S.A. (retired), 64.

October 19.—Brig.-Gen. George D. Ruggles, U.S.A. (retired), 71....Vice-Admiral Vansittart, R.N. (retired), 86.

CARTOONS OF THE CAMPAIGN.



A GUM-SHOE CAMPAIGN.—From the *Telegram* (New York).



SENATOR FAIRBANKS SCATTERING SPEECHES BROADCAST.

And they said he was not a strenuous candidate.

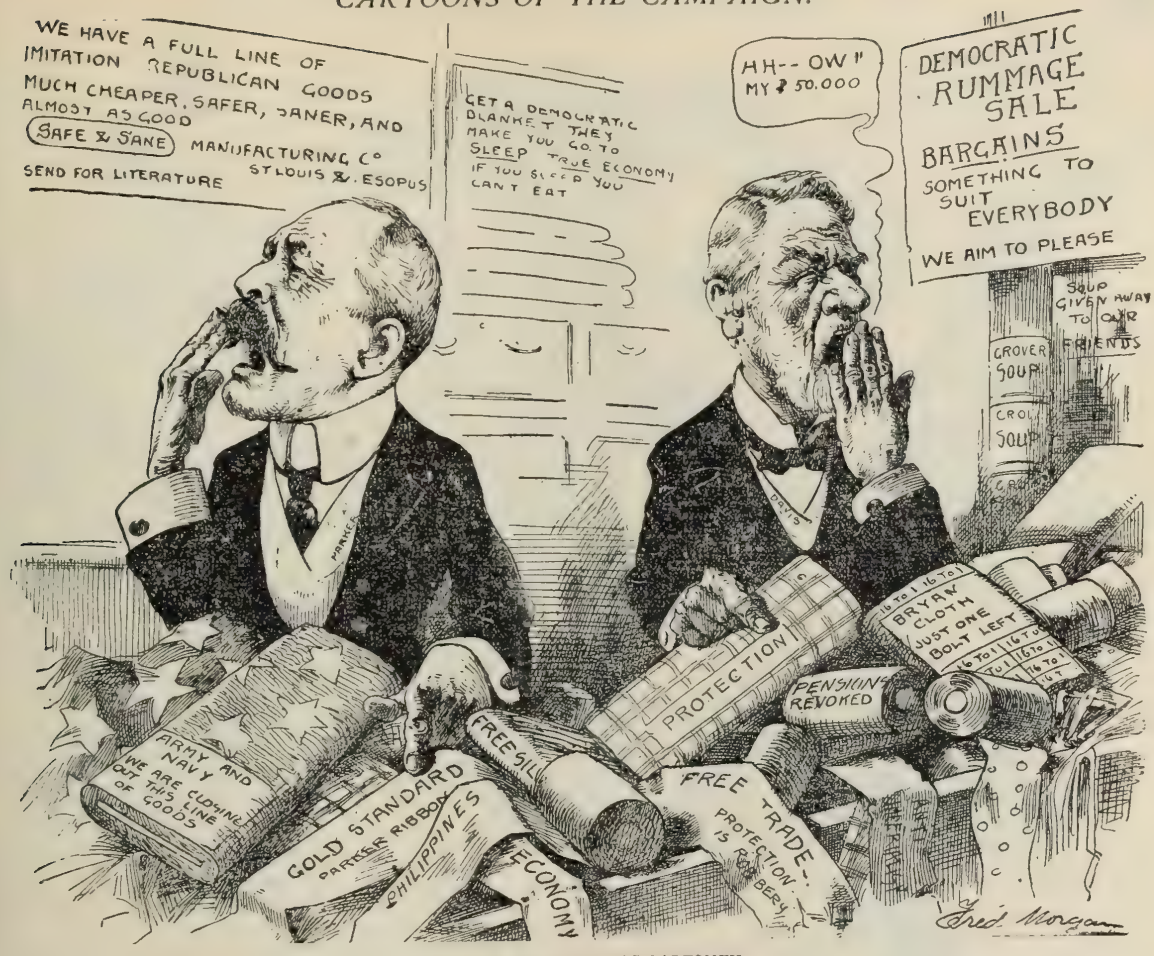
From the *Press* (Binghamton).



PRETTY BIRDIE.

Candidate Davis trying to secure the Maryland vote.

From the *Telegram* (New York).

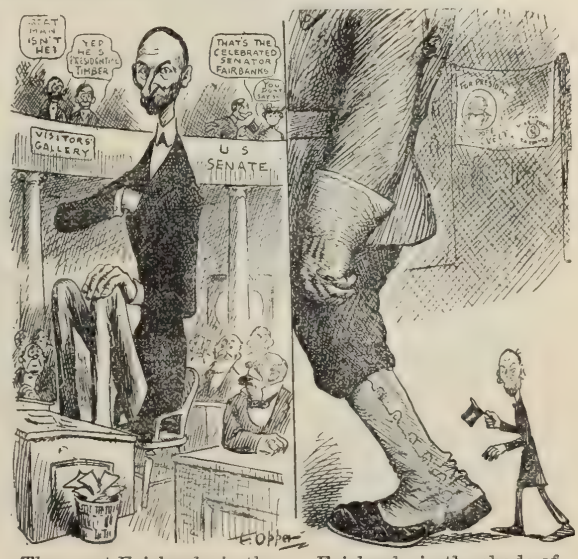


PARKER AND DAVIS AS SALESMEN.

Business is frightful'y dull, considering the great variety of *cheap* goods they are offering the public.
From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).



ROOSEVELT: "'Twill help to make the pot boil."
From the *Brooklyn Eagle* (New York).



The great Fairbanks in the Senate.

Fairbanks in the shade of the "Rough Rider."

"HOW ARE THE MIGHTY FALLEN!"
From the *American* (New York).



THE ANGEL OF PEACE: "Help! help!"—From the *World* (New York).



LA FOLLETTE, OF WISCONSIN, IN HIS HOUR OF TRIUMPH.

(Governor La Follette's ticket was declared regular, last month, by the Wisconsin Supreme Court.)

From the *Post* (Washington, D. C.)



SPOONER AND BABCOCK AS THE MARK TAPLEYS OF WISCONSIN.—From the *Post* (Washington, D. C.).



HOW TO MILK THE BEEF TRUST.—From the *World* (New York).



THE SILENCING OF PARKER.

PARKER (from under the bed): "I *will* speak!"
MISS DEMOCRACY: "No, Alton, I cannot allow you to make speeches. Stay where you are until after election."
From the *Mail* (New York).



SUCH A DISAPPOINTMENT!

MISS DEMOCRACY AS THE FORTUNE-TELLER (to Mr. Parker): "You are contemplating a trip to Washington, Judge; you won't take it."—From the *Mail* (New York).



PARKER (the Esopus Patient): "Can't *you do* something for me, Dr. Gorman?"

From the *Mail* (New York).



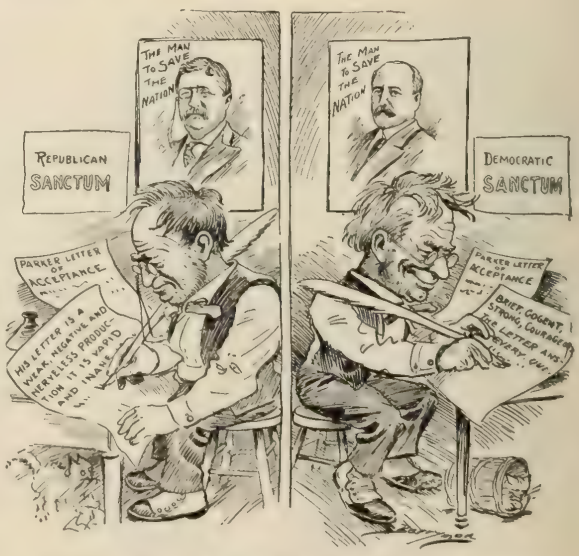
TOO LATE FOR HOPE.

But not too early for a little condolence and sympathy.—From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).



BRYAN AS AARON: "You know what I think of our Moses. Well, he's better than Roosevelt, anyhow!"

From the *Post* (Washington).



HOW THE PARTY EDITORS DEALT WITH JUDGE PARKER'S LETTER OF ACCEPTANCE.

From the *Post* (Washington).



BRYAN SAYS HE IS THE AARON AND NOT THE MOSES OF THE DEMOCRATIC PARTY. SOME PEOPLE THINK HE IS THE JONAH.—From the *Press* (Binghamton)



UNCLE SAM (to Parker): "If you want the job as President, let's see your plans."

From the *Leader* (Cleveland).



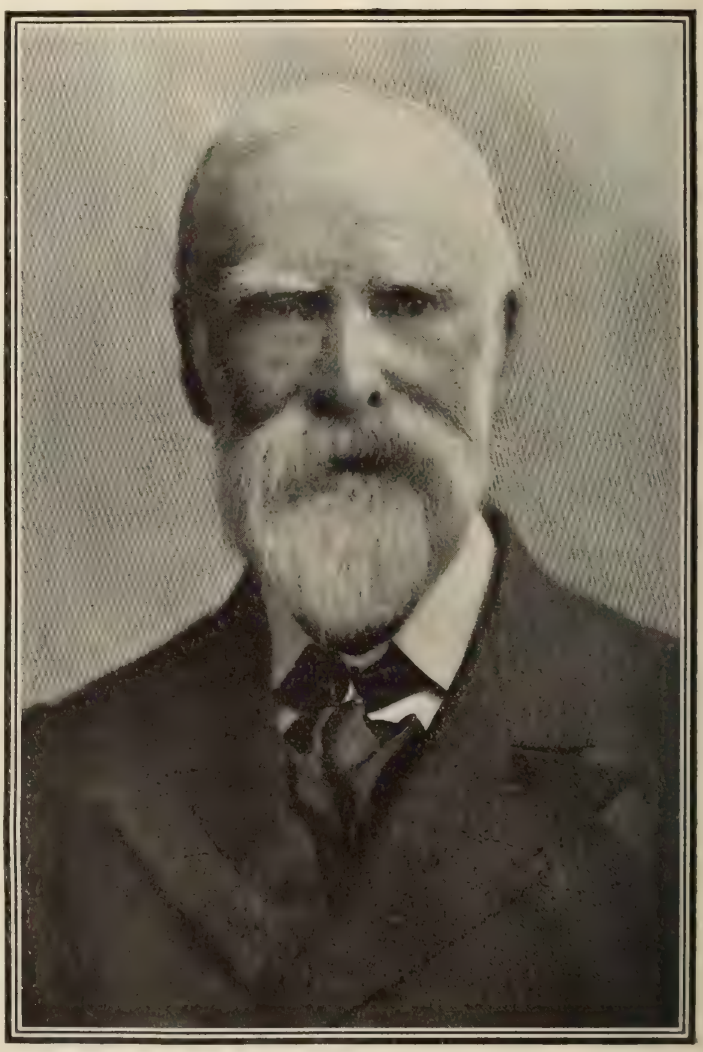
THE PARKER BABES IN THE WOODS OF NEBRASKA.—BRYAN AND WATSON AS THE PAIR OF DREADFUL RUFFIANS.

From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).

MR. MORLEY AND MR. BRYCE IN AMERICA.

DISTINGUISHED visitors from other lands are always made welcome when they come to the United States, but there are some that an especially hearty greeting awaits, and to this class belong two men who will be here at the time of our Presidential election. These are the Rt. Hon. James Bryce and the Rt. Hon. John Morley. We do not count them as foreigners, but as of our own people. Mr. Bryce, indeed, has long known us by direct observation of our public, social, and private life, and he has perhaps almost as many personal friends on this side of the Atlantic as he has in the British Islands. Mr. Morley has not known us heretofore in the same way as Mr. Bryce, but he has been well acquainted with our history, while, on the other hand, we have been no less appreciative of his literary work than are his readers at home.

The names of Mr. Bryce and Mr. Morley are very naturally associated with each other on many accounts. They have long stood for the same things in English public life; and they, among the younger men closely supporting Mr. Gladstone, are better known to American readers, and would also seem to be in closer accord with the best American public opinion, than any other British statesmen. They are of nearly the same age, both having been born in the year 1838, and being, therefore, now sixty-six or thereabouts. By way of comparison, they are of just the same age as our Secretary of State, the Hon. John Hay. The Hon. Grover Cleveland is one year older, as are also Mr. Andrew Carnegie, Mr. Whitelaw Reid, Mr. W. D. Howells, Mr. Pierpont Morgan, and others now prominent in our American world of thought and action.

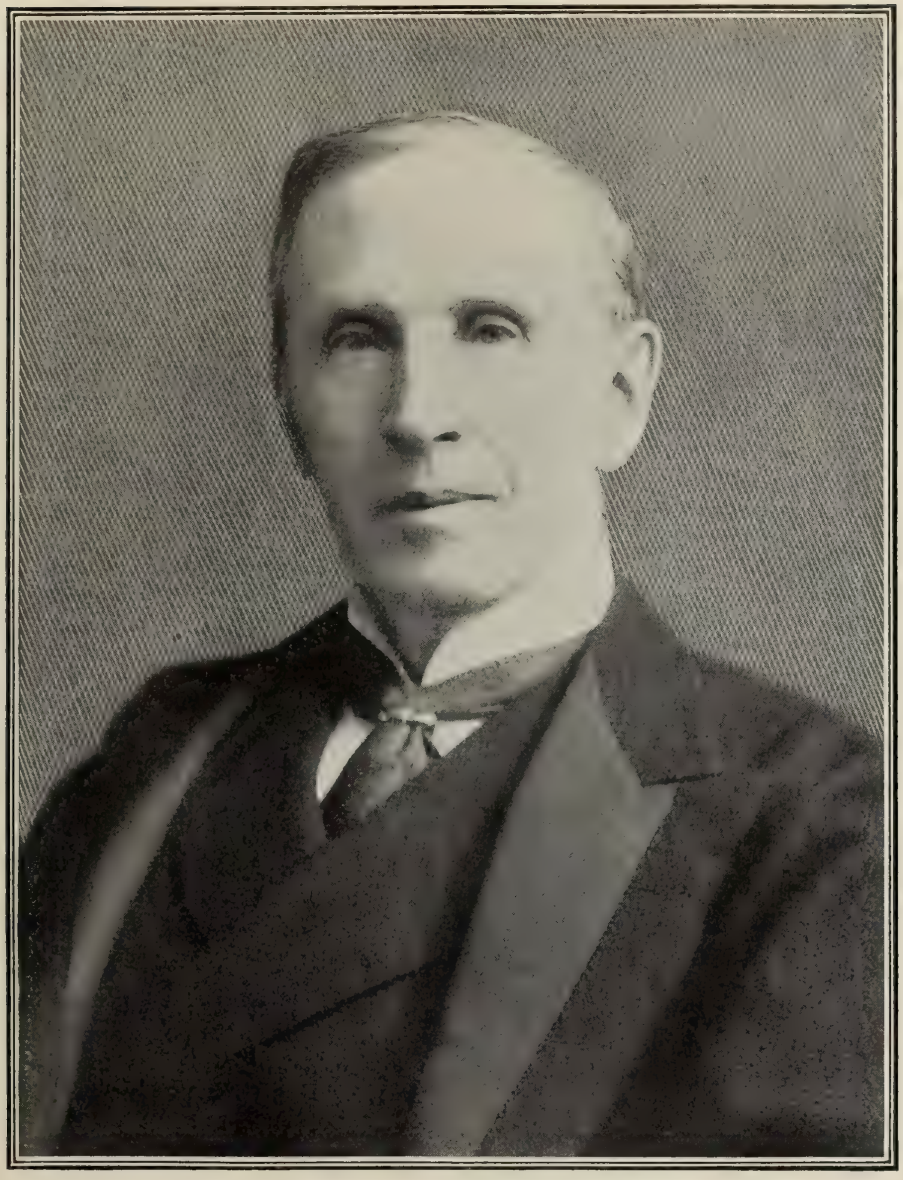


THE RT. HON. JAMES BRYCE.

(From a photograph by Davis & Sanford, New York, taken especially for the REVIEW OF REVIEWS on October 14.—See frontispiece.)

Mr. Bryce's hair and beard have whitened noticeably since his last visit to the United States, but public men in England at his time of life are still in the vigor and prime of their activity. A very distinguished Liberal colleague of Mr. Morley and Mr. Bryce,—namely, Sir William Vernon Harcourt, who died only last month,—was about eleven years older, having been born seventy-seven years ago. Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman, who is the official leader of the Liberal party in the House of Commons and sits with Mr. Bryce and Mr. Morley on the front opposition bench, is their senior by two or three years, having entered upon his sixty-ninth year in September last, while Lord Spencer, who is the official leader of the Liberals in the upper house, is still a little older, having attained the age of sixty-nine a few days ago.

At some time in the very near future, probably within six months, there will be a general



THE RT. HON. JOHN MORLEY, NOW IN THIS COUNTRY.

election in England, the Liberal party will come into power again, Lord Spencer will very probably be asked by King Edward to form a ministry, and Mr. Bryce and Mr. Morley will be leading members of the cabinet. While noting the ages of these prominent leaders in English politics, it should be noted that Mr. Chamberlain, who in his earlier career was, like Mr. Bryce and Mr. Morley, one of Mr. Gladstone's most trusted lieutenants, is in his sixty-ninth year, while the present prime minister, Mr. Balfour (as also Lord Rosebery), is about ten years younger than Messrs. Morley and Bryce.

It is to Mr. Carnegie that we owe the honor of Mr. Morley's present visit. These two eminent citizens of the English-speaking world arrived at New York on Saturday, the 22d of October. In token of a long-time friendship, Mr. Carnegie several years ago presented to Mr. Morley the great and famous historical library of the late Lord Acton. Mr. Morley is to give the Founder's Day address at the Carnegie Institute of Pittsburg on November 3. He is also expected to accompany Mr. Carnegie to St. Louis, where the great fair will be inspected, and where Mr. Carnegie is to address the Chamber of Commerce.

Mr. Morley was at the height of a great literary fame when, at the age of forty-five, in 1883, he entered politics and began a Parliamentary career of the very first rank. In a remarkably short time after entering politics, he became an effective debater in the House and a fluent speaker on the hustings. He is an Oxford man, and has received many university honors. He read law at Lincoln's Inn, and became a barrister in 1873. Meanwhile, he had been engaged in literary and editorial work for a number of years, and from 1867 to 1883 he edited the *Fortnightly Review*,—at the same time, from 1880 to 1883, editing the *Pall Mall Gazette*, a famous afternoon daily paper of London. He gave up the *Pall Mall Gazette* and the *Fortnightly* on entering Parliament. In 1886, he was in Mr. Gladstone's cabinet as Chief Secretary for Ireland, a ministerial post that he held again in the period from 1892 to 1895.

Many of his books have already become classics in English literature. Notable among these are his biographical studies of Burke, Voltaire, Rousseau, Diderot and the Encyclopedists, and Richard Cobden, all of these having been written in the period before he entered Parliament. Quite recently he has written a volume on Oliver Cromwell, and,—latest and greatest,—an extended and authoritative biography of William E. Gladstone. He has also published a number of volumes of collected essays and studies in the fields of ethics, philosophy, education, politics, history, biography, and literary criticism. Hardly any other writer of our times has shown himself so capable of breadth and justice of view. England has furnished us with a long list of public men who have also been distinguished in authorship, but few have been so successful in both spheres as Mr. John Morley.

Mr. Bryce came to this country some weeks ago as one of the distinguished scholars whose coöperation had been sought and obtained for the International Congress of Arts and Science at St. Louis. He was a vice-president of that congress, and delivered an address there late in September. Meanwhile, he had been secured by Columbia University for the initial course of lectures on the Carpentier Foundation, his subject being "Law in Its Relations to History." On the completion, last month, of the Columbia lectures, he went to Harvard to give several lectures in a course founded by the late Mr. E. L. Godkin. It is said that one of the subjects with which Mr. Bryce is concerning himself during this visit is the revision at some future time of his great work on "The American Commonwealth."

This work, which is an analytical and descriptive account of American institutions of government and of American social life and conditions, made its first appearance nearly sixteen years ago, and it has proved itself the most complete and successful book ever written about the American people. It is sometimes compared with De Tocqueville's "Democracy in America," which appeared in 1835–40; but Mr. Bryce's work is based upon more extended and thorough studies. Like Mr. Morley, Mr. Bryce is accounted as preëminently the scholar and man of letters in politics. Mr. Bryce's career, however, has been more closely identified than that of his colleague with legal and political science.

His student career at Oxford was a brilliant one, and he was elected a fellow of Oriel College in 1862. He became a barrister of Lincoln's Inn in 1867, and was in legal practice for fifteen years. Meanwhile, in 1870, he was appointed to the post of Regius Professor of Civil Law at Oxford, which he held for twenty-three years, before resigning it on account of the pressure of his Parliamentary and other work. He is now serving his twenty-fifth year in the House of Commons. From his early youth, he has been a great traveler, and his knowledge of foreign countries and of international law and politics has long been recognized, so that he is accounted one of the chief English authorities upon matters of foreign policy. He was Under Secretary for Foreign Affairs almost twenty years ago, and has since held several other positions in Liberal cabinets.

He is a member of many learned societies, holds many honorary degrees, and only last month received another from Columbia University. He began to write books while still very young, and as early as 1862 published "The Holy Roman Empire," which after more than forty years he has just been revising. His "Impressions of South Africa," written seven years ago, is the most statesman-like as well as the most interesting account we have of the development of that region; and he has published various other works. He returns to England about the tenth of the present month.

GEORGE FRISBIE HOAR: A CHARACTER SKETCH.

BY TALCOTT WILLIAMS.

NO familiar business is so little understood by the American people as the job of being Congressman. The isolation of the national capital, the absence of an encircling class about Congress whose members in lands with such a class learn from boyhood the legislative task, and the small share of men reëlected for more than two terms leaves the country at large without any great number of men who have served long enough to know the work to which they have been called. On the average, a little less than half of each Congress fails of reëlection. There have been tidal years, like 1840 and 1890, when less than a third returned. By consequence, a very small group does all the real work of national legislation, a smaller group than in any other national legislature in the world, for in none do districts make such a sweep at every election. Some three-score men, about the number of men who cluster around the two front benches on either side of the mace and dispatch boxes in the House at St. Stephen's, do all the work of the House of Representatives. The rest are moving shadows that come and go and but make up the list of aye and no. In the Senate, with a longer term, a larger proportion must be reckoned with, but there some twenty are the Senate chamber. Senator Edmunds once said six did the work of the Senate. All told, about seventy-five to eighty men in both chambers run Congress and are the real national legislature, a body so small and so concealed that only the political expert knows their names. Yet ask any man who for years together has watched sessions from the seat of a correspondent—more permanent and often of more influence than any but these few in the chamber below—to check the men who do the work of Congress, and he will stop about twenty or thirty short of a hundred.



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THE LATE SENATOR GEORGE F. HOAR, OF MASSACHUSETTS.

When a man is for thirty-five years in Congress, or half his life, as was George Frisbie Hoar, he is not only one of this group, but at the close of his life one of its ruling elders, weighty for seniority, for deference, for public reputation, and for personal influence. In this group, in which men maintain an uncertain footing depending on a distant district or a changing State legislature, itself renewed complete every four or six years, men specialize. There are men, little heard by the general public, so powerful in the close quarters and patient toil of the committee room that the form of legislation and the distribution of appropriations are almost wholly theirs. Such a man is Senator Allison, and such for years was Speaker Cannon. Men there are to whom legislation is as nothing and party leadership all, as was each to Senator Hanna in recent years and to Blaine thirty years ago. But there are also men to whom Congress is a vast sounding board, who are heard by all the land. For one party or the other, they frame its utterances, express its aspirations, and render visible and vocal its intent and inspiration, its purpose and policy.

Senator Hoar for a generation did this in Congress, and for half a century on the platform. When he was called, in 1850, at twenty-four, to

the platform of a meeting waiting for Judge Allen, and became among the younger men of Massachusetts by a single speech the recognized speaker of the Free Soil movement, he executed this special task as completely and efficiently as eleven months ago, when in his last important utterance on a new public question—the issue, not of his generation, but of the next—he outlined on trusts the policy to which all the country came six months later,—publicity enforced by exclusion from interstate commerce for corporations which refused full reports of their condition and transactions.

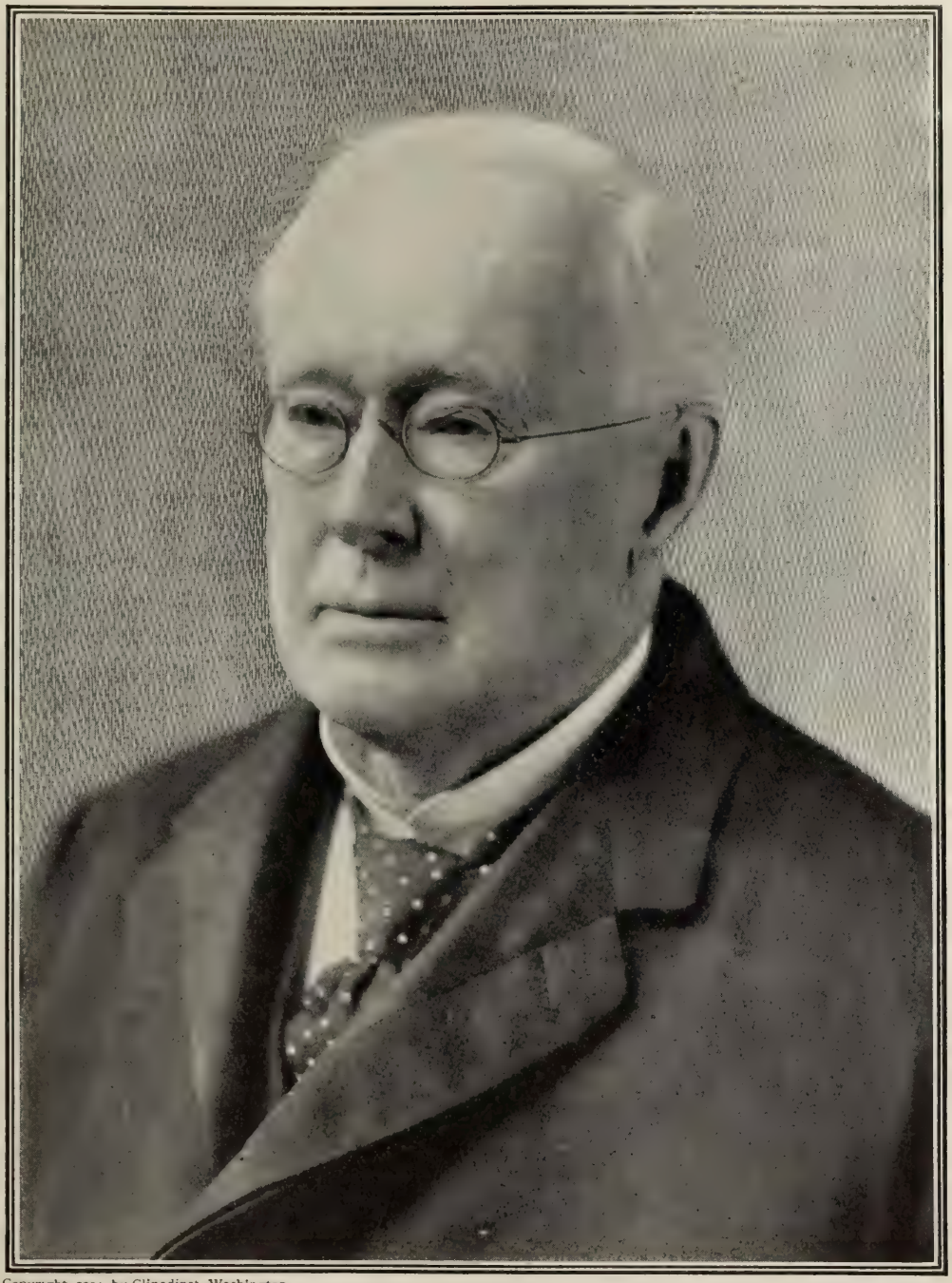
The generations that were past had done all they could for him. He came of the soundest New England stock. No fiber of Englishry was absent from his frame. Three of his ancestors and six of his family stood at Concord Bridge in the company his grandfather commanded. He heard all the story in his boyhood from those who shared it. His grandfather, Roger Sherman, alone signed all four of the great charters of the nation, the Articles of Association and Confederation, the Declaration and Constitution. He alone of those who came from New England added to the foundations of the Constitution and shaped its bulwarks. The New England that was before Webster and the New England since has been more successful in agitation than in construction, in controversy than in conflict. No one of the greater commanders of the Civil War was born in New England. In 1787, it was the Middle States and Virginia which shaped the Constitution, though in both struggles the ideas and the action of New England had precipitated the struggle.

Come of this stock, he was of a Congressional family. His grandfather and father, his brother and his nephews, all sat in Congress, and his son was nominated to a seat the week of his funeral. Not the Harrisons and Masons and Randolphs of Virginia, the Lamars of the Gulf States, the Clays of the middle West, or the Adamses of his own State were bred in a more constant attention to the affairs of the State or were surrounded by a more instant, if insensible, training. He had, above all, that schooling in democracy and personal address bred by the New England town and its town meeting. Concord, where he was born, in 1826, had in fifty-five years gained but two hundred and twenty-four in its population (1765–1561 : 1820–1788), a little over an eighth. Of its original organizers, in 1635, nearly all were still represented two hundred years later, in 1835. During his term in Congress, 1870 to 1900, Concord doubled, and rose in population from 2,417 to 5,652, one-fourth foreign at both dates. Making all allowances for State institutions planted within its borders, this was a transformation from a community as vivid and as antochthonous as an Attic deme to one muddied with streams from many lands. The Concord of Senator Hoar's boyhood had for its citizens Emerson, Hawthorne, Thoreau, and Alcott. It was to produce one of the first of American sculptors, French. Lesser names are on its list by the score. Only Hellenic civilization has been thus happy in crowding in a single generation into a population of half a thousand families those who in affairs, letters, and the arts were to lead a great land and stimulate a great race.

Senator Hoar fitted for college with Mrs. Samuel Ripley, a woman whose training of young men is a perpetual answer to the suggestion that a young man will be less a man because his teachers are of the sex of his mother. He went through the Harvard of sixty years ago. In his autobiography, he frankly confessed that there he learned much from the men who taught him and little from the books he studied ; but he had the inestimable advantage of being forced to apply himself to studies which beyond any others school men to the control of their own minds and the expression of their ideas. To the last speech he made, every line reflected the value of his early and later study of the classics. He evinced all his life the discipline of studying what the ages had elected for him, instead of electing for himself out of a maze of offered studies, with a leaning for "forenoon courses."

It would be idle to rank him among those whom poverty restrains or untoward obstruction stimulates. He was as good as born in the purple. He came of "earth's first blood, had titles manifold"—none the less likely to aid and all the more certain to arouse no envy and school to emulation because they were recorded in no peerage and stimulated a pride of opportunity rather than an empty vanity in privilege. It was of such families and such men that the acute thinker and penetrating historian, Edward A. Freeman, wrote : "It is only in a commonwealth that a nobility can really rule, and even in a democratic commonwealth, the sentiment of nobility may exist, though all legal privilege has been abolished or has never existed. That is to say, traditional feeling may give the members of certain families a strong preference, to say the least, in election to office."

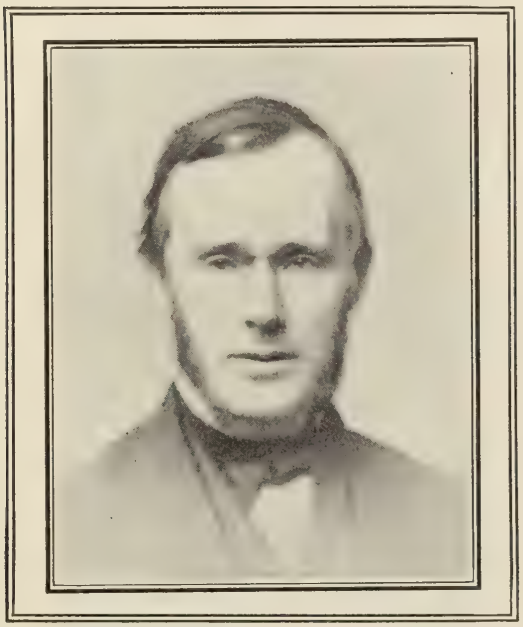
This "strong preference" may elect a man once. It will never, alone, reëlect him. When Mr. Hoar, at forty-two, was first elected, in 1868, to the House, he was a leading lawyer in a provincial town—Worcester—of some thirty-four thousand inhabitants. He had served once in



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THE LATEST PORTRAIT OF SENATOR HOAR.

the lower chamber of the State legislature and once in the upper. He had urged factory legislation, limiting hours. He had worked for education. He had a multitude of clients gained in twenty years of practice, but he had been associated with few conspicuous cases. He had made no vivid impression on bar or public. No one would have put him higher than among the sound *nisi prius* lawyers of a local bar, always highly respectable but never eminent. I was sitting in the seat of a young, a very young, cor-



A PORTRAIT OF MR. HOAR ABOUT THE TIME HE ENTERED CONGRESS, IN 1868.

respondent in the House at Washington when I saw a fluttering message carried to Mrs. Hoar in the "members' gallery," and a moment later the thronging congratulation, on the floor, of the member from Massachusetts, newly elevated to the Senate.

I remember well how general was the impression that Massachusetts had ceased to produce great men and was about to be represented by a man of moderate ability with a gift and turn for rhetorical declamation. The press gallery was full of an acidulous story of Mr. Hoar rehearsing endlessly before a mirror in his very modest rooms at the hotel and having once naïvely consented to a belated interview on a warm summer night clad only in the oratory and the nightgown of his fathers. His speeches unquestionably, at this stage, smelled of the lamp, and a lamp he had not yet learned to trim. He had the New England voice, which grates under emotion. He wore side-whiskers, which marred all the finer modeling of his profile. He stooped. He rose on his toes for emphasis. He was nervous. His speeches never were "news." His gestures had the mechanical and reflected accuracy of the mirror before which he had practised them. As a Congressional speech-maker, he was then principally known as the author of a criticism of his own party, delivered while a manager of the Belknap impeachment, which was for twenty years the favorite campaign document of the opposition, quoted by every rural Democratic Congressman when he had "leave to print" and wished appropriately to round out his attack on "Republican corruption."

It spoke the man. It was the most creditable utterance of a lifetime of high moral courage. He had entered Congress in that moral slack-water of our history when the ebb of the emotion of an heroic struggle had left bare, ugly, and exposed the slime and sickening corruption which succeeded the Civil War, as it did the Revolution. The air of the national capital was full of pleas for silence, excuse, and acquittal. Men were longing for the Prophet's voice. He sounded it in that appalling record of sinners and scapegoats when trying to persuade an unwilling Senate to convict Belknap, as he had earlier urged the credit mobilier inquiry in a period so much worse than that to-day that, to those who knew the Washington of 1868–77, federal scandals now seem trivial. The Prophet may be respected. He is never popular. But when the Electoral Commission came, Mr. Hoar was one of the Republicans the Democratic managers of the House were willing to see chosen. The fifteen on that tribunal,—as lofty and novel an achievement in constitutional practice as our race has ever accomplished, to which his legal acumen contributed much,—had under the political conditions of the day to be selected by unanimous consent. Neither party could elect a man to whom the other party seriously objected.

Senator Hoar, therefore, began his career in the Senate with a sense of party detachment. He was expected to be an independent. He was, instead, a strong party man. The explanation was simple. He had inherited and he shared that sense and instinct for corporate action which makes free government possible. No "independent" would ever enjoy to-day the inestimable privilege of free speech and untrammeled criticism if English-speaking men, loyal through generations to party ties, had not through that instrument created constitutional freedom. As Senator Hoar wrote in 1884, urging "my dear young friend" to vote for Blaine:

Party is but the instrument by which freemen execute their will. But it differs from other instruments in this,—it is an indispensable instrument. It is made up of the men, and practically all the men, who wish to accomplish the things you deem vital to the prosperity, honor, and glory of your country. You may not like the general the commissioned authority of the Republican party has selected. But you fight on the Democratic side with the Democratic and against the Republican party, on everything on which these two parties differ, if you vote for Grover Cleveland. We will vote for no corrupt or unclean man for President. At the same time, we do not mean to help any party to gain the Presidency by crime.

To this creed he held all his life. He was not in a State where party was made the instrument of plunder and its management a sink of iniquity. He would have bolted Butler and opposed him, though even here slow in his opposition. To the close of his career, he held to a sound belief in the claims of party, opposed the treaty of Paris and the Panama treaty in debate, and voted for both. Throughout, he was of constant and patriotic service in connecting the brains and principle of his party with its working management and titular leadership. He kept President Grant's confidence when other reformers lost it. His close connection and acquaintance with the managers of party machinery enabled him to stay many a vicious project and secure many a sound compromise which a man walking alone could never have gained.



A SKETCH OF SENATOR HOAR WHILE SPEAKING IN THE UNITED STATES SENATE.

His long national service had few greater gifts to his land than the party service he gave when, as chairman of the Republican national convention, in 1880, he prevented Grant's nomination for a third term and assured Garfield's. Every force of evil in the Republican party, all the seventy-times-seven devils expelled by the revelations and investigations of a decade, rallied to put an honest hero to dishonest use. Senator Hoar was never seen to better advantage than in those long days when with uplifted gavel and high-pitched voice he ruled that storm and turned back its mad desire. Nor is such service possible except to the man who feels the responsibility of party action and has the instinct of control and moral leadership.



Photograph by Parker, Washington.

ONE OF THE MOST FAMILIAR PORTRAITS OF MR. HOAR.

Never before or after was he called to this high service. Nowhere else in his life did he display that unique power of personal direction and impartial decision which distinguishes the presiding officer of our race. No other race has it. For lack of it, in the hands of no other men is the representative chamber workable. The best of his time and training shone in those Chicago days which saved the republic from departure from a sound tradition essential to free government.

But this was not to be his service. His State elected him to the Senate oftener than any of her sons. He had many faults. Quick-tempered, he had the impatience over slower and more pliable men frequent in those of high intellectual powers. In his early years of service, he had his share of egotism, not unnatural. He was not at his best in making it easy for his colleagues to get on with him, and he lacked in tact, affronting men by a lofty superiority, to himself unconscious, and to other men sometimes seeming to be self-conscious. He displayed, in short, and particularly before he had reached the full stature of his statesmanship, just the qualities which should have alienated support. He outgrew these faults, as



SENATOR HOAR'S RESIDENCE, 1605 CONNECTICUT AVENUE, WASHINGTON.
(Purchased in 1902, shortly before Mrs. Hoar's death.)

he showed best by his jests about them. The Massachusetts mass vote is of the best type of democracy, and forgives all to the servant of faithful service who wins distinction. He brought to his labors the industry of the untiring attorney. He had done something to bring to a semblance of judicial process the election law of the House. For years, in the Senate, he conducted the countless issues as to election with a patient regard for the law and an impatient opposition to any reduction of the Republican vote. Early on the judiciary committee he became its head. This body, whose name is scarcely known to the layman, decides the character of our federal judiciary. In the task he was untiring, and the great improvement in federal judges in the past thirty years was in no small measure his work. His constant service in the Senate was his watchfulness over legislation, his persistent, untiring attention to all the details of law-making. From the day when he early surprised his colleagues by his knowledge of admiralty law to the end, he was constantly displaying an admirable equipment. A man whose monument on the Massachusetts statute book was a code of practice was not of the type which originates or projects. Roger Sherman is known, not for a plan of the Constitution, but for his shrewd practical amendments to another man's plan. His descendant was useful in the same order.

Senator Hoar, in all this, made the public his client. Such men see large the fees they did not get by surrendering private practice. No fees are bigger than the ones a Congressman leaves behind him. But Senator Hoar was never put in the position of a poor man. For twenty years he had as lucrative a practice as his bar afforded. He was twice married, and it was true of both his wives, as of himself, that they did not come of penniless families. He offered, in short, another admirable illustration that the very best public service is often, perhaps, generally done by men whose income gives them a competence equal to the needs of their position.

All he had, he used for the public service. His powers grew with his years. His face grew



SENATOR HOAR'S RESIDENCE AT WORCESTER, MASS.

mellower, more benignant, and more dignified. His voice gained, deepened, and became more impressive. His bearing and manner ceased to be aggressive and became persuasive and commanding. The moral force of his utterances grew. He was currently said to be the last of the old orators of the Senate ; but people were saying the same thing when Fisher Ames and Senator Hoar's grandfather retired. If Senator Spooner is wisely left in the Senate twenty-five years longer, when he dies the same thing will be said. The Congressional *Annals*, *Globe*, and *Record* are really very even reading for one hundred and fifteen years, as those know whose work has called them to tramp that dreary desert of platitudes.

Senator Hoar to all his speeches brought the high tradition of New England. He had a sense for style. He marshaled his words. He took, as was fit, prodigious pains. Off his Congressional ground,—at a college address, for instance,—he was sometimes rather trite. But there was no moment of all his many speeches when men were not aware of his deep moral earnestness, of his devotion to the republic, of his confidence in democratic institutions, and of his trust in the larger hope of their final and full success. He saw, not the exception, but the rule, not the passing error, but the supreme purpose, in all the work of the American people. The New England horizon, in which he had learned so much, limited his vision of other lands and peoples less advanced. Had duty led him that way, he would have unhesitatingly organized an Igorrote tribe into a town meeting and conducted an election by the Australian ballot among the Moros, cheerfully and courageously sacrificing his life for institutions for which he was ready and they were not.

But posterity will forget this, as does the republic to-day, remembering only his lofty patriotism, his unquenchable zeal for the public good, his stainless integrity, and, best of all, the restraint and common sense which through thirty-five years prevented him from ending all his usefulness by warring with the necessary conditions of party government, and the perspicuous political poise which enabled him to use these conditions to advance the general cause of man



THE LIBRARY OF SENATOR HOAR, IN HIS HOUSE AT WORCESTER, MASS.

COMMANDER BOOTH TUCKER AND HIS WORK IN AMERICA.



FREDERICK DE L. BOOTH TUCKER.
(Retiring commander of the Salvation Army in the United States.)

THE leader in one of the most potent agencies for social and religious betterment in this country during the past decade will leave our shores this month. Commander Frederick De L. Booth Tucker, of the Salvation Army, has been assigned to a command in London, at the international headquarters of the army.

The work of the Salvation Army in this country, of recent years, has been characterized by such enterprise, sound management, and self-sacrificing devotion, and, moreover, has been actually productive of such excellent results, that it has become an essential part of the history of American progress. In this work, during the past nine years, Commander Booth Tucker and his devoted wife, Emma Booth Tucker,—or the Consul, as she was known,—have been the inspiration and mainstay, so much so that a consideration of the work of the army during the past decade must of necessity be taken up largely with a recounting of the personal accomplishments of the leader, who is now called to another command.

Frederick De L. Booth Tucker is a man of great energy, perseverance, and resourcefulness. He is a typical Englishman, physically and temperamentally. Although a man of absolute fearlessness, and trained to appear in public by years of experience, he is constitutionally reticent, a lover of solitude, and an admirer of nature. Commander Booth Tucker was educated at Cheltenham College, England, and then studied for the Indian Civil Service, soon attaining one of the most coveted positions under the colonial government. Early in his Indian career, he joined the Salvation Army, and soon became so much interested that he resigned his government



THE LATE CONSUL, EMMA BOOTH TUCKER.
(Died in November, 1903.)

position and offered his services to General Booth. After a year's work in England, he returned to India to open up army work there. The adoption of native costumes and customs by Indian Salvationists was due to his initiative, and resulted in greatly increased success. After ten years of service in India, and five more in Europe, Commander Booth Tucker was assigned to the head of the army work in the United States, arriving in this country in 1896.

It was during a visit to England from India, in April, 1888, that the new convert to the Salvation Army cause met and won for his wife the devoted daughter of General Booth. While the services of Emma Booth Tucker to the English army were perhaps her chief work, her labors in the United States were such as to entitle her to a place among the women who have been most useful in the work of uplifting humanity during the past ten years. Her untimely death in the terrible railroad accident, in November of last year, is an event which has not yet faded from the minds of the American people.

The noteworthy accomplishments of the army during the time in which Booth Tucker has been its commander have been, first, of course, in the estimation of religious people, the spiritual conversions. Last year, between forty and fifty thousand persons professed a change of heart. One of the most interesting and picturesque features of the army's social work was the institution of the now famous Christmas dinner for the poor. This year, more than three hundred thousand people will be fed on Christmas Day by the bounty of the generous public, through the splendid management of the Salvation Army.

Perhaps most important, however, from a general reform and economic standpoint, has been the farm-colony idea, which has been worked out to a point which may now be called success. The theory of these colonies Commander Booth Tucker gives in these words: "Place the waste labor on the waste land, by means of waste capital, and thereby convert this modern trinity of waste into a unity of production." A full account of this colonization scheme, with illustrations, was given by Dr. Albert Shaw in this REVIEW for November, 1902. Since Dr. Shaw's article was written, the colony scheme has prospered exceedingly, and has evidently not only come to stay, but to be extended. The enterprise now embraces three colonies,—(1) Fort Amity, in Colorado, in the fertile valley of the Arkansas River; (2) Fort Romie, in California, near the Bay of Monterey; and (3) Fort Herrick, in Ohio, some twenty miles from Cleveland. The site for the Fort Amity colony was purchased in April, 1898. The acreage of this colony is now nearly two thousand. The establishment of a well-equipped sanitarium for consumptives, with an expert physician in charge, is the latest accomplishment of this colony. The Fort Romie colony consists of more than five hundred acres of rich agricultural land. Cottages have been built,

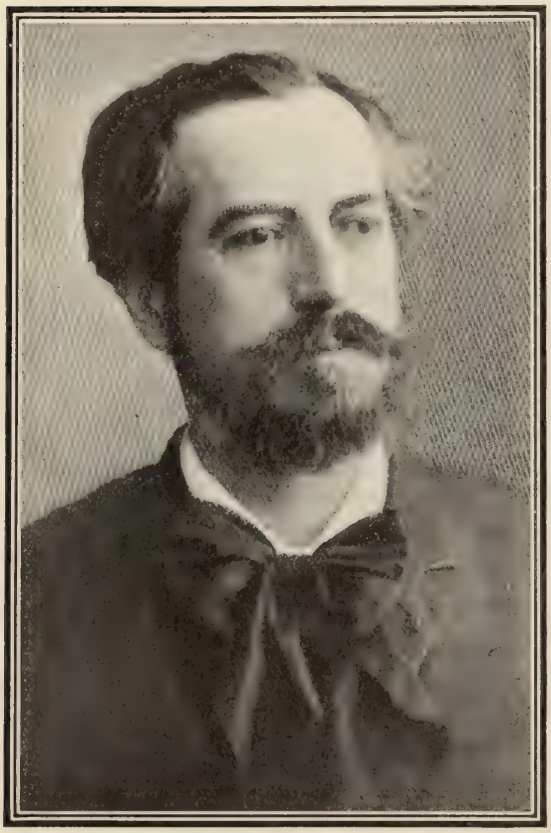


COMMISSIONER EVA BOOTH.
(For eight years Salvation Army leader in Canada.)

and an irrigation scheme begun. The colonists now number one hundred and twenty. There are about two hundred and ninety acres in the Herrick colony, the land being principally owned by Governor Herrick, of Ohio, and deeded to the Salvation Army for colonization purposes.

Commander Booth Tucker sees great possibilities for the future in this colonization plan. He says: "I see no reason why, with this gospel of hope in our land, we should not, in course of time, annihilate involuntary paupers from our midst." His idea has gained the support of a number of our public men, and about a year ago he prepared a bill embodying the principal features of the New Zealand "Advances to Settlers Act," "to create a colonization bureau, and to provide for advances to actual settlers on the public domain," which was introduced in Congress by the late Senator Hoar. It is now in committee.

BARTHOLDI, THE SCULPTOR.



THE LATE FRÉDÉRIC A. BARTHOLDI.
(Died in Paris, October 4, 1904.)

THE gigantic statue, "Liberty Enlightening the World," whose torch is a veritable beacon light to millions of prospective American citizens as they enter the chief port of the new world, is the work which, more than any other, is destined to perpetuate the name of Frédéric Auguste Bartholdi, the French sculptor, who died last month in Paris, from tuberculosis, at the age of seventy. Bartholdi as a youth had studied painting with Ary Scheffer, but had early found sculpture more to his taste.

Bartholdi's "Liberty" was originally designed to commemorate the centennial of American independence, but was not completed until after that anniversary. It was presented to the United States by France in 1884, was erected on Bedlow's Island, in New York Harbor, in the following year, and was dedicated on October 28, 1886.

Bartholdi was the sculptor of the statue of Lafayette, in Union Square, New York City; of the equestrian statue of Vercingetorix, in Paris, and of a colossal group presented by France to Switzerland. "The Lion of Belfort" is regarded as his masterpiece. He painted several canvases in his later years, two of which were entitled, respectively, "Old California" and "New California."



THE STATUE OF "LIBERTY" IN NEW YORK HARBOR.

(The largest bronze statue in the world,—151 feet from the pedestal to the end of the torch, the figure being 111 feet high and the torch being 306 feet above tide level. The statue is now in charge of the United States Lighthouse Board.)

LAFCADIO HEARN, INTERPRETER OF JAPAN.



THE LATE LAFCADIO HEARN.
(Died at Tokio, September 26, 1904.)

IT was just as he had given to the world what is probably the subtlest and most searching analysis of Japan and the Japanese character ever published that Lafcadio Hearn died in Tokio among his adopted people. Mr. Hearn was a remarkable product of a remarkable intermixture of races. His father was an Irish surgeon in the British army; his mother an Ionian Greek girl. He was born in the Ionian Islands, educated in Wales, Ireland, England, and France, in private schools and Roman Catholic institutions; came to the United States and tried to make a living as a book agent in Cincinnati; began reading proof and writing articles for the Cincinnati *Enquirer;* went to New Orleans and kept a restaurant; lived for two years in the West Indies; and, in 1884, began his true literary career with his first book, "Stray Leaves from Strange Literature." His best training as a writer, he declares, was on the Cincinnati *Commercial*, under Murat Halstead. For ten years he remained an editorial writer in New Orleans, bringing out several books, the best-known of which, perhaps, is "Some Chinese Ghosts." In 1890, he went to Japan and began life as a teacher. Soon afterward he married a Japanese wife and became a subject of the empire, taking the name of Y. Koizumi. Within a few years he made himself so familiar with the inner life of the Japanese people that he had become practically one of them. In 1896, he was appointed a lecturer in the Imperial University of Tokio.

Lafcadio Hearn had a knowledge of Oriental life and traditions, particularly those of Japan, probably unequaled among Western authors. His books "Out of the East," "Glimpses of Unfamiliar Fields," "Ghostly Japan," "Kwaïdan," and (the last) "Japan: An Interpretation" (just issued by the Macmillans) are the most subtle and sympathetic interpretations of Japan and its people which have yet been made public. Mr. Hearn was indeed saturated with the Japanese atmosphere, and in "Japan: An Interpretation," he writes with a freedom and sure touch which not only indicate inner conviction, but show a great, rich background of experience and understanding. No work fully interpreting Japanese life, he declares, "no work picturing Japan, within and without, historically and socially, psychologically and ethically, can be written for at least another fifty years." Japan cannot be understood without a thorough comprehension of her religious life, which underlies every fact of her existence. The chief facts of Japanese religion being ancestor-worship and the authority of the family (in the sense of the gens), it is necessary to understand this before we can begin to grasp the psychology of the people. Loyalty to the gods and to the sovereign became so closely identified that religion and government of the Japanese have been for generations only different names for the same thing. The religion of loyalty has made Japan what she is, and, Mr. Hearn declares, her future will depend upon the new religion of loyalty evolved from the ancient religion of the dead. Japan, Mr. Hearn believes, is still in social conditions of an earlier age of the world than the West. These conditions have their beauty and charm and strength, but are scarcely favorable to success in the future national competition.

Mr. Hearn was not a philosopher or a judicial student of life. He was a gifted, born impressionist, with a style resembling that of the French Pierre Loti. His stories and descriptions are delicate or gorgeous word pictures of the subtler and more elusive qualities of Oriental life.

JAPAN AND THE RESURRECTION OF POLAND.

A FAMOUS POLISH AUTHOR INTERVIEWED BY MR. W. T. STEAD.

"THE Polish Republic," said Mr. Lutoslavski, the learned author of "A Study of the Psychology of Plato"—"the Polish Republic——"

"What," I exclaimed, "the Polish Republic! There's no Polish Republic."

"Sir," said the Polish patriot, "it is not for you, who believe in the psychical world, to scoff at that which is not dead but sleeping. The Polish nationality is immortal."

"And you live in the sure and certain hope of its joyful resurrection?" I answered.

"Not a hope," said Mr. Lutoslavski, seriously, "but a certain knowledge of what is coming and must be. A prophecy, a century old, not understood at the time, is nearing its fulfillment."

"And that prophecy?"

"Was to the effect that Poland would come to life again when Russia had been defeated by a nation then unknown in Europe, and England would complete the task which the unknown nation, now easily identifiable as Japan, has already begun."

"What a dreamer you are!"

"The dreams that nations dream come true. The resurrection of Poland draws near. When Russia and Germany are defeated by the great alliance of England, America, France, and Japan, then my country will rise from the tomb and take its place among the states of the world."

"It is a large order, both Germany and Russia!"

"Yes, the two empires, united by a common crime, must be overwhelmed by a common punishment."

"I see no necessity for such a world-wide combat, even for the sake of Poland."

"It is in your destiny. Russia is like a cyclist riding down a steep hill after his brake has snapped. She cannot arrest her course, and will inevitably come into collision with the representatives of the modern world of liberty, of progress, and of justice."

"Russia," I ventured to remark, "has been the bulwark of Europe for centuries against Asiatic invasion. If she were to break up, the Yellow Peril——"

"The Yellow Peril! the Yellow Peril!" cried Mr. Lutoslavski; "Russia is the Yellow Peril. It was and is the Poles who are the vanguard of Western civilization against the Asiatic. It was the Poles who swept the Turks back from the walls of Vienna. It was the Poles who, for a thousand years, manned the ramparts of Europe against the Tartarized Muscovite. The Russians did not stem the tide of Asiatic invasion. They were engulfed by it,—transformed, Tartarized. Their Czar is but the Tartar khan. Their system of government is Oriental. All the arguments you use to eulogize Russia as defender of the West against the East you should use in praise of the Poles, who held the line and did not succumb to the Asiatic flood."

"Then you do not despair really. You still believe in the resurrection of Poland?"

"Despair? Never. A nation which for a thousand years had arts, science, culture, literature, civilization, of its own, when Russia was sunk in letterless barbarism, can never be permanently enslaved by a power so much her inferior physically, mentally, and morally."

"All of which might have been said by the Greeks of the Romans, but Greece was ruled by Rome."

"Only for a season. The Western Empire, which was Rome, passed away like an exhalation before the attack of the Goths and Vandals. The Eastern Empire, which was Greek, survived the sack of Rome by a thousand years. Poland has been buried alive for a century and a half. What is that in the history of a nation?"

"Then when Poland rises again, what kind of a state will she be—monarchy or republic?"

"Republic, of course. She was always a republic, even when she crowned the man of her choice and called him King. Poland, as she will emerge from her sepulcher, will be a great state stretching from the Baltic to the Black Sea. Riga, Königsberg, and Dantzic will be her sea-gates in the north; Odessa her seaport in the Euxine. She will be composed of three races,—the Poles proper, twenty millions; the Ruthenians, twenty millions; and the Lithuanians, five millions. Besides these, there are many Russians and Germans,—minorities,—so that the Polish Republic will start with a population of fifty millions. These will be the real bulwark of civilization against the Yellow Peril, the impregnable rampart garrisoned by an educated, moral, incorruptible, and religious race, against which all the waves of the Tartarized mongreldom will beat in vain."



START OF ONE OF THE "CORN-GOSPEL" TRAINS.

(In eight days the "seed-corn special" trains covered 1,321 miles and passed through 37 of the 99 counties of Iowa. One hundred and fifty talks were given to 17,600 people, directly representing 1,500,000 acres of corn, or an average annual yield of 55,000,000 bushels, worth $18,000,000, and the press carried the information to every farmer and landowner in the State.)

IOWA'S CAMPAIGN FOR BETTER CORN.

BY P. G. HOLDEN.

(Professor of agronomy in the Iowa State College, at Ames, Iowa.)

THE employment, last spring, of special corn trains, known generally as the "seed-corn specials," for the purpose of warning the farmers of Iowa against the dangers of poor seed corn, was the natural outgrowth of the peculiar conditions which existed in that State. By April 10, 1904, twelve hundred samples of seed corn had been received from farmers in different portions of the State by the Iowa Agricultural College and tested to determine their value for seed purposes. These tests showed that an average of 18 per cent. was dead, and that an additional 19 per cent. was low in vitality and unfit to plant, leaving only 63 per cent. of good seed. It was also apparent that even those kernels which gave a fair germination were weakened, and, in the event of a cold spring, such as actually followed, would either refuse to grow or give weak plants. Farmers who had given more than ordinary attention to their seed corn were becoming worried, and many letters, telephone messages, and telegrams were received daily, asking for advice. Yet the great majority were entirely ignorant of the serious condition of their seed corn and the consequent disasters ahead for them and for the entire State.

No person unfamiliar with the agriculture of the corn belt can appreciate the serious consequences of a poor corn crop in Iowa. Iowa without a corn crop would be like Connecticut without a factory. The corn crop of Iowa exceeds in value all other crops combined by fourteen million dollars. It is *the* crop that dominates all the industries of the State. It is the

concern of the railroad, the banker, the merchant, the traveling man, and the laborer.

When one farmer meets another, he does not say "It is a fine day." He says, "It is a good corn day;" or, "This is not good corn weather."

THE ROCK ISLAND SPECIAL TRAIN.

Realizing the situation, Supt. W. H. Given, of the Rock Island road, after consulting with Mr. Henry Wallace, editor of *Wallace's Farmer;* Mr. George A. Wells, secretary of the Iowa Grain Dealers' Association, and others, determined to run a special train for the purpose of giving instruction in the selecting, testing, and planting of seed corn.

Handbills were placed in every station, and the agents were instructed to notify the farmers of the "seed-corn special" and to urge them to attend the meetings at the stations on schedule time.

Secretary George A. Wells sent letters to the grain dealers along the line, asking them to notify their patrons personally or by 'phone of the purpose of the meetings, and the local papers were especially effective in spreading the news. Thus, the "seed-corn special" became the center of interest and conversation along the Rock Island line for days before it left Des Moines.



FARMERS LISTENING TO A LECTURE ON THE "CORN-GOSPEL" TRAIN.

A three days' schedule of fifty stops, covering four hundred miles, through fifteen counties in the northwestern part of the State, had been prepared. Time was allowed for a twenty-minute talk at each station, and two evening meetings were held in opera-houses. In all cases, the farmers were first to be admitted to the cars; all others were welcome as long as there was room.

The train, consisting of a baggage car, two private cars, and a large audience coach, left Des Moines at 7 A.M., on April 18, carrying the railroad officials, representatives of the daily and the agricultural press, and two members of the agricultural staff of the Iowa State College.

The train arrived at Gowrie on schedule time, 9:30 A.M., where the first talk of the day was to be given. The following from the *Daily Capitol* describes the reception of the special train, and might be repeated with slight variations for all other stops:

> The success of the experiment was assured at the first stop, Gowrie, when the farmers enthusiastically applauded the approach of the train. At this point, fully five hundred farmers had gathered for the purpose of receiving instruction. The number of the audience and the interest manifested was wholly unexpected by the officers in charge, and constituted a great inspiration to the lecturers. The audiences were universally composed of men who had the importance of the subject at heart.

THROUGH THE SOUTHERN COUNTIES.

The signal success of the Rock Island excursion led the Burlington management to follow with a four days' trip. This tour covered eight hundred and fifty six miles, through the twenty-one counties which constitute the two southern tiers of the State and comprise one of the most famous corn regions in the world.

The news of the earlier excursions had awakened great interest in this part of the State, and large crowds greeted the "special." Two audience coaches were provided, two lectures of thirty minutes were given at each stop, and it was usually necessary to open the car-windows to allow those on the outside to hear the lectures, although they could not see the illustrative material within.

FEATURES OF THE PROPAGANDA.

The remarkable success of the corn trains was due to the large number of people it was possible to address in a single day. The agriculture of Iowa is in a developing, or formative, stage as yet, and practices are not crystallized. The farmers are largely recent comers from older States, where they had sold their high-priced land and bought the lower-priced land of Iowa. Awake to the fact that the new conditions call for new methods, they are alert to every new idea that will increase the effectiveness of their labor. Every member of the audience was attentive and loyal to the speaker, intent only on finding some new methods that he could put into practice.

A unique feature of one audience was a botany class of thirty-two from the village high school. These young people took careful notes, and went back to school to prepare a lesson on seed-corn selection.

Many teachers attended the lectures, and one of the far-reaching results was that they had their pupils bring corn from home for testing, and had them prepare the tests and carry the results home to the parents, thus giving a practical "nature lesson" that applied directly and



DISTRIBUTING LITERATURE TO THE FARMERS AS THEY ARE LEAVING THE TRAIN



FARMERS GROUPED AT A RAILROAD STATION.

vitally to the interest closest to their daily lives. Unfortunately, no good photographs of the illustrative material were secured. There were charts showing the stand of corn in one thousand fields of Iowa for 1903, bringing out the fact that the average stand in the State was only 66 per cent. of a perfect stand, and in some cases it fell as low as 40 per cent. This meant that the State devoted 9,000,000 acres to corn and produced only a 6,000,000-acre crop; or, to put it the other way, with a perfect stand, the present average yield of 33 bushels would be increased to 50 bushels per acre, an increase of 153,000,000 bushels. This does not take into consideration the increased yield possible through the use of improved varieties, better-bred seed, elimination of barren stalks by means of breeding, better methods of cultivation, and so forth.

There were charts showing the germination tests of over twelve hundred samples of seed corn received from all parts of the State, charts showing the wide variation in yield of the different varieties of corn grown side by side under exactly the same conditions, indicating that many farmers are growing varieties which do not give them the best returns for their labor. There were charts showing the dangers of importing seed corn from a distance, large photographs illustrating good and bad forms of ears and kernels, and many specimens of corn showing desirable and undesirable types.

The points emphasized in the lectures were:

1. The low average of 33 bushels per acre over the State, when many farmers were producing an average of 60 to 70 bushels per acre.

2. The poor stand, due to poor seed, uneven dropping of seed by planter, and poor preparation of the seed-bed.

3. Planting unsuitable varieties, and also corn which has deteriorated under unfavorable conditions.

4. What the farmer himself can do toward improving his corn by selection and breeding.

5. The importance of testing and grading his seed early in the season, for when the rush of spring work is upon him it will be neglected.

MAKING THE GERMINATION TEST.

It is safe to say that of every one hundred ears of corn planted in Iowa, from twenty to thirty will not grow, or will show very low vitality; and if they grow at all, will produce weak plants which will only rob better plants of light, moisture, and nourishment, and produce little or nothing of value. These ears should be rejected, and only those that show strong vitality should be planted.

The following is given to illustrate one of the many object-lessons placed before the audiences to show how every farmer may in a practical and inexpensive way increase his yield of corn:

Lay out the ears to be tested side by side on the floor, remove one kernel from near the butt, middle, and tip of the ear, turn the ear over and remove three kernels in like manner from the opposite side, making six kernels in all, thus securing a sample from the entire ear. Place the six kernels at the end of the ear from which they were taken. Be particular that the kernels do not get mixed with the kernels from the ear lying next to it. Take a shallow box about two by three feet in size, put several inches of moist sand, dirt, or sawdust in the bottom, place over this a cloth which has been ruled off into squares one and one-half inches each way, numbered one, two, three, and so on, as shown in the illus-

tration on this page. Place the kernels from ear No. 1 in square No. 1, from ear No. 2 in square No. 2, and so on with all of the ears. Then place over this a cloth considerably larger than the box, cover with one and one-half to two inches of sand, earth, or sawdust, moisten well, keep in a warm place, and the kernels will germinate in from three to five days. When sufficient time has been allowed for the kernels to germinate, remove the cover carefully, to avoid misplacing the kernels. (A piece of light cheesecloth placed on the kernels before the top covering is put on will prevent the kernels from sticking to the cloth.) Examine the kernels in the first row of the germinating-box. For example, if the kernels in squares Nos. 4, 8, 13, and 20 have failed to grow or show weak germination, ears Nos. 4, 8, 13, and 20 on the floor should be rejected. After examining the kernels from the first twenty ears, examine the second twenty, and so on till all the kernels have been examined and the poor ears rejected. Do not fail to remove the ears showing weak germination. If the ground is cold and the weather unfavorable in the spring, these kernels will rot, or, if they grow at all, will produce weak plants.



A GERMINATION BOX, WITH COVER REMOVED.

The above method is inexpensive, and germination boxes can be prepared for testing any amount of corn desired.

This year the Agricultural College tested seed corn for more than three thousand acres by the above method. Each day, one man germinated, on an average, enough to plant fifty acres. If every ear of corn planted in Iowa this year had been tested in this manner, it would have resulted in an increased yield of probably not less than ten bushels per acre, or ninety million bushels.

If the farmer of to-day is to increase his profits to keep pace with the increased value of his land, he must test every ear of corn and plant only those that will yield seventy, eighty, or ninety bushels to the acre instead of those that yield but twenty or thirty bushels.

A GENERAL STATE MOVEMENT.

The "seed-corn specials" were simply one factor in the great educational campaign for more and better corn waged throughout Iowa for the past two years by corn growers' associations and corn clubs, while corn-judging contests have been held at the Farmers' Institute and at the county and State fairs.

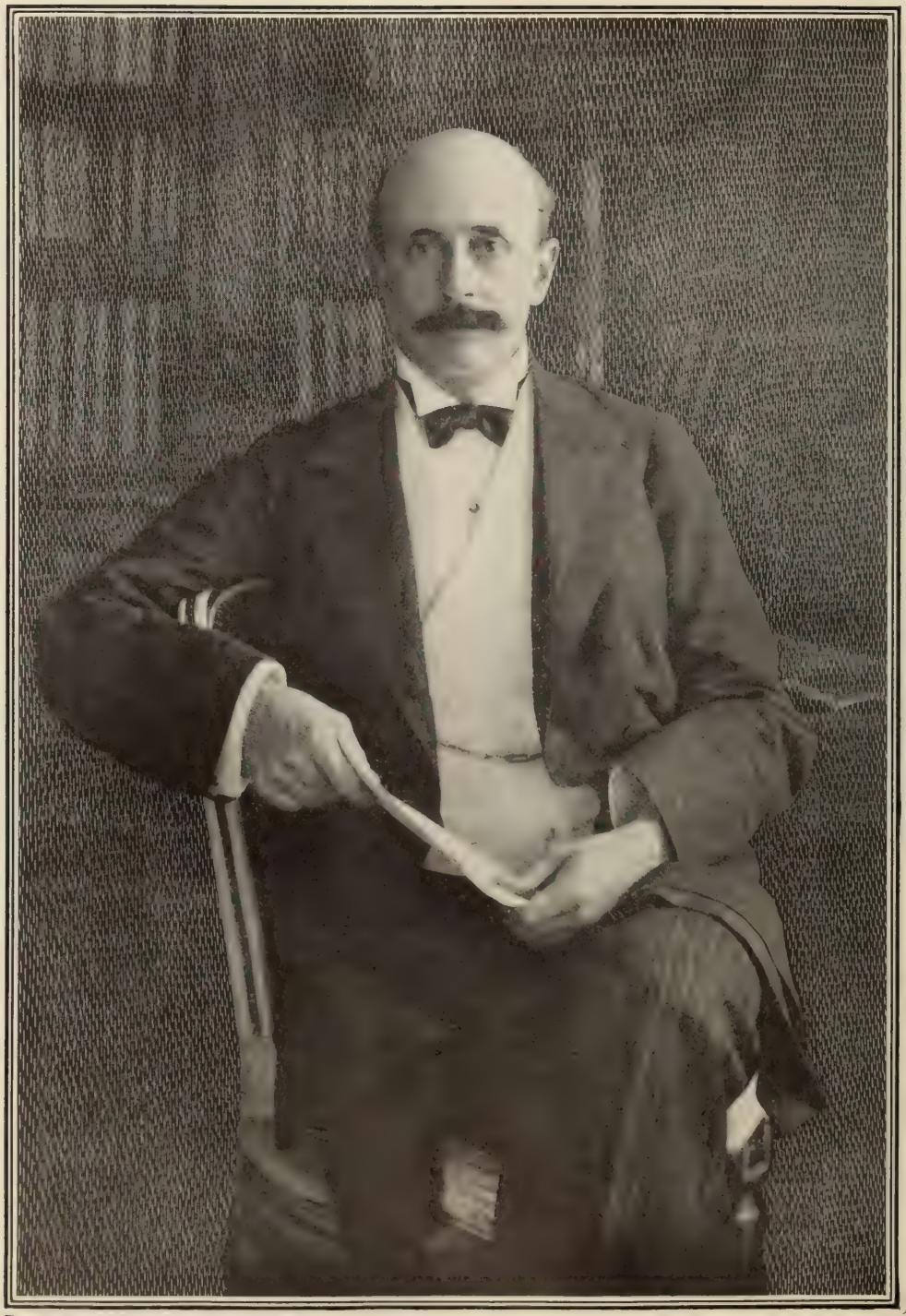
The Iowa Grain Dealers' Association has been a great factor in the movement for better corn. The association has reprinted at its own expense all seed-corn bulletins issued by the Experiment Station and distributed them free, through the local dealers, to its thousands of patrons.

A thousand men from the farms of Iowa come to the Agricultural College annually to take advantage of the winter short course in corn-judging, and go back to their homes to talk for better corn and to grow better corn.

Probably no other method could have so thoroughly aroused, in so short a time, the people of the whole State to the really serious nature of the corn-seed situation. People everywhere,—bankers, merchants, grain dealers, and traveling men,—began to talk about corn, and the local papers were full of it each week. There is but one opinion expressed by all classes,—viz., that it was a "good thing," and "next year we want the corn specials to come our way."

It is scarcely possible to realize the great benefits to the State from this work. It comes to me from J. R. Sage, director of the Iowa Weather and Crop Service; from Secretary George A. Wells, from the railroad officials, and from scores of grain dealers and extensive farmers everywhere, who are in the best possible position to know, that the corn specials have resulted in a material increase in the corn crop, not only along the lines traversed, but everywhere throughout the State.

It would be manifestly unfair, however, to measure the work by this year's results alone. The farmer who adopts better methods this year is not only a better farmer himself in the future, but his methods, directly or indirectly, soon become the methods of the community, and hence it is that such work cannot be measured to-day by bushels of corn or by millions of dollars.



From his latest photograph.

ALBERT HENRY GEORGE, THE FOURTH EARL GREY.

(The new governor-general of Canada.)

CANADA'S NEW GOVERNOR-GENERAL.

BY W. T. STEAD.

THE appointment of Lord Grey to succeed his brother-in-law, Lord Minto, as governor-general of Canada has been hailed with general satisfaction both at home and abroad. For Earl Grey, to use an expressive North Country phrase, is "as good as they make them." He has long since won recognition throughout the empire as an almost ideal type of the younger generation, especially of that section which combines idealism with imperialism. The combination of the loftiest aspirations for the realization of the most magnificent ideals with a keen appreciation of the immense importance of those practical measures by which social systems are revolutionized and empires reared is not unusual among the higher minds of our race. General Gordon had it; so had Cecil Rhodes; and so, to an equal degree, has the Northumbrian peer who, for the next five years, will represent the King in the Dominion of Canada. The only note of dissent in the chorus of approval which hailed his nomination is due to the dismay with which many active social reformers in Great Britain heard of the approaching departure of their leading spirit.

ONE OF THE ELIZABETHANS.

Earl Grey is one of our Elizabethans, a breed which will never die out in England until the English race is extinct. In his person, in his ideas, in his restless energy, he recalls the type of the great adventurers who sailed the Spanish main. There is about him the very aroma of the knighthood of the sixteenth century, whose fragrance lingers long in the corridors of time. He is not a sophister or calculator, "a sly, slow thing with circumspective eyes." Quite the contrary. He is ever in the saddle, with spear at rest, ready to ride forth on perilous quests for the rescue of oppressed damsels or for the vanquishing of giants and dragons whose brood still infest the land. There is a generous abandon, a free and daring, almost reckless, spirit of enthusiasm about him. He is one of those rare and most favored of mortals who possess the head of a mature man and the heart of a boy. His very presence, with his alert eye and responsive smile, his rapid movements, and his frank abandon, remind one of the heather hills of Northumberland, the bracing breezes of the North Country coast, the free, untrammeled out-of-door life of the romantic border. He is personally one of the most charming of men, one of the most fascinating of personalities. By birth an aristocrat, no one can be more democratic in his sympathies. An unfortunate antipathy to home rule alone shunted him into the Unionist camp. Otherwise it would have been difficult to find a stouter, sounder Liberal within a day's march. Nor is his Liberalism confined to party politics.

THE WIDTH OF HIS SYMPATHIES.

He is Liberal in Church as well as in State; Liberal in the catholicity of his friendships and in the breadth and variety of his sympathies. Nor is his Liberalism mere latitudinarianism, which leads many to be as weak and feckless as they are broad and shallow. No fanatic can be keener than he in the active support of definite and practical reforms.

His critics—I was going to say enemies, but enemies he has none—attribute to him the vices of his virtues, and complain that his sympathies are so keen and so multitudinous that "Grey is all over the shop." This is, however, a vice so much on virtue's side that it can hardly be regarded with disapproval. It is something to find a member of the House of Lords suffering from an excess of cerebral activity. A man more mentally alert and more physically active it would be difficult to find in a day's march. He turns up everywhere, whenever any good work is to be done at home or abroad, and seems to find time for every kind of social and political effort.

Thirty years ago, he was interested in church reform; to-day, he is enthusiastic over the work of the Salvation Army.

BORN OF NOTABLE LINEAGE.

Albert Henry George Grey, the fourth earl, was born on November 28, 1851. He came of notable lineage. His father, General Sir Charles Grey, had been for over twenty years more closely and confidentially connected with the British court than any other man, courtier or statesman. General Grey, second son of the great Lord Grey who carried the Reform Act of 1832, was private secretary to his father while he was prime minister of the crown from 1830 to 1834. In 1849, he was appointed private secretary to the Prince Consort, a post which he held till Prince Albert's death. He was then appointed private secretary



A RECENT PORTRAIT OF EARL GREY.

to the Queen, and this post he held till his death, in 1870. The private secretary to a king or queen is often a more important person than a cabinet minister. He is privy to all the business which a sovereign has to transact. He has access to all the papers. He knows all the secrets, and he is often much more than the private secretary. He is the trusted, confidential adviser of the sovereign. Unlike the official advisers of the crown, he is appointed for life, and holds his position independent of popular caprice or changes of public opinion. General Sir Charles Grey stood high in the favor of his royal mistress. He was devoted to the memory of the Prince Consort, of whose early years he published a book in 1867.

The new governor-general for Canada is, therefore, not only the grandson of one of the most famous prime ministers of the nineteenth century, he is the son of a man who from 1849 to 1870 occupied a position which made him the personal friend and trusted confidant of the Queen in all the business both of court and of state.

The first Earl Grey was born 1729. He entered the army and rose to the rank of a general. He served with much distinction in the foreign and colonial wars of Great Britain. It is interesting to note, in view of the fact that Lord Grey is now governor-general of the Canadian Dominion, which General Wolfe won for the British crown by his death and victory on the Heights of Abraham, that the first earl smelled powder for the first time as a subaltern under Wolfe, then quartermaster-general of the British force sent to attack the French fortress of Rochefort in 1758. But he is best known as one of the few British generals who did not lose laurels in the desperate effort which George III. made to crush the rebellion of the American colonists. He defeated Wayne, commanded the third brigade at the battle of Germantown in 1777, and in the following year annihilated Butler's Virginian dragoons.

THE GREAT EARL GREY.

His son, who succeeded him, was destined to be even more famous in peace than his father had been in war. When twenty-two years of age, he entered the House of Commons as member for Northumberland, and became a follower of Charles James Fox. He was one of the managers of the impeachment of Warren Hastings, he was the Parliamentary champion of the Radical agitation of the Society of Friends of the People, and he vehemently denounced the policy of the war with France in which his father was risking his life on the field of battle.

His subsequent career is written at large in the history of England. Most of its incidents are forgotten now. But what will never be forgotten is the part which he played in transforming Britain from an aristocracy to a democracy. The great fight which began in 1797, when he introduced the first Reform bill into the House of Commons, he carried to a triumphant conclusion in 1832, when he compelled King William IV. to promise to force the Reform bill through the House of Lords by creating as many peers as might be needed for the purpose.

THE PRESENT EARL.

The son of the great earl died childless, and was succeeded by his nephew, the present earl, in 1894. Mr. Albert Grey went to school at Harrow. He graduated at Trinity College, Cambridge. In 1877, he married Alice, the third daughter of



THE COUNTESS GREY.

(Wife of the newly appointed governor-general of Canada.)

Mr. Slayner Holford, M.P., whose residence in Park Lane is one of the most famous palaces in London. It was not until the year 1880 that he entered the House of Commons. He was elected Liberal member for South Northumberland. The wave of Gladstonian enthusiasm was then at its flood. Mr. Albert Grey was a Gladstonian, despite the misgivings of his uncle. Mr. Gladstone failed to do many things he hoped to do, but he did succeed in carrying another Reform bill, which entailed, among other things, the division of the counties into electoral divisions. At the general election of 1885, Mr. Albert Grey elected to stand for Tyneside, one of the constituencies into which South Northumberland had been cut up. In the following year, Mr. Gladstone plunged for home rule. Mr. Grey refused to follow him, and his place in the Liberal party and the House of Commons knew him no more. He became a Liberal Unionist. He did not reappear in Parliament till his uncle's death, in 1894, opened for him the portals of the House of Lords.

HIS IMPERIALISM.

Lord Grey's chief interest in politics has been the maintenance, the extension, and the consolidation of the empire. His ardent and enthusiastic temperament predisposed him to be a leading spirit among the young optimists who believed that in the union of the English-speaking race there might be discerned the dawn of a new heaven and a new earth. Mr. Rhodes found in Lord Grey a man after his own heart, full of passionate enthusiasm for the empire, and keen to do his part in the revival of the old Elizabethan tradition of adventure and romance. He became one of the founders of the chartered company, and was thereby committed to a close connection with the destinies of central South Africa. He became a Rhodesian, and he is a Rhodesian to this day.

HIS RECORD IN RHODESIA.

The task which Lord Grey attempted as administrator of Rhodesia in 1896–97—years of native war and of profound political unrest—did not afford him much experience likely to be helpful to him as governor-general of the Dominion. The Rhodesians, a handful of white men, were fighting for their lives against overwhelming numbers of savage Matabele. Lord Grey was a novice in South African affairs, and he was necessarily overshadowed by the colossal personality of Cecil Rhodes. He had a divided allegiance. He was the representative of the crown, as well as a founder and leading spirit of the chartered company. He was an English noble, bearing a name that is famous in the annals of Liberalism. Yet he was Mr. Chamberlain's agent in South Africa. After he returned home, he became a director of the South African Company and a trustee and joint heir of the Rhodes estate under Mr. Rhodes' will.

PEACE CRUSADER AND JINGO.

When the Russian Czar launched the Peace Rescript, Lord Grey threw himself heartily into the popular agitation which secured the meeting of the Hague conference. As lord-lieutenant of Northumberland, he presided over the peace meeting in Newcastle Town Hall at the beginning of 1899. That this did not stand in the way of his presiding, a few months later, over a meeting in the same place clamoring for the dispatch of more troops to South Africa to compel Mr. Krüger to climb down, is a fact thoroughly in keeping with Lord Grey's impulsive enthusiasm for every cause that seems to represent a struggle toward a loftier ideal.

Lord Grey took little part in the annexation of the republics. Nor beyond supporting the importation of the Chinese has he interfered much in the unsettlement of the conquered territories. He has been chiefly interested in the affairs of the vast territories acquired and still administered under the charter. He has taken and still takes a keen interest in the development of the latent wealth of this great estate. His hopeful disposition enables him to labor on cheerfully where others would be apt to abandon their task in sheer despair.

HIS ZEAL FOR COÖPERATION AND TEMPERANCE.

In home politics, Lord Grey has devoted himself with untiring enthusiasm to two great causes —the cause of coöperation and the cause of temperance reform. He has for many years been the most brilliant and highly placed of the advocates of coöperation. Coöperation in all its forms, as the practical method of realizing voluntarily the ideals which the Socialists can only attain through legislation, has been always near his heart. Distributive coöperation, productive coöperation, copartnership in every kind of industry, have always found in him a zealous and a sagacious supporter.

In the advocacy of coöperation, he was but one among many. In the work of converting the drink traffic from being a source of local demoralization into a source of local amelioration, he is the leading spirit. Many people, Mr. Chamberlain not excepted, had, from time to time, been fascinated by the working of what was at first known as the Gothenburg system of dealing with the supply of intoxicating drink.

The bishop of Chester had formed a small company to manage a public house for the public good, and not for private profit. At this stage of the discussion Lord Grey came into the field. A personal experience, by which he found that a licensing authority gave away for nothing monopolies which were saleable the day after the grant for £10,000 ($50,000) opened his eyes to the frightful extravagance and waste of the existing system of licensing. He became the apostle of "The Bishop of Chester's Trust." What might have been a mere local experiment was taken up all over the kingdom. Everywhere Lord Grey was to the fore. He argued, pleaded, persuaded, until at this moment public-house trusts have been formed in nearly every English county, and every month sees an addition to their number.

PUBLIC CONDUCT OF THE LIQUOR BUSINESS.

The essential principle of Lord Grey's trust public house is that the profits arising from a monopoly created by the public authority should be devoted to purposes of public usefulness, and not to build up the fortunes of private individuals. The *modus operandi* is as follows: A number of the most influential and public-spirited persons in a given district meet together and agree to form themselves into a trust for the purpose of acquiring a license for the sale of intoxicants and the supply of refreshments. They subscribe the capital needed, the maximum dividend on which is 5 per cent. Then they either buy an old license or get a new one, and set up in business on the following lines: The public house is placed under the management of an agent of the trust, whose salary is not affected by the increase of intoxicants sold. He receives, however, a commission on all non-intoxicants supplied to the public, whether in beverages or in food. He has, therefore, a personal interest in pushing the non-alcoholic side of the business, and he has no inducement to construe liberally the law against supplying intoxicants to the intoxicated. Further, the trust being more intent upon social improvement than upon earning dividends, the trust public house is more of a local clubhouse and less of a liquor bar than any other licensed house. When the year's balance-sheet is presented, a dividend not exceeding 5 per cent. is paid to the shareholders, and the balance is then devoted to the various local improvements. A footpath may need to be repaired, a public playground secured, books may be wanted for the library, a water fountain may be needed, a hospital may require assistance. The surplus profits of the trust public house form a modern Fortunatus' purse from which grants can be made to all manner of deserving objects of public utility and public charity.

AN OPPORTUNIST IDEALIST.

Lord Grey, as sufficiently appears from this brief and rapid survey of his public career, is a man of great public spirit, of keen intelligence, and of passionate patriotism. No man is less of a fanatic either in Church or in State. He is a Liberal who supports the Conservatives, a temperance reformer who runs public houses, a free-trader who takes the chair for Mr. Chamberlain, a peace crusader who promoted the South African war. In his mind there is room for many antinomies or apparent contradictions. Yet he is consciously consistent even in his greatest apparent inconsistency. He is an opportunist-idealist of the first magnitude. There is no danger that he will fall foul of the somewhat pronounced prejudices of race and religion which he will find in Canada. He will be tolerant even of the intolerant, and in his broad philosophic survey the Ultramontanes of Quebec and the Orangemen of Toronto are all members of the universal Catholic Church which, in its essence is a society for doing good. He is no stranger to Canada. He has twice visited the Dominion, and the fact that his sister was the wife of his predecessor at Government House will make him feel at home in his new position.

Lord Grey's family seat is at Howick, in Northumberland. Sir Edward Grey, whose seat is at Falloden, belongs to the same family, although he is on the opposite side in politics.

HIS PROSPECTS IN CANADA.

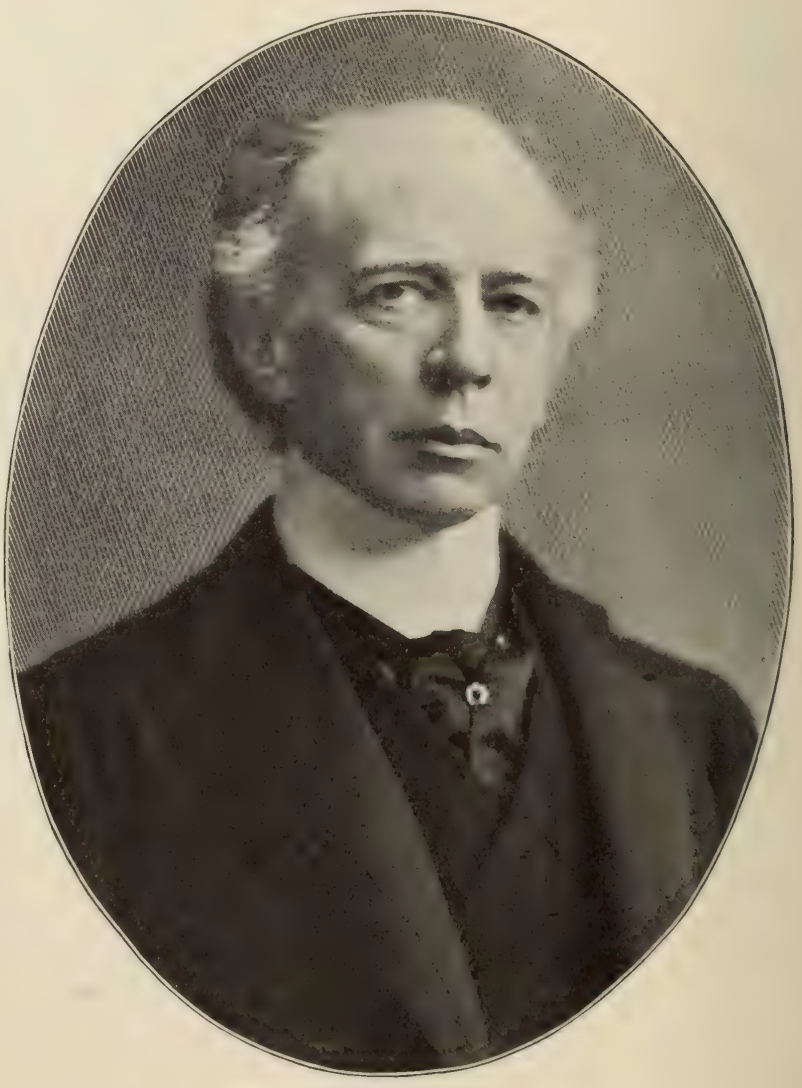
Lady Grey has never taken a prominent part in the political world. Her eldest son, Lord Howick, who was born in 1879, acts as his father's private secretary. Her eldest daughter, who excites enthusiastic admiration wherever she is known, will probably play a considerable part in the social life of Canada. They are in one respect admirably fitted for their new *rôle*. They are singularly free from the reserve that gives to some English peers an air of pride and aloofness that harmonizes ill with the freer life of a democratic colony. He is a near relative of the Lord Durham whose mission played a great part in the evolution of Canadian liberty. Whatever else may be lacking in Government House during Lord Grey's tenure of office, of one thing we may be quite certain there will be no stint, and that is a hearty, sympathetic *camaraderie* with all comers, and eager, enthusiastic support of all that makes for the prosperity and greatness of the Dominion and of the empire of which it forms a part.

THE TREND OF POLITICAL AFFAIRS IN CANADA.

BY AGNES C. LAUT.

NOT since the provinces were united in the present federation have political affairs in Canada been so quiescent. In November, the Dominion elections will be held; but it would puzzle any one to find the difference between the policies of Liberals and Conservatives. In theory, the parties are poles apart. Liberalism means free trade; Conservatism, protection; but in practice, the Liberal government of Sir Wilfrid Laurier, which came into power on the platform of as ardent free trade as Cobden himself could have advocated, has simply continued the protection of Sir John A. MacDonald, the great Conservative.

Nor is this the fault of the Laurier government. For Canada, free trade could only be trade with the United States; and this the Liberals faithfully tried to obtain when they opened international negotiations with Washington; but they failed to get tariff concessions from the United States, and Laurier, the free-trader, was forced to fall back on the protection of Sir John A. MacDonald.



THE RT. HON. SIR WILFRID LAURIER.

(The premier of Canada, leader of the Liberal party, whose administration is about to go before the country for approval.)

Perhaps, too, the greatest prosperity the Dominion has ever known may have much to do with the quiescence of politics. "We have been traveling in luck," Sir Richard Cartwright, Laurier's first lieutenant, is reported to have said, when big crops and increased immigration and railway development began to flood the country with prosperity.

Ten years ago, Canada was buying only $56,000,000 worth of American goods. To-day, despite the Canadian tariff, $125,000,000 worth of American imports yearly enter the Dominion. Canada's exports to Great Britain represent al-



MR. ROBERT L. BORDEN.

(Leader of the Conservative opposition in Canada.)

most the same doubling at a bound in ten years; and the entrance of 20,000 immigrants in 1894 has gone up to nearly 150,000 in 1904, of whom 50,000 are Americans. The good feature of this immigration is that the settlers have money. Many are American capitalists seeking fields of investment; and in one case, an American company is prospecting for a railroad through the Canadian wheat belt. Receipts on the Canadian Pacific Railroad have almost reached the million-a-week mark, and a second transcontinental road is being built. For five years crops have been phenomenal; and phenomenal crops, with dollar-a-bushel wheat, have such a suppressing effect on the political agitator that I heard one disgruntled western member demand, "How could you expect people to care which way they vote when times were so prosperous?"

Unsuccessful effort has been made to create political capital out of side issues, but it is a matter of congratulation that the race question of French *vs.* English is dead forever. The militia squabble only attained the proportions of the tempest in a tea-pot. Lord Dundonald is a soldier above reproach; but he is an Englishman, with an Englishman's views of Canadian affairs. What he saw was a country with an unprotected frontier of some 3,000 miles, across which were pouring American immigrants at the rate of 50,000 a year. To an Englishman, the situation seemed ominous. Lord Dundonald proposed to reorganize the Canadian militia in such a way as to put the Dominion on a military footing. His recommendations were politely pigeonholed. What Lord Dundonald did not understand was the fact that, just as the United States has assimilated a million Canadians, so Canada is glad to assimilate, not 50,000 Americans a year, but 1,000,000 if they will come. The relations between Dundonald and the Laurier cabinet came to open rupture when Mr. Sidney Fisher, minister of agriculture, at one of the cabinet meetings to consider appointments,



LORD DUNDONALD.

(Late British commander of militia for Canada.)

drew the blue pencil of rejection through a Dundonald staff appointee, and when Lord Dundonald, at a public dinner, openly charged the government with interference in his work. He was asked to retire; and because he was a famous soldier, was wined and dined by the Canadian people. But the affair assumes its true relations when it is known that the cause of Mr. Fisher's blue pencil was not "party," but the fact that Dundonald's appointee belonged to a family that already had more than its share of public offices.

As to "the Americanizing" of the west—it is a bogy, terrifying only to those who know nothing about it. If American capital is invested in Canadian mines, lands, forests, railways, American capital will, of course, demand safeguards for those investments, and that is the extent of any issue that may have been mooted. Both parties are unanimous in the opinion that



SIR RICHARD J. CARTWRIGHT.
(Minister of trade and commerce.)



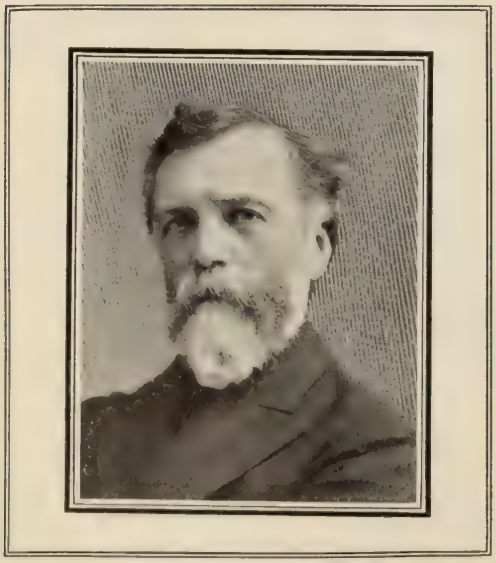
HON. SIDNEY A. FISHER.
(Minister of agriculture.)



HON. WILLIAM S. FIELDING.
(Minister of finance.)

the new transcontinental railroad must be built. This railroad is an extension of the Grand Trunk, to be known as the Grand Trunk Pacific. It will run parallel to the Canadian Pacific, but north of that road, through the Saskatchewan and Peace River valleys, across the Northern Rockies to the Pacific.

One picturesque figure missed from political life is that of Joseph Israel Tarte, the French-Canadian protagonist, who first served under Sir John A. MacDonald and then threw his influence on the other side to win the country for Laurier, but found himself cashiered from the Laurier government for openly repudiating free trade and, without the authority of his colleagues, advocating a hostile tariff against the United States. When Mr. Tarte withdrew from the Laurier government, it was thought that he would virtually become the leader of the Conservatives in place of Mr. Borden, but a family bereavement has withdrawn him from public life; and in the retirement of Mr. Tarte, passes one of the most heroic fighters in Canadian politics, who fought for love of the fight, indifferent to the spoils. In his withdrawal, too, passes the troublesome race question.



HON. JOSEPH I. TARTE.
(Prominent French-Canadian leader, formerly minister of public works.)

CANADA AND "PREFERENTIAL TRADE."

Unless a cataclysm should strike Canadian politics, the most timid prophet might predict the return of the Laurier government at the elections of November. But there has come into Canadian politics one formidable factor, bound to modify the strength of the two parties. The factor is Mr. Chamberlain's policy of preferential trade within the empire, high tariff against outsiders. The idea of Great Britain departing from her traditional policy of free trade is so startling that it is hardly taken seriously by foreign observers. Not so within the empire. Loud complaints are heard in Great Britain over the decline of British manufactures. In Canada, the fence-side posters display "preferential trade" advertisements, the press is full of preferential arguments, and speech-making rings with it.

In practical politics, Canada has already granted a preference of 33 per cent. on British goods,

and passed a "dumping" clause — however impossible to enforce—to shut out American manufactures sent to Canada as a slaughter market at lower prices than they are sold in the United States.

The new governor-general, Lord Grey, is an ardent preferential trader. Sir Howard Vincent, the father of the preferential idea, has just been sounding the Dominion from Atlantic to Pacific, and declares "the preferential policy is acceptable to all classes in the Dominion. There is no longer a single Canadian voice in dissent. That a preferential arrangement within the British Empire will come is certain despite all setbacks. The one thing that the preferential trade advocates desire is some heightening of the tariff against Britain by a foreign country to rouse the popular imagination. That alone would mean the immediate success of preferential trade in the empire."

At present, the most vigorous advocate of preferential trade in Canada is a non-partisan organization known as the Manufacturers' Association, banded together for the express purpose of raising the Canadian tariff to a point that will be prohibitive to the foreign manufacturers. At the recent banquet of the organization, at which the leading men of both Canadian parties were present, there was no mincing of matters. A high priest of protection could not have been more emphatic. "The dominant sentiment in Canada to-day is confidence in her future," declared W. K. George, the president of the Manufacturers' Association. "Canada has learned that her progress does not depend on favorable trade arrangements with the United States, but that she possesses in her British connections those markets where she can dispose of all her products. The Canadian people now realize that to build up their industries and develop their resources, Canada must have a tariff that will furnish protection against the cheap labor of Europe and the immensely developed industries of the United States. There is no longer any Free Trade party in Canada. The question of tariff is simply one of degree. The first care of the Manufacturers' Association is the protection of every Canadian industry. They also favor granting a substantial preference to the mother country and any British colonies that will reciprocate. There is not the slightest desire among Canadians to open negotiations for reciprocal trade with the United States."

"Close observers must realize that Canadian affairs cannot remain forever in *statu quo*," declared Mr. George Drummond, a leading member of the Montreal Board of Trade. "The influx into Canada of immigrants and capital from foreign sources tends to create new affiliations, new sentiments. These forces must be reckoned with, and now is the time to divert them into British channels. Make it easy and satisfactory for the new settlers to do business within the empire and you absorb them safely and surely into the imperial alliance. Fail to do this, and no one can tell what the future may bring. . . . What the manufacturers demand is imperial trade preference and an imperial commission representing all British dominions to consider the whole question and submit a plan for the consolidation of the empire's trade."



SIR THOMAS SHAUGHNESSY.
(President of the Canadian Pacific Railroad.)



MR. W. K. GEORGE.
(President of the Manufacturers' Association of Canada.)

To the reiterated demands of the Manufacturers' Association for a declaration of the government's policy on preferential trade, Sir Wilfrid Laurier had made but one response, and that was on the night of the banquet. His declaration was: "I believe we can have between the motherland and the colonies treaties of commerce, if I may so speak, and the expression is not too strong or extravagant, whereby we can sit down and by mutual concessions, by giving and granting to one side and the other, develop the trade between Great Britain and the colonies to the mutual advantage of all." Exactly what is behind that declaration, Sir Wilfrid Laurier will probably know better himself when the voters have given their verdict at the polls this month.



MAP SHOWING NEW CANADIAN RAILWAY ROUTES.

WESTERN CANADA IN 1904.

BY THEODORE MACFARLANE KNAPPEN.

ONLY those who have seen and studied the Canadian west know how thoroughly the ideal of national greatness has taken possession of Canada within the last few years. From Lake Superior to the Pacific there is not a Canadian who does not believe that the twentieth century is Canada's century. The western Canadian believes that the measure of Canada's possible greatness is to be found in the resources and spaciousness of the west. He knows, because it is his own country, that western Canada has the natural elements that go to make up a nation economically great. The half-faith of other years is completely gone, and has been replaced with a magnificent belief in the future of the west.

The immense material prosperity of the Dominion, to which the west so largely contributes, is reflected in the proportions of the foreign trade. In the last fiscal year, the foreign commerce of Canada amounted to $473,000,000, an increase of $6,000,000 over the preceding year, and of $233,000,000 over 1894. The imports were $253,000,000, of which $143,000,000 were from the United States. This little country,—little in population,—now has a foreign trade one-fifth as large as that of the United States, which has fourteen times as large a population. This trade also reflects the rising national consciousness, for Canada, by means of commercial agents the world over, now seeks to promote her trade quite independently of the good offices of the British consular system.

The establishment of new manufacturing plants in eastern Canada, very largely of American origin, is proceeding at a marvelous rate. Branches of American houses seeking Canadian trade and desiring to overcome the tariff tax are springing up like mushrooms. This season has witnessed the reopening of the great Clergue plants at the "Soo," the Ontario provincial government having extended its credit to the assistance of the reorganized company, and five hundred tons of steel rails are now being turned out there daily to provide the tracks for thousands of miles of railway that are building in the west. But it is to western Canada that we must turn if we would know the full extent of Canada's recent progress.

THE GRAND TRUNK PACIFIC.

This year has brought the Dominion government's official commitment to the Grand Trunk Pacific Railway, which means vastly more to western Canada than to the east. This railway, a child of the Grand Trunk, is to extend from Moncton, New Brunswick, to some point on the Pacific, probably Port Simpson. The eighteen hundred and seventy-five miles between Moncton and Winnipeg are to be built by the government and leased to the Grand Trunk Pacific for fifty years at a rental of 3 per cent. of the cost after the first seven years. At the end of that period the Grand Trunk is to have the privilege of renewing the lease for another fifty years, providing the government does not wish to operate the railway itself. From Winnipeg



A PART OF THE WINNIPEG YARDS OF THE CANADIAN PACIFIC RAILWAY.

to the Rocky Mountains, the government guarantees three-quarters of the bond issue, the limit of the guarantee to be thirteen thousand dollars a mile. Through the mountains, the government guarantees the interest on three-fourths of the bonds, the Grand Trunk Railway Company guaranteeing the other fourth ; in addition, the government is to pay the interest on the bonds of this part of the line for seven years. A thousand miles of this new transcontinental railway will be in the prairie country—the great wheat country. It will give access to millions of acres of land now too far from the railway to be profitably cultivated on a large scale. Lying from one hundred to two hundred miles north of the Canadian Pacific, the new transcontinental will entirely avoid the arid area that every other transcontinental in North America encounters to a greater or less extent. From Winnipeg to Edmonton, nine hundred miles, the new road will pass through a continuous wheat country, into which the settlers are now flocking by the thousands, snapping up every homestead within twenty-five or thirty miles of the line, or where it is supposed to be (there are found different surveys), and eagerly buying up the cheap land in private possession. Many of the old-timers declare that the Grand Trunk will run through the best part of western Canada, and yet it is precisely the part that is as yet scarcely touched by civilization. Haunted by a fear of the north, the settlers of western Canada have had an inclination to stay near the boundary line ; but now, with the knowledge that the climate is perhaps milder to the north,—where the warm winds from the Pacific get a chance to cross low mountain barriers,—and that the soil is at least as fertile, a great wave of population is pouring into the Saskatchewan valley. Some go in by train and wagon from the east, some journey to Edmonton and descend the rushing Saskatchewan,—as mighty a river as the Missouri,—in scows and rafts.

OTHER RAILROAD DEVELOPMENT.

The Grand Trunk Pacific is still on paper, though it is potent paper ; but there are history-making roads building three miles a day that are scarcely heard of in the United States. With little fuss and feathers, but with solid achievement, the Canadian Northern is driving its main line across the prairies and plains to Edmonton, the capital of the north, the jumping-off place of the fur trade, the door of the wilderness. Six thousand men and two thousand teams are working like beavers under the executive direction of McKenzie & Mann, a firm of Toronto contractors who are building a transcontinental of their own, piecemeal, starting with nothing except unlimited nerve and inexhaustible energy. Already the rails are laid to Humboldt, four hundred and twenty-five miles northwest of Winnipeg, and this time next year will see them into Edmonton, thirteen hundred miles from the eastern terminus at Port Arthur, on Lake Superior. Farther north, the Canadian Northern is extending its line from Melfort to Prince Albert, three hundred and fifty miles

north of the boundary. The same company is building several shorter extensions and branches at various points on its system, the nucleus of which was purchased from the Northern Pacific several years ago.

The Canadian Pacific, the national line of Canada, as the Union Pacific is the national line of the United States, is building vigorously on branches in Assiniboia, Manitoba, and Alberta. It has not the slightest intention of abandoning the rich north country to its rivals. The same country is spending twenty million dollars in reducing grades and curvatures on its main line and in other betterments. Its earnings from operation this year are forty-six million dollars, to say nothing of its income from its great land grant, which still contains twelve million acres.

Altogether, eighteen hundred miles of railway are now going down in the prairies and mountains of western and Pacific Canada as fast as money and men can do the work, and there are three thousand miles of "live projects," not counting the long talked of railway to Hudson's Bay, from the wheat fields, which, rumor asserts, the Canadian Northern will build as soon as its engines are whistling for Edmonton. By the Hudson's Bay route, the distance from the wheat fields of the golden west to Liverpool will be reduced a thousand miles. Those who believe in this route declare that the time is coming when the bulk of the wheat of western Canada, and even some from the Northern States, will go to Europe *via* an inland sea that is to-day visited only by Hudson's Bay Company supply boats and American whalers.

THE TIDE OF IMMIGRATION

Rapidly as the railways proceed, they cannot keep up with the settlers who come in ever-increasing numbers from the old world, eastern Canada, and the United States. The most interesting feature of this population-movement is the American contribution. Eight years ago, some 46 Americans moved from the United States to Canada. These were the scouts of an army that now crosses the boundary in a force of approximately 50,000 a year. In the fiscal year of 1902–03, the invading Americans numbered 49,000, officially counted; for the fiscal year just past, they numbered 46,000. Thousands of Americans cross into Canada without being counted. The picturesque prairie schooner still conveys land-seekers in the west. Wanderers in prairie schooners have been seen at Calgary, in Alberta, two thousand miles from their starting-place in Iowa and Nebraska. It was thought that when the total immigration into Canada reached 128,000 year before last it had reached its maximum, but last year added 130,000 new-comers to the population, despite the fact that one of the world's periodical tides of migration is again ebbing. From Great Britain and Ireland came 49,000 hopeful people, tired of the parsimony and scanty doles of an old civilization to the unfavored many, seeking the generous bounty of a new land. Overcrowded Austria contributed 7,229; Germany,



A FARMSTEAD NEAR CRYSTAL CITY, MANITOBA.



PLOWING NEAR MYRTLE, MANITOBA.

2,985 ; France and Belgium, 2,392 ; Russia and Finland, 2,806 ; Scandinavia, 4,208, and 13,470 came from various other nations. And of this population so highly desirable at least 60 per cent. goes on to the farms. While the hundreds of thousands that swarm to our shores seek the great cities, for the most part the bulk of Canada's immigrants speed from the Atlantic seaboard straight across the continent to the rich prairies that but await their Midas touch to turn to golden grain.

WHY THE AMERICANS MOVE.

Practically all of the American immigrants find their homes in the cities, villages, and spacious farms of the west. As a considerable portion of the British immigration lodges in eastern Canada, the American invasion looms relatively larger in the west than it is, compared with the whole human influx into Canada. Why do these Americans, the very cream of the farming population of the wealthy American west, seek homes in a foreign country? Briefly, the answer is to be found in the lure of free or cheap lands in western Canada and the inducement to turn the old farm into cash at high prices. Farms in Iowa and Illinois are worth from seventy-five to one hundred and twenty-five dollars an acre. Farms in western Canada that in their virgin state will produce larger crops may be had for the taking or for from five dollars to fifteen dollars an acre. To these lands turn also the American tenant farmer and the hired man. The free lands in the humid part of the republic's west are gone. Population has crowded up to the one hundred and first meridian, the general western limit of the humid belt. Beyond lies the cattle country and irrigation. The American farmer with a family of growing boys around him sees no way to keep the family together but to emigrate to the last free-land country on the continent, western Canada,—"the last west." So he sells out, moves west, and settles his sons around him ; together, they may homestead and purchase several thousand acres. They will put this cheap land into wheat, plowing with traction engines that drive, simultaneously, nine furrows through the primeval sod. They may reasonably count on twenty bushels to the acre, which is less than the Manitoba average for more than twenty years. In years of high prices there is a fortune in a single crop. Good farmers sometimes get forty and fifty bushels of wheat to the acre. Think what such yields mean in these days of dollar wheat!

HELPING THE MOVER MOVE.

The situation is taken advantage of by the Canadian government, with the best immigration bureau in the world, which has fourteen agencies in the principal cities of the west, working ceaselessly to get the American farmer to cross the line and "take a look ;" by the Canadian railways, and by the great land companies, the largest of which are controlled and managed by Americans. One of these companies has twenty-five hundred agents in the United States. Between public and private effort, the American west is flooded with persuasive "literature" describing the attractions of western Canada. The warmth of the welcome Americans and American capital receive in western Canada tends to keep the ball rolling. Americans and Canadians are so much alike that they fraternize wonderfully well in this new coun-



A FARM SCENE NEAR EMERSON, MANITOBA.

try,—much better, in fact, than English and Canadians. Forty-six States and Territories contribute to Canada's new population. Minnesota leads the list; then comes North Dakota. Other States that send many home-seekers are South Dakota, Iowa, Nebraska, Kansas, Wisconsin, Michigan, Ohio, Illinois, Indiana, and Utah, whence the Mormons are migrating in large numbers to Alberta.

A BOUNTIFUL WHEAT CROP.

This year, Canada West has a fine crop of wheat. At one time it promised 25 bushels to the acre, or a total of more than 80,000,000 bushels. Then the rust came, and there was a temporary fright, but now the crop is half threshed and the reports show an average of about 17 bushels to the acre, or approximately a 60,000,000-bushel crop. Some sections have had phenomenal crops. Thousands of farmers have averaged 25 bushels to the acre and sold their wheat for from 90 cents to a dollar. One Manitoba farmer refused to sell his wheat before it was cut on an estimate of 33 bushels to the acre. There was nearer 40. This same farmer bought his land four years ago for $3 an acre and has just sold it for $18. One farmer had 54 bushels to the acre on one piece and 37 bushels to the acre on his whole farm. Another farmer got 40½ bushels to the acre, another 38, another 35, and so on. One sold 8,000 bushels for $1.03 a bushel.

So much better did western Canada fare this year than the Northwestern spring-wheat States that the farmers of northern Minnesota desire to have the duty on seed wheat from Canada remitted, else they will have trouble next year in getting good seed for their fields. The quality of this western-Canadian wheat is good, though not so good this year as in others. No. 1 hard grade is still common at Winnipeg, but at Minneapolis it is a candidate for the museum. Western Canada's prosperity is not all told in the tale of wheat. It has 50,000,000 bushels of oats, 10,000,000 bushels of barley, and splendid crops of potatoes, flax, rye, and vegetables. It will sell $10,000,000 worth of live stock. This year's agricultural round-up means nearly $90,000,000 for about 60,000 actual farmers.

ACTIVE TOWNS AND CITIES.

These figures may explain the prosperity and growth of the towns and cities. Winnipeg has seventy-five thousand people and is adding fifteen thousand a year. Her people believe she will have half a million in 1930. This year, she had the Dominion exhibition, which was attended by two hundred thousand people. Block after block of new warehouses and jobbing stores tell the story of the city's solid progress. And American men and American capital are taking a considerable part in this progress. The Canadian Pacific Railway is erecting a new hotel and station at a cost of $1,200,000; it is spending $800,000 on new shops and yards, said to be the largest individual railway yards in the world. The Canadian Northern is planning similar improvements. The building permits for this year in Winnipeg will aggregate $10,000,000. Winnipeg now handles more wheat, each year, than any other city on the continent save Minneapolis. The great terminal elevators are not here, however, but at Port Arthur and Fort William, on Lake Superior, where the elevator capacity already reaches sixteen million bushels and the largest elevator in the world has been built.

All the little cities and towns of the west are flourishing. Regina, the Northwest Territorial capital, has six thousand people and is erect-

ing a block of houses each month. The promise of autonomy for the territories means much to Regina,—and autonomy is promised by both parties in case of victory at the elections. Prince Albert, two hundred and fifty miles north of Regina, at the extremity of a railway line that runs through a district that has been settled by Americans in droves, considers itself one of the coming cities of the west. In the far northwest, Edmonton and Strathcona, at the terminus of one branch of the Canadian Pacific, await the coming of the Canadian Northern and the Grand Trunk Pacific, and discount the future. In the heart of a rich general farming region, Edmonton counts much on the agricultural riches of the distant Peace River country, where at 59 degrees north latitude the wheat plant flourishes and bears bountifully. To-day, it is the great depot of the fur trade of the north country, even to the Arctic Ocean. Single cars of furs worth one hundred and fifty thousand dollars are often consigned to Montreal from Edmonton. In the two towns, there are now nine thousand people, and eight hundred thousand dollars' worth of building has been done this year.

A GREAT IRRIGATION PROJECT.

To the south, in the heart of the cattle country, lies Calgary, solidly built of stone and brick, boasting eleven thousand people and the most metropolitan aspect between Winnipeg and Vancouver. Calgary sets great store by the immense irrigation enterprise the Canadian Pacific Railway has here undertaken. This part of the west needs irrigation as crop insurance, though three years out of five it may raise good crops without it. The railway company plans to spend five million dollars to redeem three million acres of its lands,—by far the largest irrigation undertaking in all America. A main canal one hundred and twenty miles long is to be built, and work is now far advanced on the first section. It is hoped to have water on four hundred thousand acres of land by next fall. An American company is preparing to spend eight hundred thousand dollars on a sugar plant, which will be the second largest on the continent, to utilize the sugar beets that are to be raised on a part of these irrigated lands. The lands will be sold at a nominal price. The speculator is to be barred out, and actual farmers will be sought in the irrigated regions of the American West.

Medicine Hat, in western Assiniboia, with abundant natural gas and a great range country, is prospering. Moose Jaw, at the junction of the Soo-Pacific and the Canadian Pacific, is growing rapidly. Brandon, the second city of Manitoba, has spent seven hundred thousand dollars in buildings this year. Portage la Prairie, the third city in the province, situated in one of the most fertile wheat regions in America, shows remarkable growth.

WHAT THE FUTURE MAY BRING.

All of this rapid material advance raises the question, what will the future bring? Ten years ago, the maximum wheat crop of western Canada was 20,000,000 bushels. In 1902, it was 67,000,000 bushels; the next bumper crop will take the total yield of wheat to 100,000,000 bushels. It takes 117 miles of cars to handle the grain grown on the Canadian Pacific alone. Ten years ago, the acreage devoted to wheat was 1,000,000 acres; to-day, it is 3,500,000, and next year it will be 4,500,000. With the wholesale building of railways now beginning, the area under cultivation should increase fully as rapidly in the next decade as in that just past. By 1915, then, there will be about ten million acres



THE GREATEST IRRIGATION WORK IN AMERICA.

(Scene on the "main ditch"—60 feet wide at the bottom—of the Canadian Pacific's undertaking at Calgary.)



GRAIN ELEVATORS AT HARTNEY, MANITOBA.

devoted to wheat in western Canada, giving an average crop of 200,000,000 bushels. The highest estimate of the wheat crop of Minnesota and the Dakotas, this year, is 160,000,000 bushels; 220,000,000 bushels is the largest crop ever raised by the Northwestern wheat States. In ten years, western Canada will be producing more wheat than the American hard spring wheat country. There will be two million people instead of seven hundred and fifty thousand, and the men, the implements, the capital, and the railways to harvest and move the enormous crop.

It has been estimated that of the 230,000,000 acres included in what is usually meant by western Canada,—Manitoba, Alberta, Assiniboia, and Saskatchewan,—170,000,000 lie within the humid region and are suitable for wheat-raising. Assuming that no more than 40,000,000 acres will ever be devoted to wheat, western Canada will one day raise 800,000,000 bushels of wheat, — some 50,000,000 more than the largest wheat crop the whole of the United States has ever produced. Some enthusiasts have imagined that these 40,000,000 acres will be sown to wheat by 1925; but as the total plowed area of western Canada does not now exceed 6,000,000 acres, this is not probable. It took the United States twenty years to increase its wheat acreage 20,000,000. It is possible that by 1925 western Canada will have 25,000,000 acres in wheat, which will mean an annual production of 500,000,000 bushels.

To-day, practically all of the wheat of western Canada, except what is consumed at home, is exported to Great Britain, either in the berry or as flour. Winnipeg, Rat Portage, and Montreal have large flour mills now, and the exports of flour, last year, were 1,300,000 barrels.



A VIEW OF THE TOWN OF ROLAND, MANITOBA.



MAIN STREET, WINNIPEG, ON A SATURDAY AFTERNOON.

These mills will probably more and more take the export business away from American mills as the wheat-consumption of the United States overtakes production, unless the United States should see the light and remove the duty on wheat. In that case, the Northern Pacific and the Great Northern would at once extend their lines into western Canada, and a large part of the Canadian wheat would go to Minneapolis and Duluth for milling or export. The farmers of western Canada would welcome the resulting competition of markets.

The tremendous multiplication of the wheat-production of western Canada which will take place in the next few years is not likely seriously to disturb the world's markets. The United States will gradually cease exporting wheat, and Canada will as gradually fill the gap. The prospect is, therefore that western Canada need have no fear of reducing its income per bushel on account of its increasing contribution to the number of bushels. If this prospect is realized, immigration into western Canada, especially from the United States, will be so greatly stimulated that within half a generation the Canadian west will be as well populated as Minnesota and the Dakotas are to-day. It will then have more than three million people, and will be so powerful in the Dominion councils, by reason of its population and wealth, that it will rule Canada. Eventually, all the great questions concerning the future relations of the United States and Canada will be settled, so far as Canada is concerned, between Lake Superior and the Rocky Mountains. One day the valley of the Saskatchewan will mean as much to Canada as the valley of the Mississippi means to the United States at the present time.

THE EPISCOPAL CONVENTION AT BOSTON.

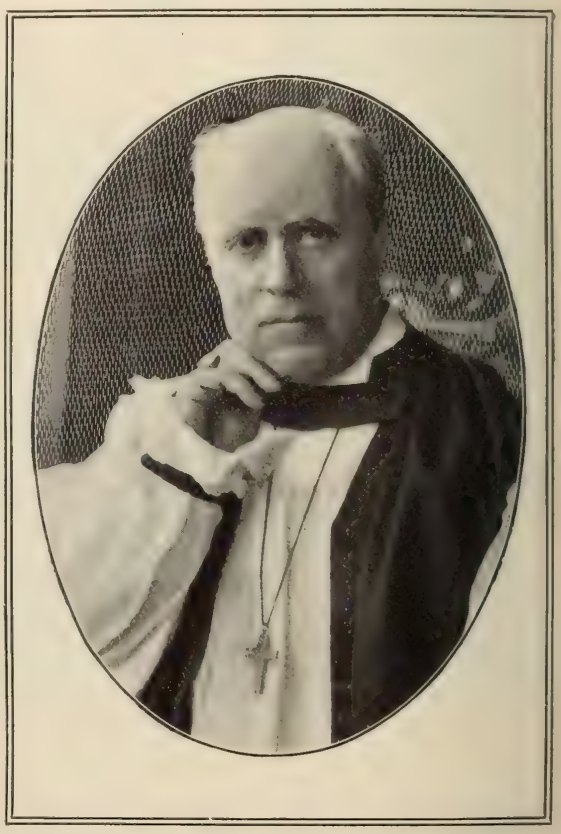
BY FLORENCE E. WINSLOW.

THE presence of the Archbishop of Canterbury lent to the sessions of the Episcopal General Convention, in Boston, last month, an absorbing interest. He came as guest in response to the invitation of the presiding bishop of the American Church, but the attractive personality of Dr. Davidson, his democratic simplicity, his dignity, his spirituality, his spontaneous adaptation to American institutions, made him at once the guest not only of the convention but of the city, and not guest alone, but friend.

The convention began on October 5, with a solemn opening service, at which over eighty bishops, with the clerical officials of the two houses into which the convention is divided, occupied the great chancel of Trinity Church, the entire body of the church being allotted to the delegates, clerical and lay members of the lower house, the representatives of over sixty dioceses, and of twenty-one missionary jurisdictions. Nearly a thousand men partook of the Communion, administered by the Archbishop of Canterbury and Bishop Tuttle, presiding bishop of the Church in the United States. Bishop Doane, of Albany, the chosen preacher, emphasized the responsibility of the Protestant Episcopal Church in the matter of Christian unity, and with large liberality urged the Church to advance toward union with other Christian bodies in a spirit of inclusiveness rather than of exclusiveness.

Following the services, the organization of the House of Deputies resulted in the election of a new president, Dr. Randolph H. McKim, of Washington, while Bishop Tuttle, senior bishop of the Church in order of consecration, succeeded the venerable Bishop Clark, deceased. Bishop Lawrence, of Massachusetts, became chairman of the house. A proposal to make the office of presiding bishop elective was at an early date rejected by the bishops. A picturesque scene was that when the archbishop was escorted to the platform of the House of Deputies, sitting in Emmanuel Church in conjunction with the House of Bishops, by the Rev. Dr. Huntington, Dr. Roberts, and Mr. George Foster Peabody.

Nearly a week of the time of the House of Deputies was occupied in the discussion of a proposed new canon on marriage and divorce. Unpopular when first suggested in the convention, the advocates of this new and stringent

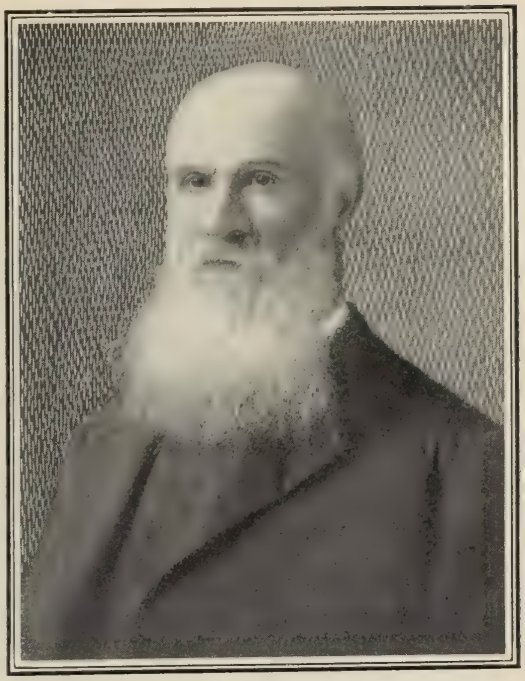


THE ARCHBISHOP OF CANTERBURY.

law steadily gained ground until the lower house was almost evenly divided upon the subject, while the bishops were so far in favor of its provisions that they no doubt stood ready to adopt it should the lower house legislate in its favor. The disputed section, which caused a notable debate, in which some fifty of the delegates took part, is as follows: "No minister knowingly, after due inquiry, shall solemnize the marriage of any person who has a divorced husband or wife still living, if such husband or wife has been put away for any cause arising after marriage." An appended section on discipline provides that if the minister believes that persons seeking the sacraments of the Church have been married otherwise than as the law of God and of the Church allows, he must, before administering them, consult his

bishop, unless the applicants be in danger of death or innocent parties in a suit for adultery.

The matter came before the house in the form of a majority report from a special committee appointed in San Francisco, Mr. Francis A. Lewis, of Pennsylvania, being its most prominent sponsor. A minority report, presented by the Rev. Dr. Lewis Parks, of New York, which for the purpose of simplifying legislation was afterward withdrawn, urged the continuance, with certain amendments, of the present canon, which allows remarriage after divorce to the innocent party in a suit for adultery. So many of the prominent men in the convention made speeches against the canon, that it was a surprise when, upon a vote taken in committee of the whole, it was found that a majority of the votes were in favor of its adoption, the vote standing 214 for to 191 against. This was merely a tentative vote, as the canon, in order to become a law, must be passed by a majority of the dioceses, voting by orders. The final debate before the house was opened by Dr. Huntington, of New York, speaking for the minority. His claim that the State as well as the Church represented God to the world, and that both should move together for the protection of the home and society, was most effective. Judge Joseph Packard, of Baltimore, was a speaker on the same side, while for the majority report able closing addresses were made by Mr. Francis Lynde Stetson, of New York; Mr. T. W. Bagot, and Dr. Davenport. After joining in solemn prayer for guidance, on a vote taken by dioceses and orders, the convention voted down the canon. In the clerical vote of sixty-one dioceses voting, thirty voted aye, twenty-one nay, and ten were divided. A divided diocese counting in the negative, the motion was lost. In the lay order, but fifty-five dioceses voted, twenty-five in favor, twenty-four against, six divided. The vote was lost by one diocese in the clerical and three in the lay order.*



BISHOP TUTTLE, OF MISSOURI.

(Presiding bishop of the Church in the United States.)



DR. RANDOLPH H. M'KIM.

(President of the House of Deputies.)

The opponents of the new canon are one with its advocates in their estimation of the importance of the leadership of the Episcopal Church in the effort to safeguard the home and protect society from the evils of divorce; they differ only as to method.

The movement for a more stringent divorce law has been influential in creating a healthful public opinion, and by a movement recently inaugurated the Episcopal Church has secured the assistance of several Christian bodies whose

* A "compromise" canon, favoring the innocent party in divorce cases, was reported to the convention as these pages went to press.

clergy will in the future refuse to remarry persons divorced for causes other than the law of God allows. A new committee, to consist of bishops, clergymen, and laymen, was appointed in Boston. It will petition the legislatures in the various States and Territories to consider the evils wrought by the lax divorce laws, and to adopt such legislation as will reduce the statutory grounds on which divorce may be granted.

An ever-troublesome question, the change of the Church's name, has again been before the House of Deputies. A committee appointed at the last convention to consider the advisability of a change, and to suggest the new name, reported adversely, and the convention was glad to adopt the report and to drop the matter. The persistent advocates of the change, however, brought in a new resolution, urging that the words Protestant Episcopal be dropped from the title-page of the Prayer Book. This, too, was disposed of.

The proposition to group the dioceses of the Church into provinces, so that business too large for the diocesan councils and too local for the General Convention may be settled in provincial congresses, was a prominent subject of discussion. If eventually arranged, the province will become the unit of representation, and the number of delegates in the House of Deputies be greatly diminished. This would facilitate legislation by reducing the number of subjects to be discussed and diminishing the number of debaters.



BISHOP DOANE, OF ALBANY.



BISHOP LAWRENCE, OF MASSACHUSETTS.

If the legislative action of the General Convention was somewhat negative in character, its spiritual enthusiasm was unbounded, and its missionary spirit showed a genuine conversion. It gave some of its best hours to sessions of the Board of Missions, which have often heretofore been relegated to odd corners, listening to all of its missionary bishops in turn. The woman's auxiliary presented $150,000 at its solemn triennial service, a special offering which in no way interferes with its usual gifts. In a large hall, missionary meetings, so crowded that it was hard to gain entrance, were held each day, both morning and afternoon, and at each large collections were gathered by the missionaries who presented their special mission study classes, and missionary exhibits, instructed the people, and three great missionary mass meetings, held in the largest audience halls in Boston, and addressed by the Archbishop of Canterbury and other prominent speakers, were so overcrowded that the speakers repeated their addresses at immense overflow meetings.

PRINCE MIRSKY, RUSSIA'S NEW MINISTER OF THE INTERIOR.

BY HERMAN ROSENTHAL.

THE appointment of Prince Peter Dmitrievich Sviatopolk-Mirsky as Russian minister of the interior to succeed the late von Plehve was a severe blow to the ascendency of that ring of reactionary bureaucrats which of late years has been dominant in the political affairs of the empire. The Czar has evidently found sufficient courage to partially disentangle himself from the intrigues and influence of the "autocratic terrorists" led by Pobiedonostseff and some of the grand dukes. He has apparently at last fully realized the dangers of the disintegrating policy of the Plehve *régime*. The serious reverses in the far East and the alarming disturbances in the interior of the empire have brought Russia to the verge of national disaster, which, it is believed, can be averted by the appointment of a more liberal minister with a blameless record.

Sviatopolk-Mirsky, says the writer Struve in the *Osvobojhdenie*, assumes the duties of his office under very trying circumstances.



PRINCE PETER SVIATOPOLK-MIRSKY.
(Who succeeds the late von Plehve as Russian minister of the interior.)

He does not bring with him the weighty authority of Count Loris Melikoff, the reform-dictator in the reign of Alexander II., who had won distinction as a great general. He is not, however, a stupid reactionary like his predecessors, who, with their wild Asiatic methods, disappointed even their master, Pobiedonostseff. He is not a police genius like Plehve, who in defeating the hydra of terrorism inspired it with new force, which finally led to his ruin.

It is generally agreed that Sviatopolk-Mirsky is a good man, hitherto little known to the political world. It is known, however, that he did not approve of the aggressive speech made by the Czar on January 30, 1895, wherein he designated the wishes of the zemstvos for wider autonomy as foolish fancies. In some circles, the new minister is even regarded as a Liberal.

Prince Peter Dmitrievich Sviatopolk-Mirsky was born in 1857, of a family which traces its descent from Rurik. His father, Prince Dmitri Ivanovich, was a well-known general, having distinguished himself in the Caucasus, the Crimean War, and in the Turkish war of 1877–78, in which he participated in the storming of Kars. Prince Peter entered the army after graduating from the Military School of Pages. His first appointment was to the regiment of the Imperial Hussars, whence he was transferred, at the beginning of the Turkish war, to the staff of the commander-in-chief of the Caucasian Army. He was commended by his superiors for his cool courage in various battles. Completing his studies in the Military Academy of St. Petersburg, he was attached, in 1881, to the staff of the governor-general of the Odessa district. Subsequently he became a regimental commander, and in 1886 was made chief of staff of the third grenadier division. In 1895, he was intrusted with administrative work as governor of Penza. Two years later he was made governor of Yekaterinoslaf. In 1900, he became assistant minister of the interior and commander of a special corps of gendarmes. In 1902, the prince received the appointment of governor-general of the northwestern governments of Vilna, Kovno, and Grodno, which position he retained until his recent promotion to the ministry of the interior. His record in his various administrative offices shows him to have enjoyed the confidence and the favor of the people.

Hence, it is quite clear that the government, in appointing him, is endeavoring to create an atmosphere of conciliation and concession.

There is no justification, however, for the assumption that Prince Sviatopolk-Mirsky may immediately grant real concessions. He has himself repeatedly announced his policy (to the correspondent of the *Écho de Paris*) to the members of the press at Vilna, and on various occasions in St. Petersburg, and has made it quite clear that radical changes should not be expected. At the same time, it will be his endeavor to make effective the programme outlined in the Czar's manifesto of February 26, 1903. He expects to carry it out on a broad, honest, and liberal basis, without affecting the principles of the existing order of things,—meaning thereby the principles of autocracy. According to him, the rural assemblies (the zemstvos) must receive the greatest possible freedom and autonomy. This he regards as the best means for counteracting "parliamentarism," which is "utterly unsuited for Russia." Concerning the Jews, the new minister has said: "I am not an enemy of the Jews, yet if we should give them equal rights with the Greek-Orthodox Russians they would soon attain too much importance." For the time being, he expects to treat them with great consideration, and will especially endeavor to improve the condition of the Jewish masses, for "the best results may be obtained by good treatment." He also stated that even though he is ever ready to fight the terrorists, he is yet a friend of the students and willing to make allowance for youthful exuberance.

From the latest accounts, it appears that the prince has already dismissed a large number of Plehve's former body-guard; that he has recalled from exile Dervise, the president, and Milyukov, the council member, of the zemstvos of Tver, who were exiled by Plehve for recommending the transfer of a money grant from the parochial schools to those of the communities, and that he has put a stop to the summary expulsion of Jews from certain villages. After a careful survey of the entire situation, however, the truth that stands out most obviously and insistently is summed up in the statement that, notwithstanding indubitably good intentions, Sviatopolk-Mirsky will not be able to effect any substantial reforms until the whole Russian ruling system is changed—until the autocracy has been superseded by some form of constitutional government.

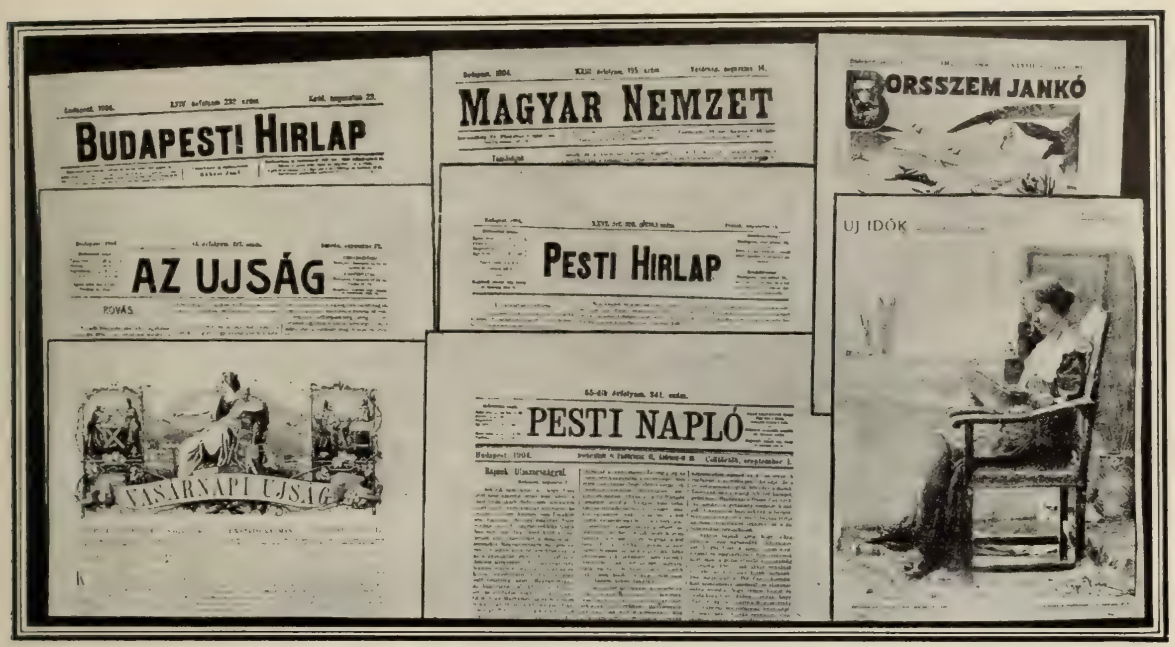
WHAT THE PEOPLE READ IN HUNGARY.

OF Hungary we know that, although a member of the Austro-Hungarian monarchy, she is in reality an independent, self-governing state, and that she does not stand behind other civilized countries in the matter of progress. The intellectual and sentimental life of the Hungarian people is in perfect accord with the independent, national, political life of all the civilized world, under the same conditions which make for the progress and welfare of all nations. Of the present state of Hungarian culture, a graphic and convincing proof is furnished by the fact that the country can boast of fifty daily newspapers, both morning and evening. Hungary has also about two hundred weeklies dealing with politics alone, as well as others devoted to literature, religion, political economy, and industry. The Hungarian press which deals with artistic and literary criticism is very prominent, and the periodicals devoted to wit and humor are no less famous.

The most prominent and the best-known Hungarian daily is the *Budapesti Hirlap* (Budapest News), which advocates the political views and aspirations of Count Albert Apponyi, the world-famous statesman, and, accordingly, it is the chief organ of Hungarian chauvinism. The *Budapesti Hirlap* is the leading newspaper of Hungary. Its name stands for the leader in every important movement in the life of the nation. It supports every idea and agitation for the growth of national efficiency. It defends and promotes every national ambition for moral and material progress. Its editor and owner, Eugene Rákosi, is a figure of international fame. He is also well known as a playwright, an æsthete, and a scientist who, at home and abroad, has ac-



RÁKOSI-JENO (EUGENE RÁKOSI).
(Editor of the *Budapesti Hirlap*.)



SOME PROMINENT HUNGARIAN PERIODICALS.

quired fame and glory for his journal, and for himself as author, scientist, and politician.

Almost all the great dailies are published in the capital. Besides the *Budapesti Hirlap*, the most prominent are the *Pesti Hirlap* (Pest News), which supports the political views of Baron Desider Banffy, the former premier of Hungary; the *Az Ujság* (The News), being the organ of the present prime minister, Count Stephan Tisza; the *Pesti Napló* (Pest Daily), an independent paper, and the *Magyar Hirlap* (Hungarian News), which is liberal in politics. The *Magyarország* (Hungary), Budapest, the *Egyetértés* (Unity), and the *Függetlenség* (Independence) are devoted to the independent and so-called Kossuth party politics. The *Magyar Állam* (Hungarian State) is strongly conservative, while the *Alkotmány* (Constitution) represents the interests of the People's party, or, more correctly, the Catholic Church. There is also a journal published in behalf of the Protestant Church, the *Magyar Szó* (Hungarian Word), and another, the *Hazank* (Our Country), which promotes agrarian interests. In Budapest, there are also some good journals edited in the German language. The most noteworthy of these is the *Pester Lloyd*. Other well-known German papers are the *Neues Pester Journal*, the *Tagblatt*, and the *Neues Politisches Volksblatt*.

Among the periodicals devoted to literature, the following are worthy of note: the *Vasárnapi Ujság* (Sunday News), over fifty years old, and edited by Count Nicholas Nagy, and the *Uj Idök* (New Times). The latter is edited by Frank Herczeg, the best-known living Hungarian novelist, and probably the ablest after Jókai. The *Vasárnapi Ujság* has the support of the older, the *Uj Idök* that of the younger, literary generation. Both of these periodicals are illustrated, and are excellently printed. Other important periodicals are the *Hét* (The Week), edited by the celebrated poet, Joseph Kiss; the *Jövendö* (The Future), the *Magyar Geniusz* (Hungarian Genius), and the *Ország Világ* (Country and World). Of the Hungarian monthly periodicals, we must mention the *Budapesti Szemle* (Budapest Review), which is edited by the noted critic, Paul Gyulai, who is also a professor of the Hungarian Academy, and the *Magyar Szalón* (Hungarian Salon).

The *Kakas Marton* (Martin Rooster) and the *Borsszem Jankó* are the two best-known of the Hungarian comic papers. The former uses its ready wit against the party in power, while the latter is always on the "near side of the dough," —in behalf of the government. The name *Borsszem Jankó* is scarcely translatable into English, but "Pea Size Johnny" is about as near as it can be rendered.

Besides these political, literary, and comic papers, there are numerous others in Hungary devoted to all kinds of professions, to the trades, the industries, etc., every one of which can be rightfully considered as equal to the corresponding product of other countries.

JOHN SKOTTHY.

RAILROAD ACCIDENTS IN THE UNITED STATES.

BY EDWARD A. MOSELEY.

(Secretary of the Interstate Commerce Commission.)

A GLANCE at the published statistics is sufficient to show that there has been a considerable increase in the number of railroad accidents since 1902, but a mere comparison of totals is of little or no value. What is wanted is a statement of causes and some practicable suggestions concerning remedies. The chief object for which accident statistics are gathered is the improvement of conditions,—the indication of such remedial measures as will add to the safety of life and limb. It may be a matter of interest to the statistician to know that the total of certain classes of accidents is greater or less now than formerly, but such information possesses little interest for the general public. What the public wants to know is *why* railroad accidents are increasing, and it has become apparent to the Interstate Commerce Commission that the great thing to be accomplished by its statistics is that they shall indicate that *why* with sufficient clearness to suggest a remedy.

On March 3, 1901, the President approved an act which makes it "the duty of the general manager, superintendent, or other proper officer of every common carrier engaged in interstate commerce by railroad to make to the Interstate Commerce Commission, at its office in Washington, D. C., a monthly report, under oath, of all collisions of trains, or where any train or part of a train accidentally leaves the track, and of all accidents which may occur to its passengers, or to its employees while in the service of such common carrier and actually on duty, which report shall state the nature and causes thereof, and the circumstances connected therewith."

Publication of the causes of railway accidents, as reported by the railroad companies themselves, places the salient facts pertaining to them before the people and affords a basis for intelligent action in the introduction of remedies which will safeguard the lives and limbs of travelers and employees upon railroads. The commission, therefore, publishes quarterly bulletins based upon these monthly reports. In these bulletins, the total number of accidents reported in each quarter is given. The accidents are separated into classes, and the causes of the most prominent train accidents reported are given. Twelve of these quarterly bulletins, covering the years ending June 30, 1902, 1903, and 1904, have already been published. The classification adopted and the total of accidents reported for the three years above mentioned are shown in the following table :

Nature of accident.	1902.				1903.				1904.			
	Passengers.		Employees.		Passengers.		Employees.		Passengers.		Employees.	
	Killed.	Injured.	Killed.	Injured.	Killed.	Injured.	Killed.	Injured.	Killed.	Injured.	Killed.	Injured.
Collisions	130	2,298	425	3,065	118	2,891	561	3,781	166	3,383	464	3,700
Derailments	37	1,194	229	1,380	44	1,458	264	1,714	103	1,422	285	1,739
Miscellaneous train accidents (excluding the above), including locomotive-boiler explosions	.....	94	43	601	2	75	70	945	1	140	95	1,551
Total train accidents	167	3,586	697	5,046	164	4,424	895	6,440	270	4,945	844	6,990
Coupling and uncoupling cars	.....	.....	143	2,113	.....	.....	253	2,788	.....	.....	278	3,441
While doing other work about trains, or while attending switches	.....	1	83	3,566	.....	.....	149	5,538	.....	.....	208	10,661
Coming in contact with overhead bridges, structures at side of track, etc.	7	38	104	1,070	4	32	93	992	5	33	116	1,210
Falling from cars or engines, or while getting on or off	99	1,250	537	6,867	119	1,335	678	8,025	115	1,517	700	9,371
Other causes	30	1,214	952	15,049	34	1,182	1,165	15,221	30	1,582	1,221	11,593
Total (other than train accidents)	136	2,503	1,819	28,665	157	2,549	2,338	32,564	150	3,132	2,523	36,276
Total (all classes)	303	6,089	2,516	33,711	321	6,973	3,233	39,004	420	8,077	3,367	43,266

There are certain accidents which occur with more or less regularity and frequency on railroads that may properly be called unavoidable. Such are accidents due to exceptional elemental disturbances, entirely unexpected landslides or washouts, want of ordinary precaution on the part of passengers or employees, malicious tampering with roadway or equipment, broken rails, etc. Such accidents may be accepted as among the ordinary hazards of railroading and be dismissed from our reckoning. We deplore the casualties which accompany such accidents, just as we deplore the loss of life that accompanies the destruction of a ship in a great storm at sea, but in the one case as in the other we know that no human foresight could have prevented the casualty.

There are casualties, however, which are fairly preventable, and against the occurrence of which travelers and employees upon railroads have a right to demand protection. When we are told, therefore, that the deaths in railroad accidents increased from 2,819 in 1902 to 3,554 in 1903 and 3,787 in 1904, and that the injuries increased from 39,800 in 1902 to 45,977 in 1903 and 51,343 in 1904, it is important for us to know whether the increase was due to preventable or unpreventable causes.

It will be observed that the classification in the above table separates the train accidents from other accidents. This is an important distinction, as among the train accidents proper, such as collisions and derailments, will be found practically all the fairly preventable accidents, at least so far as passengers are concerned. Roughly speaking, then, and considering passengers only, we may say that the train accidents represent the preventable class, while the other accidents, such as "coming in contact with overhead bridges, structures at the side of track," etc., "falling from cars or engines, or while getting on or off," and "other causes" represent the unavoidable accidents. They are generally due to negligence on the part of the victims themselves. This separation will enable us to construct the following table:

	Preventable accidents.		Unpreventable accidents.	
	Passengers killed.	Passengers injured.	Passengers killed.	Passengers injured.
1902	167	3,586	136	2,503
1903	164	4,424	157	2,549
1904	270	4,945	150	3,132

This table shows that the greatest increase in the deaths and injuries to passengers during the past three years has been in the preventable class. An examination of individual cases, as reported in the quarterly bulletins, will disclose causes and help to indicate remedies.

THE HUMAN ELEMENT IN THE PROBLEM.

Take item 2 in Bulletin No. 7, for the quarter ending March 31, 1903. This is a rear collision in which 7 persons were killed and 7 injured. "A passenger train ran into a freight train; personal injuries aggravated by fire in stoves in cars. A brakeman neglected to flag passenger train; had been a train brakeman 16 months." In this case, it is apparent that the whole question of safety depended upon one man,—the brakeman who neglected to flag. It would seem that a properly operated block system would have been an added safeguard, and in all probability would have prevented the accident.

Item 8 is a rear collision resulting in 4 deaths and 3 injuries, which occurred in spite of the block system, and illustrates how greatly the safety of trains is dependent upon the vigilance and strict attention to duty of employees, even where the most approved safety devices are employed. "Occurred 4 A.M.; passenger train ran into two locomotives coupled together; clear block signal wrongfully given. Signal man's attention being momentarily withdrawn from his signal levers, a messenger boy, without authority, cleared the signal. Signal man's age, 19 years 10 months." This operator was young, and obviously of little experience. He undoubtedly disobeyed the rules of the company in allowing an unauthorized person to enter the tower and have access to the signal levers.

Item 15 is a rear collision between passenger trains, resulting in 23 deaths and 85 injuries, which also occurred in spite of the block system, and is a further illustration of how completely the lives of passengers are in the hands of employees. "Collision on long tangent; night; engineman, running very fast, disregarded distant and home block signals, also three red lanterns at different points. This engineman was killed. His eyesight was perfect one year before the accident. The road has no periodical examination or test of enginemen."

The engineer had had ample experience, and his record was good. There is no explanation of his neglect to obey the signals except an unconfirmed newspaper statement that before he died he said that his attention had been drawn away from the signals by some trouble with an injector. The fireman was not held in any way responsible, as his duty was at his fire, which required his entire attention.

A THIRD MAN ON THE ENGINE.

To permit his attention to be distracted by any trouble with an injector under such circumstances was certainly inexcusable on the part of the engineer; but whether this be the true explanation or not, the fact remains that some unusual circumstance caused a momentarily fatal lapse on his part. The circumstances in this case add weight to the argument, which has been extensively agitated of late years, for three men on these modern high-speed locomotives. Many of these engines are so constructed that it is a matter of extreme difficulty for the fireman and the engineer to communicate with each other while the engine is running. The fireman is also compelled to devote his entire attention to his fire, and must be constantly on the alert in order to keep steam up to the required pressure. He has no time to watch the signals, nor can he note the actions of the engineer, and under such conditions an engineer might drop dead or meet with an accident that would disable him for the performance of his duties without the fireman knowing anything about it. In such a case, the train could easily go to destruction before the fireman had had an opportunity to prevent it. With a third man on the engine, however, whose duty it would be to assist the engineer and keep a lookout for signals, this danger would be averted. It is fair to assume that had there been a third man on the engine in the case under discussion, this terrible accident would not have occurred.

THE BLOCK SYSTEM.

There are 67 collisions and 1 derailment noted in these bulletins, resulting in 270 deaths and 734 injuries to passengers and employees, which might have been avoided had the block system been in use. Twenty collisions, resulting in 70 deaths and 391 injuries to passengers and employees, occurred where the block system was in use. The great majority of these accidents were caused by the negligence of employees, either in giving wrong signals or in failing to observe and obey signals properly given. Five of these 20 collisions, however, resulting in 9 deaths and 44 injuries, occurred because the rules of the railroads on which they took place did not require a strict interpretation of the block system,—in other words, the system was permissive instead of absolute, permitting two trains to occupy the same block at the same time, the following train having instructions to run at reduced speed and keep a lookout for the preceding train. It is perhaps needless to say that under permissive rules the advantages of the block system are largely neutralized. Such rules permit the movement of a greater number of trains over a given section of track in a given time than would be the case were the absolute block system in use, and they may be necessary, at times, to prevent congestion of traffic, but wherever permissive blocking is allowed it must happen that a great measure of the protection afforded by the block system is destroyed.

ERRORS OF TRAIN-DISPATCHERS.

The greatest number of collisions reported in these bulletins were due to failure of the train-order system in some of its parts. Dispatchers gave wrong orders, or failed to give orders where they were required; operators failed to copy orders correctly, or did not deliver orders that should have been delivered; conductors and engineers misread, misinterpreted, overlooked, or forgot orders. Seventy-five accidents of this class are noted, resulting in 188 deaths and 828 injuries to passengers and employees. Many of the most distressing collisions that have occurred in this country were due to mistakes in orders, and the regularity and frequency with which such accidents occur emphasize the necessity for radical improvement in the methods of handling trains by telegraphic orders or the abolition of the train-order system entirely.

It is noteworthy that 4 of the above 75 collisions, resulting in 14 deaths and 84 injuries to passengers and employees, and a property loss of nearly one hundred thousand dollars, were due to identical mistakes in reading orders,—the overlooking of "2nd" or "Second." The following is a typical example of this sort of error: "Conductor and engineman of one train misread orders. They had a '19' order against 'Second No. 1,' but read it 'No. 1;' engineman was killed. Being on form 19, the order was not read by the operator to the conductor and engineman." This mistake caused a butting collision between a passenger and a freight train, in which 4 persons were killed and 60 injured. It may be observed that the collision at Warrensburg, Mo., on October 10, in which 30 persons were killed and an equal number terribly injured, was another instance of this sort of error. Such identical errors emphasize the need of some change in the scheme of numbering or naming trains or in writing the numbers or names in dispatchers' orders.

A collision between a passenger and a freight train, in which 22 persons were killed and 25 injured, was due, also, to misreading orders. The conductor of the freight train read 1 hour and 20 minutes, but the order was written 20

minutes. Collisions due to operators copying orders wrongly or failing to deliver orders are numerous. One collision was due to the engineer of one of the trains misreading the name of the station written in his order. Mistakes of dispatchers are not so numerous, but there are several cases of lap orders and failure to make meeting-point.

OVERWORKED TRAINMEN.

The following cases (rear collisions resulting in five deaths) are typical of a condition concerning which there has been much complaint of late: "Local freight standing at station; 12 hours late; no flag out; weather foggy; men on duty 25 hours 30 minutes." "Engineman failed to properly control speed; had been on duty 22 hours, with 5 hours' rest within that time." "Flagman, who had been ordered to hold one of the trains, went into caboose to get red light; sat down to warm himself and dry his clothes; fell asleep; had been on duty 16½ hours."

It is undeniable that many of the accidents which occur are largely contributed to, if not directly caused by, the long hours of duty to which trainmen are subjected. Could we trace the events to their first cause, we should doubtless find that many of those cases of misreading, overlooking, or forgetting orders were due to the fact that wits were dulled and senses benumbed by lack of rest. In the distressing wreck at Glenwood, Ill., last summer, in which a large number of excursionists were killed and injured by a freight train running into a passenger train, the evidence at the coroner's inquest showed that the freight engineer (whom, the officials of the road said, "disregarded plain orders and acted like a crazy man") had been on duty more than twenty hours. In commenting on this case, it was pertinently said by one of the Chicago papers that "the officials of the company might as well fill their engineers and firemen with whiskey or drug them with opium as to send them out for fifteen and seventeen hours of continuous work expecting them to keep their heads, apply intelligently the general rules of the road, and give exact obedience to all orders."

It was pointed out on behalf of the company in this Glenwood case that the company rules permitted employees to take ten hours' rest after they had been on duty sixteen hours. It is a universal rule with railroad companies to permit a period of rest after a certain period of duty before employees are called upon to go on duty again. But the trouble is that these rules are permissive, not mandatory. They do not *compel* employees to take rest unless the employees themselves think they need it, and as a consequence, the necessities of the roads, growing out of the movement of traffic, coupled with the greed of the men, who in many cases overwork themselves in order to achieve a big month's pay, render the rules of little or no effect.

Again, there is no well-organized system of relieving crews on the road after they have been on continuous duty for an excessive number of hours. It is a common practice, when crews ask for rest in the middle of a trip, to run them into a side-track out on the road and let them sleep on the train before completing the trip. The sort of rest that men get while lying down in a cramped position on an engine, while fully clothed, is not satisfying, and cases are reported in our bulletins where men have pulled right out of a side-track in the face of an opposing train, after such a period of rest, under the impression that the train had gone. Furthermore, the construction that is likely to be placed on these rest rules of railroad companies is obvious from a quotation of the rule in force on one of the most prominent roads in the country, as follows: "When train or yard men have been over ten hours on continuous duty, they will, after arrival at the terminus, be entitled to eight hours' rest without prejudice, except when necessary to avoid delay to live stock or perishable freight." It will be noted that the period of rest is allowed only *after arrival at the terminus*, and then only when it will not delay the movement of live stock or perishable freight. When it is considered that in one of the accidents noted above the train crew had been on duty 25 hours and 30 minutes, and had not yet arrived at the terminus, it will be seen how little relief is afforded by such rules in many urgent cases.

There can be no doubt that the railroads generally have worked under many disadvantages of late years. The necessities growing out of the movement of extraordinary volumes of traffic, and the demands of the public for increased and faster train service, have taxed the facilities of the roads to their utmost, leading to the placing of many inexperienced men in responsible positions, to the overworking of men, and to a disregard of many safeguards that under ordinary conditions would have been strictly observed.

There is a tendency in certain quarters to refer many of our railroad casualties to the great American tendency to rush things, and I have even heard it remarked that the public demands the service and must accept the dangers incident thereto; but this is hardly a fair way of looking at the matter, and when the public is

confronted with a mass of purely avoidable casualties it is proper to ask if it is not time to call a halt and insist on the introduction of such safeguards as will reduce such casualties to a minimum, even though it may result in a lessening of the characteristic hurry and bustle with which Americans are accustomed to move about from place to place.

THE BRITISH SYSTEM OF REGULATION.

It is pertinent to inquire if the time has not arrived for a more effective system of railway regulation, following the example of Great Britain. Under the Regulation of Railways Act of Great Britain, railway companies are required to report accidents to the Board of Trade, in such form and giving such particulars as the board may direct, by the earliest practicable post after the accident takes place; and, furthermore, the board has power to direct that notice of any class of accidents shall be sent to them by telegraph immediately after the accident takes place. The board may direct an inquiry to be made by one of its inspectors into the cause of any accident, and, whenever it deems necessary, it may call in experts and magistrates to assist its inspector in making a more formal investigation. The persons holding this formal investigation have all the powers of a court of summary jurisdiction, and may enter and inspect places or buildings, require the attendance of persons and answers to such inquiries as they see fit to make, enforce the production of books, papers, and documents, administer oaths, and are generally clothed with such powers as will enable them to get at the facts. The inspectors of the board, and the persons acting with them in making formal inquiries, as set forth above, are required to make a report of the results of their investigations to the Board of Trade, and the Board of Trade is required to make public every such report.

It is also competent for the Board of Trade to appoint an inspector, or some person possessing legal or special knowledge, to assist coroners in holding inquests on the death of persons killed in railway accidents, reports of such inquests to be made to the Board of Trade, and to be made public in like manner as in the case of a formal investigation. There can be no doubt that this rigid supervision and investigation of accidents tends to promote the safety of both travelers and employees, and to the improvements in operation and working brought about by the recommendations of the board, as a result of these investigations, may be attributed a great share of the comparative immunity from serious railway accidents which the people of Great Britain enjoy.

In this connection it is proper to say that the Interstate Commerce Commission has made no recent comparisons between the accident statistics of the United States and those of foreign countries, and the recent statement that has been going the rounds of the press, purporting to give the total of persons killed and injured on the railroads of this country in 1904, and making comparisons between this country and Great Britain, is entirely unauthorized. The commission has made no such comparisons, and the only figures for 1904 that have yet been compiled are those appearing in this article.

PROPOSED REFORMS IN AMERICAN PRACTICE.

Summarizing the remedies suggested by the above exhibit of causes, they are:

1. An extension of the block system as rapidly as practicable, and its strict interpretation on lines already blocked.

2. A radical reform in the train-order system as applied to single-track roads, or its entire abolition, substituting the electric staff or tablet system, as has been done in Great Britain.

3. The introduction of rigid rules governing the hours of labor of railroad employees engaged in train service.

4. The employment of a third man on all modern high-speed locomotives.

5. An extension of the practice of employing two conductors on heavy high-speed trains, one to look after the running of the train exclusively and the other to look after the tickets, as is now the practice on several of the transcontinental lines.

6. The employment of only experienced men in responsible positions.

7. An extension of second, third, and fourth track mileage as rapidly as practicable, to accommodate the growing necessities of traffic.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

EX-PRESIDENT CLEVELAND ON THE DEMOCRATIC CANDIDATE.

A STRONG indorsement of the candidacy of Judge Parker from the pen of ex-President Cleveland appears in the November number of *McClure's Magazine*. Mr. Cleveland begins his article with the statement that in the present campaign the personal characteristics of the candidates occupy, to an unusual extent, the thought of the voters. President Roosevelt's administration of the Presidential office is passed over with the remark that it has challenged "the anxious reflections of millions of conservative and patriotic voters, who neither mistake sensationalism for the emphasis of lofty Americanism nor have reached such a partisanship as allows them to satisfy their conception of the duty of suffrage by blind obedience to party leadership." It follows that the necessary scrutiny of executive conduct which results from this attitude on the part of the opposition is inevitably accompanied by a like scrutiny of the mental and moral traits of the competing candidate.

In attempting to discover the qualities of mind and heart which are characteristic of the nominee of the Democratic party, Mr. Cleveland admits that no evidence derived from his actual discharge of executive duty is available, but he holds that abundant proof of his fitness for the Presidential office is afforded by other means of information which are at hand. Judge Parker's intent deliberation in reaching conclusions, and his inherent judicial conservatism, are qualities of mind "so distinctly apparent that they are at once seen and known by all who gain the slightest knowledge of the man."

A FINE LOYALTY TO DUTY.

Mr. Cleveland further states that he has known Judge Parker for more than twenty years, and that his first impression of the judge as a sincere, honest, and able man has, with time and observation, grown to clear and undoubting conviction. In this connection, Mr. Cleveland recalls the time when he invited Judge Parker to Washington and urged him to accept the position of First Assistant Postmaster-General, and says that he will always remember with admiration "the fine sense of duty and the frankness and honesty he manifested as he gave me his reasons for declining the appointment." Mr. Cleveland speaks in the highest terms of Judge Parker's career on the bench of the New York Court of Appeals, and says that in the case of Judge Parker, adherence to duty is not only a sustaining power, but an inflexible rule of conduct. It was because he saw greater duty in continuing to serve the people of New York State as Chief Judge of the Court of Appeals that Judge Parker evaded the nomination for governor; and when he was first talked about for the Presidency, he declared to a friend that if the nomination came to him it must be without active effort on his part, and without the slightest incident that was unbefitting his judgeship. Summing it all up, Mr. Cleveland makes a positive assertion that the guiding trait of Judge Parker's character is his constant and unyielding devotion to duty. As to mental equipment, Mr. Cleveland believes that Judge Parker's experience in judicial investigation, added to his natural aptitude in the same direction, ought to be sufficient assurance of his ability to discover "in the light of constitutional requirements, and in the atmosphere of enlightened but conservative Americanism, the manner in which a President should best serve his countrymen."

Mr. Cleveland finds in Judge Parker's famous "gold telegram" to the St. Louis convention clear and convincing evidence on the question whether he has the moral stamina and stability to withstand temptations to compromise his convictions of right. The sending of that telegram, says Mr. Cleveland, was the individual and unforced act of a sincere and fearless man. In Mr. Cleveland's opinion, the closest scrutiny of Judge Parker's entire course will not develop a single instance of cowardice or surrender of conscientious conviction.

The ex-President says, in concluding his article:

I am persuaded that the American people will make no mistake if they place implicit reliance in Alton B. Parker's devotion to duty, in his clear perception of the path of duty, in his steadfast persistency against all temptation to leave the way where duty leads, and in his safe and conservative conceptions of Presidential responsibilities.

SENATOR LODGE ON POPULAR MISCONCEPTIONS OF PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT.

UP to the closing days of the campaign the newspapers and magazines of the country continued to devote much space to the personalities of the candidates, thus illustrating the truth of ex-President Cleveland's observation recorded on the preceding page. In *McClure's Magazine*, Senator Henry Cabot Lodge, who has long been the intimate friend and adviser of President Roosevelt, sets forth some of the President's characteristics as they appeal to him, admitting at the outset his inability to depict the character of a man who has lived so amply the life of his time, has known humanity in so many phases, and has so many sympathies and interests. In attempting to give an impression of President Roosevelt, Senator Lodge prefers, first, to disperse some of the myths and conceptions which, he says, have confused the minds of some very honest and very patriotic people, and have even troubled persons who thoroughly believe in the President and fully intend to vote for him.

NOT A "FEVERISHLY ACTIVE" MAN.

As to the popular idea of the President's "strenuousness," Mr. Lodge shows that nothing could be more ridiculous than the idea that Theodore Roosevelt leads an existence of feverish and almost diseased activity, which, if not expended on things physical, is projected on public affairs. The very fact that Mr. Roosevelt has accomplished the extraordinary amount of work which he has accomplished in the past twenty-five years shows that his activity is neither feverish, nor abnormal, nor diseased, but regulated and controlled. The President's daily life, says Senator Lodge, does not differ in any respect from that of any other very busy man of great energy, who finds rest and relief, not only in active out-of-door life, but in a wide and constant reading of books,—"a habit, by the way, quite as characteristic as any others, but of which the newspaper critics and humorists tell us little."

NEITHER RASH NOR HEADSTRONG.

For the other widespread misconception of the President as a hotheaded, rash, and impulsive man, there is no other basis than the youthful speeches and writings of Mr. Roosevelt, when he was barely out of college, which lacked in accuracy of statement, occasionally, just as would be the case with any young man. We judge the matured public man, says Senator Lodge, by what he is, not by what he may have said twenty-five years before, honest and brave as that early opinion and that boyish speech surely were.

It is President Roosevelt's habit to act quickly when he has thought the subject out thoroughly and knows what he means to do. Once having made up his mind as to what is right, he is unbending. But no man has been in the White House for many years, asserts Mr. Lodge, who is so ready to take advice, who has made up his mind more slowly, more deliberately, and with more consultation than President Roosevelt. No President, in my observation, has ever consulted with the leaders of the party, not only in the House and the Senate, but in the States and in the press, so frequently and to such good advantage, as Mr. Roosevelt, although a favorite charge is that he is headstrong and wishes no advisers.

The idea that Mr. Roosevelt is reckless and would not hesitate to plunge the country into war grows very largely, in Mr. Lodge's opinion, out of the President's passion for athletics and for more or less dangerous sports, and from the fact that he went so readily and quickly himself as a soldier into the war with Spain. From these facts, however, Mr. Lodge reaches the opposite conclusion from that of the President's opponents. A man who has faced danger, either in hunting or in war, is the very last man to put other men's lives in peril without the sternest necessity, and is the first man to feel most keenly the great responsibility of a great office in this respect.

THE TYPICAL AMERICAN.

Senator Lodge enumerates some of the qualities which most American citizens like to think peculiarly American. "We of the United States like to think of the typical American as a brave man and an honest man, very human, with no vain pretense of infallibility. We would have him simple in his home life; democratic in his way, with the highest education that the world can give; kind to the weak, tender and loyal and true; never quarrelsome, but never afraid to fight, with a strong, sane sense of humor, and with a strain of adventure in the blood which we shall never cease to love until those ancestors of ours who conquered a continent have drifted a good deal further into the past than is the case to-day." In enumerating these qualities, Mr. Lodge declares that he has described Theodore Roosevelt.

IF A PROHIBITIONIST WERE PRESIDENT.

A BRIEF statement of the practical effects to the government and the people of the United States which would follow the success of the Prohibition ticket at the polls is made in *Leslie's Monthly Magazine* for November by Dr. Silas C. Swallow, the Presidential candidate of the Prohibition party. Dr. Swallow advances the moral and religious arguments in favor of prohibition which are familiar to our readers. It is his economic contention which we reproduce. Prohibition, he declares, would "remove from the arena of political manipulation the most corrupt and corrupting influence in American politics." He believes that prohibition would have a beneficial effect on the labor question. He says:

It would go far toward eliminating the conflict between labor and capital, since the fourteen hundred millions now spent for liquid poison, and an estimated equal amount spent in caring for the product of the liquor traffic, would be used to purchase the necessaries of life. This would increase largely the output of the farm and factory, and thus increase the demand for farm and factory labor. It would stimulate railroad-building as a means for transporting the increased product. The increased demand for labor would bring a corresponding increase in wages that would help to render strikes and lockouts obsolete relics of a former barbarism. Over-consumption of beer and whiskey, and a corresponding under-consumption of food, raiment, and building material, and of the facilities for intellectual and moral culture, now lie at the foundation of the asperities existing between capital and labor, and not "over-production of the necessaries of life," as some contend. It is the fear of many publicists that these asperities, if unallayed, will within a decade culminate in a widespread, sanguinary conflict that will endanger the stability of our government. Prohibition would save the people the difference between one dollar revenue now received for the permits called license, sold to two hundred and fifty thousand liquor dealers, and the sixteen dollars which we must pay out to take care of the results of the traffic.

Prohibition would also aid greatly, Dr. Swallow believes, in settling the race question. His line of reasoning is as follows:

The negro as a slave was prohibited the use of liquors, and with implicit confidence in his trustworthiness when sober, his master left wife, mother, and sister in his tender care while he fought the Yankee in the great contest of State rights. Freedom gave the colored man access to liquor, and straightway he becomes a demon in committing the unspeakable crime, while the white outlaws who hunt, shoot, and hang or burn the dusky sons of Ham, frequently without judge or jury, are also, as a rule, the victims of the government-stamped alcoholic drugs. The negro crazed by government whiskey, like the white man under like influence, is an uncertain but dangerous equation in the problem of our new and yet somewhat untried American civilization.

THE UNITED STATES AND THE TRADE OF MEXICO.

ONE of the significant facts in connection with Mexican trade is that only about one-half of Mexico's imports come from the United States, while of her exports, about three-fourths come to this country. In a paper contributed to the October number of the *Arena*, Mr. Morrell W. Gaines gives some reasons why the United States does not hold a larger share of Mexican trade. He states that the exports run to a total of $75,000,000 a year, while the imports reach nearly the same amount. The trade is growing rapidly with the peaceful development of the nation's resources, having increased by 50 per cent. during the past ten years. The most noticeable single increases are in the exportation of agricultural products and in the importation of fuel and machinery. The main resource of the country,—namely, its agriculture,—is capable, says Mr. Gaines, of tremendous further growth. The precious metals, which are included in the total exports, still constitute about 60 per cent. of the whole, but are not, strictly speaking, to be considered in all respects as articles of trade. In the exports to the United States, for example, is included a large amount of gold and silver which comes to us for the reason that the routes of quick transportation lie in our direction. In strict truth, Mr. Gaines thinks that the heavy proportion of these metals that is sent here simply for purposes of immediate realization in the open market should be deducted from the share of Mexico's export trade that we have been calling our own. Making this deduction, we cannot with justice lay claim to more than one-half of the total foreign commerce of our next neighbor, notwithstanding the fact that our investments in Mexico are larger by from two to three hundred million dollars than are those of all the other outside nations put together.

EUROPE'S ASCENDENCY IN MEXICAN RETAIL TRADE.

Worse still, Mr. Gaines shows that we have as yet made very little headway in competing with

Europe for the more profitable and valuable part of the import trade. The imports that do come from this country are such things as coal, petroleum and its products, machinery, railroad materials, and, in general, articles of industrial consumption. Europe, on the other hand, supplies the great bulk of articles of personal consumption, covering the main body of merchandise subject to retail handling,—the dry goods, hardware, groceries, jewelry, etc., that make up the ordinary store trade of the nation. Thus, the United States sells bulk commodities and certain other articles of which the sales can be made direct to the ultimate purchaser or distribution effected by means of central agencies, while Europe sells the things in connection with which handling by middlemen is required. The internal channels of the trade, therefore, are fed from European sources.

LONG CREDITS AND LARGE PROFITS.

The European ascendency in Mexico, says Mr. Gaines, is not due to industrial superiority. It comes from a superior adaptation to the financial needs of the Mexican trade, in part, and in part from a vastly more effective sales-organization in the country itself. It is said that the Mexican trade yields a net margin out of the final retail selling price that is from two to five times what we are accustomed to in the United States. The most striking features of the retail trade, according to Mr. Gaines, are the long credits allowed to customers and the high margin of profit. Collection in that country is not pressed for six or eight months, or even more. The patrons of the large importing houses are still exclusively of the gentry, the middle class not having as yet become very important as a purchasing factor. This fact, of course, tends to maintain large profits, a tendency which has been materially aided by the fluctuations in the value of silver currency. In Europe, there is no difficulty in obtaining elastic credit, since the reputation of Mexican commercial houses for solidity is absolute. Almost without exception, the managers and owners of these houses are Europeans, and are in touch with their own countrymen abroad. Germany sells goods to Mexico on six months' time, with 2 per cent. off for cash, giving permission to renew for successive periods of six months, at 6 per cent. per annum, with interest. France and Spain adopt practically the same course.

AN AMERICAN MERCANTILE BANK.

If the United States is to compete successfully with European countries for Mexican trade, this question of credit will be the first to be considered. Mr. Gaines shows that there are two ways in which the necessary amplification of American credit in Mexico might be secured. One is to follow the example of Europe and establish American importing concerns, or branch houses, that can call upon American money and American banking to the same degree that European houses can call upon Europe. The other is to organize a mercantile bank which will be prepared to supply, in Mexico, the additional credit that the jobber and retailer alike stand in need of. This second method is the one which, in the opinion of Mr. Gaines, should be taken up by American capital. With such a bank once established, or an existing bank strengthened in such a way that the American can get the same amount of accommodation that the other nationalities enjoy on their various personal connections, it is believed that a veritable revolution in the Mexican trade would be inaugurated. The bank itself would beyond a doubt prove extremely profitable.

A REVIVAL OF ANCIENT ARTILLERY.

WE have resurrected and played Greek and Roman dramas; recently Smith College has essayed a Hindu one. Our circuses and hippodromes reproduce the Roman chariot race, and modern times as well as ancient have their Olympic games,—all to "see how it is ourselves." Recently, at Metz, Germany, on the same principle, they have been reconstructing and experimenting with ancient artillery. *Über Land und Meer* (Stuttgart), in describing the trial, says:

The ancients used big guns in pitched battles as well as at sieges. They had knowledge of them from the Greeks. Catapults, indeed, are said to have been invented by the Syrians. The heavy artillery of the Greeks was divided, according to the missiles, into arrow artillery and stone-throwers, both, generally speaking, crossbows in great measure, which were bent by means of special appliances. With the Romans, the general name for the big guns was *tormenta*, because they manifested their strength by means of twisted ropes (*torquere*). Besides the *catapultæ* and *balistæ* were found so-called *onagri* (*i.e.*, "wild asses") and *scorpiones* ("scorpions"). Interesting reconstructions of these antique projecting-engines have recently been made by Major Schramm, of the Saxon Twelfth Foot Artillery, with great knowledge of the subject; and dur-

ing the recent visit of the imperial governor, the Prince of Hohenlohe-Langenburg, a trial-shooting with the old war tools took place on the old pioneer drill-ground at Metz. The shooting showed quite surprising results. Even the little *onager*, which had at first occasionally missed fire, scattered its balls promptly and safely at a distance of about one hundred and fifty meters [a little less than five hundred feet].

The reconstructed guns and their performances received the full approval of the governor, who expressed himself to the effect that, in the Kaiser's opinion, these engines would certainly be a very valuable acquisition for the Saalburg, the old Roman frontier fort near Homburg, which Emperor William II. has recently had rebuilt on the ancient plans, and which he dedicated two years ago.

SEVEN MONTHS OF WAR: A RUSSIAN VIEW.

COMMENTING on the unpreparedness of Russia at the outbreak of the war, and on the significant reverses on land and sea, the *Russkaya Viedomosti*, the liberal journal of Moscow, admits that Japan was for the most part successful in carrying out her military plans during the seven months of the campaign. The remains of the Russian fleet still at Port Arthur is evidently doomed to destruction, says the *Viedomosti*, "for it will hardly succeed in escaping from Togo's powerful squadron; and if Port Arthur is to fall, the best that may be hoped for the vessels is that they will be scuttled or blown up to keep them from falling into the hands of the enemy." The part to be played by the Baltic fleet, which is at last starting on its voyage, is for the future to decide, but, meanwhile, it must be admitted that "the Japanese have succeeded in carrying out their immediate plans, and that the first phase of the war has in every respect proved unsuccessful for Russia."



GETTING READY IN MANCHURIA.

RUSSIA: "The wretched little creatures! It will be necessary to kill them to the very last man."

From *La Silhouette* (Paris).

These failures on Russia's part may be accounted for, this Moscow journal continues, by circumstances "unfortunate for us." Russia was unprepared for the war.

> The Russian armies encountered forces stronger both on land and sea; and, finally, we were handicapped by our great distance from the field of operations. We can do nothing against such overwhelming odds, and may only hope for a more propitious future. We have suffered a great affliction, which we must bear patiently and bravely. But every serious experience should teach something,—should emphasize the faults that have become apparent. In this respect this lesson contains much that is instructive for Russia.

Examining in greater detail the military status of the two powers in the far East immediately before the war, the *Viedomosti* comes to conclusions not at all flattering to the Russian Government. It finds on Russia's part a scant military equipment in the far East, "a shocking ignorance of Japan's resources, an inexcusable contempt for Japan's army and navy," and on Japan's part, years of careful preparation, study, and organization.

> Compared with this exhaustive study of everything the knowledge of which was indispensable to Japan for a successful struggle with Russia, we hardly possessed any exact information about Japan, her military forces, her resources, the attitude and spirit of her people. In the well known book on Japan by Colonel Boguslavski (1904), who had at his disposal the information of our general staff, it is stated that Japan's army, including the reserves, numbers 231,800 men; that the cavalry numbers only 10,000 men, and that it is poor; that the artillery has only 684 guns, and that the territorial

army numbered only 122,000 men. In reality, Japan placed an army of 500,000 men in Manchuria. She has a cavalry with good Australian horses, and her artillery is much more numerous. Aside from the secrecy observed by Japan in military matters, Russia was also prevented from securing the necessary information by the absence, in Russia, of students of Japan. The number of persons knowing Japanese is very limited. There are no educated Russian interpreters for the army, to say nothing of persons who could mingle in Japanese society, or even pass, in case of necessity, for Japanese, thanks to their excellent knowledge of the Japanese language, life, and literature. It was reported in our press quite recently that the government, feeling the need of educated interpreters, sought them in the faculty of Oriental languages of the University of St. Petersburg, and elsewhere, but failed to find any.



RUSSIAN ARTILLERY WITH GENERAL LINEVICH'S FORCES, IN EXTREME EASTERN MANCHURIA.

The *Viedomosti* urges that strong efforts be made to create a body of men familiar with the East, its languages, and its life. As to the campaign itself, it counsels the straining of every nerve to make up for lost time, to increase the army in Manchuria until its numbers are greater than those of the Japanese. In this way it would become possible, not only to stop their advance, but actually to assume the offensive.

We are all convinced that the reënforcements will arrive, that our army will become numerically stronger than the Japanese army, and that it will then advance in the full consciousness of its superiority. . . . The whole world is awaiting with interest the outcome of this significant struggle, in which Japan is apparently ready to sacrifice all her resources in order to attain predominance in the far East, and to become the arbiter of the fortunes of all eastern Asia. Much blood will probably be shed ere the pressure of this new world power is relieved and she is compelled to moderate her demands.

As to peace terms, the Moscow journal "can not but wish that the conditions of the war be soon modified in Russia's favor to such an extent that she be placed in a position to consider the cessation of hostilities and the discussion of the peace terms."

But everybody realizes that until Russia secures a decided advantage in the coming new phase of the war the conclusion of peace is entirely out of the question. Let us hope for the moment when there will appear to us the hope in the possibility of a peaceful termination of the bloody struggle on conditions acceptable to both countries and compatible with the dignity and the vital interests of Russia. All Russia will breathe more freely when this opportunity comes at last, when she will be relieved from the suffering and care inflicted by the war, when this "far East" will cease to be a Moloch consuming the blood and the savings of our nation, when we shall again be enabled to take up our important productive undertakings, and, with a clearer consciousness of our backwardness, our failings, our national needs, in the friendly coöperation of the people and the government to strengthen our work of progress so indispensable to us in order to raise the level of prosperity and enlightenment in our nation.

A Discussion of the Campaign.

In another issue, the *Viedomosti* discusses the Russian plan of campaign for 1904. Kuropatkin was to drive the Japanese to the Pacific, while Linevich was to descend from Vladivostok and threaten the Japanese in Korea. This plan of the general staff was similar to that of the Union armies of Grant and Sherman. But, says the *Viedomosti*, Linevich's campaign in northeastern Korea has not been crowned with success, thus far, and his vanguard of two thousand men and six guns has retreated to the north.

The fundamental cause of this failure in consequence of which we must renounce the hope of finishing the war within the present year is the same that brought about our reverses in the first part of the war of 1877,—namely, the insufficient forces for an offensive campaign. In the Civil War of 1861–65, Sherman's march was brilliantly successful because on the strategical front of the Union armies Grant's forces were considerably

stronger than Lee's and gradually forced the latter to the south. But in the present campaign, Linevich made ready for his march to Gensan and Seoul at the time when on the main theater of war in southern Manchuria Oyama's forces were considerably larger than ours, and Kuropatkin not only failed to drive the Japanese back to Korea, but was himself compelled, step by step, to retreat to the north.

The *Viedomosti* also points out another important difference between this campaign and that of Grant and Sherman,—the command of the sea. The march to Seoul, it says, and farther, to the Yalu, would have been possible for Linevich only with our fleet's mastery on the Sea of Japan.

But the Baltic fleet did not come in time, Admiral Yessen suffered defeat at Fusan, the command of the sea was in the hands of the Japanese, and Linevich could not maintain a line of communication seven hundred and fifty versts long, and in mountainous country at that. Finally, the undisputed occupation of the line on the Mississippi by Grant in 1863 secured Sherman's flank, while the flank of Linevich's army would have been exposed to attack from the sea. All these causes contributed to the brilliant success of the Union forces in the campaign of 1864–65 on the one hand, and to the failure of our campaign on the other, although the plans of the two campaigns were almost identical in their fundamental idea. The idea on which the plan of campaign by our general staff was founded is excellent in itself, but its realization was begun with insufficient forces.

WHAT WILL THE WAR COST JAPAN?

VARIOUS estimates have been made of the probable cost of the war between Japan and Russia, all agreeing that, while accurate figures are an impossibility, approximations make it, beyond a doubt, even now by far the most expensive war since the struggle between France and Germany, thirty-four years ago. The *Journal of the Military Service Institution* publishes a translation from the French of an article on the cost to Japan prepared by an officer in the Belgian army. The writer analyzes the preparations made by the Japanese Government, pointing out how the transportation problem has been simplified by the subsidies granted to the Japanese merchant marine, resulting in an increase, in ten years, of 1,496 vessels, of a total tonnage of 236,000. In 1895, the government decided to construct 119 ships of war representing a tonnage of 156,000 and involving an expenditure of more than 200,000,000 yen ($100,000,000). In 1903, a further credit of over 100,000,000 yen was voted for naval expenses. The army also was increased to a war footing of 339,000 men ready for mobilization, fully equipped. On the eve of the present war, according to the writer in question, the Japanese public debt amounted to 540,000,000 yen ($270,000,000). For purposes of comparison, it may be stated that this is less than two and one-half times the annual revenue, while the proportion of public debt to revenue is five in England, seven in Italy, and eight in France. In 1900, on the basis of official statistics, the public wealth of Japan was, approximately, $10,000,000,000. Since the war began, three loans of 100,000,000 yen each have been subscribed, two in Japan and one abroad, in England and the United States. These loans have all been oversubscribed, so Japan's credit may be said to be still in excellent condition.

WHAT WILL THE WAR COST?

The French writer recalls the fact that the war of 1870 cost France over eight milliards of francs ($1,600,000,000), which, of course, included the indemnity paid to Germany. Since 1895, England has spent more than $1,300,000,000, mostly on her South African campaigns. The war of 1877–78 cost Russia $800,000,000.

At the opening of the Japanese-Chinese campaign, Japan was ready both in a financial and a military sense, and easily supported the cost of the war. As far as the actual direct expenses of the war were concerned, the amount was two hundred and thirty-five million yen. This was covered by a loan of one hundred and twenty-five million; by a loan of eighty-two million, paid out of the indemnity received from China; and by the surplus resulting from the ordinary resources of the state. To the direct cost of the war must be added the cost of the occupation of Formosa, in all fifty-seven and one-half (57½) million yen, including the cost of the fortifications constructed. It is not known what amounts have been expended in pensions and military rewards. The interest on the loan, which is provided for by a sinking fund, adds about six and one-half million yen to the annual budget. To these direct expenses there must be added, also, the losses incurred by private interests, which latter it is very difficult to estimate even approximately; it appears, however, that the country did not suffer very greatly from these losses, of the extent of which an indication may be found in the comparative table below, giving, in millions of yen, the revenue from taxes of 1892 to 1896.

INCREASE IN COST OF LIVING.

Between 1897 and 1900, prices of all sorts of merchandise increased very considerably in Japan, principally of those articles indispensable for feeding troops. Two estimates of the prob-

able cost of the present war have been made which deserve consideration, differing, however, very widely.

Before the war, the Japanese generals, who were opposed, it is true, to a rupture with Russia, affirmed that each soldier cost the government eight yen per day,—that is, one million six hundred thousand yen for an effective strength of two hundred thousand men to be thrown into Korea,—and that the fleet would cost, approximately, the same amount. That means, then, an expense of ninety-six million yen per month. Professor Rathgen (in *Die Woche*, January 16, 1904) mentions a total of loans of four to six hundred million yen.

M. Paul Leroy-Beaulieu (see the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, March, 1904) estimates that with seven to eight hundred million francs (280 to 320 million yen), or perhaps a milliard of francs (400 million yen), which Japan can obtain, she will be able to carry on the war to the end of the present year, or even longer.

The *Correspondant* (March 1904), in a very remarkable anonymous article, gives for the two belligerents a detailed tabular estimate of military expenses for the period of six months. Here is a recapitulation of this table, as far as it applies to Japan :

I.—Land Forces.	Francs.
A. Mobilization	34,100,000
B. Transport of rations	4,620,000
C. Rations	49,345,000
D. Pay of troops	69,070,000
E. Ambulance	4,600,000
F. Clothing	26,400,000
G. Losses in animals	18,750,000
H. Railroads for the field	16,000,000
I. Losses in war material	62,006,250
J. Administration material	6,480,000
Total (land forces)	291,374,250
	$58,254,850

II.—Naval Forces.	Francs
A. Wear and tear of squadrons	222,660,000
B. Naval artillery	170,960,000
C. Torpedoes	13,500,000
D. Coal	7,105,750
E. Rations and pay of crews	7,575,000
Total (navy)	421,800,000
	$84,360,500
Grand total	713,172,000
	$142,634,400

This makes, in yen, about one hundred and sixteen millions for the army, and one hundred and sixty-nine millions for the navy, or, in all, about two hundred and eighty-five millions. This is about one-half as much as the amount given by the estimate of the Japanese generals.

According to the *Correspondant*, a Japanese soldier eats, each day, about one kilogram of rice and one hundred grams of meat, and drinks two liters of tea and coffee ; this makes two kilograms of rations per day to be transported for each man. A soldier is paid two francs and twenty-five centimes per month in time of peace ; an officer, a mean of twenty-five hundred francs per year. These rates are quadrupled in time of war. The losses in war material are estimated at one-quarter of the whole, based on the experience of the wars of the last half of the nineteenth century. This calculation does not take into consideration vessels lost, the effects of the bombardments, etc.

M. Leroy-Beaulieu expresses the opinion that the combined cost to the two belligerents will be not less than five milliards of francs if the war should be prolonged beyond one year to fifteen months. On the basis of the estimate of the *Correspondant*, who figures Russia's expenses for six months at 1,097,167,500 francs, this would be two milliards of francs for Japan, or about eight hundred millions of yen.

THE JAPANESE NATIONAL SPIRIT.

THAT something which has meant more to the Japanese arms in the present war than numbers or equipment has been the peculiar, splendid patriotism which the Japanese base on "love of country and loyalty to the Emperor." In the *Atlantic Monthly*, Nobushige Amenomori lifts "a corner of the veil, so as to let those who will take a peep at the interior of the shrine of national life that has been built up by the sons and daughters of Yamato, and has stood unshaken for thousands of years, gaining strength from age to age," and tells us about this patriotism. This writer traces the history of Japan from the earliest times, and contends that when, fifty years ago, Japan adopted Western ways, it was not that she became suddenly civilized, but that at that time she simply changed her own ancient, peculiar, highly developed civilization for the civilization of the West. He goes on to show how highly developed the Japanese people were at the time of Commander Perry's visit, and how they simply changed from Japanese civilization to Occidental civilization. He points out how the Japanese have excelled even in forms of human endeavor thought to be exclusively Western.

Many of the munitions and ammunitions wherewith she is now fighting are of her own invention and make. The Shimose powder and shells, the Oda submarine mines, the Arisaka quick-firing guns, and the Meiji 30th-year rifles have all proved their effectiveness, to the great loss of the enemy. Even the apparatus of wireless telegraphy she is now using is of a special type of her contrivance ; and she has devised, though not yet used them in the present war, a new type of balloons. Thus, she is fighting with new knowledge and new equipment. Yet she is still eager to learn, and has already learned much from her enemy. She has deeply regretted the death of Makaroff, not only from the high esteem in which she had held him, but also from the frustration of the hopes she had entertained of learning a great deal from him, whose books on naval matters she had carefully studied.

INTENSE LOYALTY TO THE EMPEROR.

In considering Japanese patriotism, loyalty to the Emperor must always be remembered. An ordinary Japanese cannot think of one without the other. "My country," to a Japanese, means "My country and my Emperor." To a Japanese, his country does not mean simply the territory and the people, nor even the customs and traditions; his forefathers and descendants must also be taken into account. The loyalty of the people to the Emperor is almost inconceivable to the Western mind; but when we remember that neither the present Emperor nor any of his ancestors came to the throne by ruse or violence, that they have always been the gladly accepted of the people, we can begin to understand.

Suppose Abraham had founded an empire in Palestine, that his heirs in an unbroken line ruled over the twelve tribes, themselves descendants of Abraham, and that the empire continued powerful to this day,—suppose this, and you have an idea somewhat similar to that of the empire of Japan.



ENTHUSIASM IN TOKIO OVER THE DEPARTURE OF TROOPS FOR THE FRONT.

The Japanese soldier believes that the ancient heroes of his race are watching him and guiding him. He feels that with him are united the past, the present, and the future generations of his countrymen. Duty is paramount with him, and to die in accordance with duty is the highest honor.

"SIMPLE, CALM ENTHUSIASM."

The remarkable calmness and childlike enthusiasm of the Japanese soldier,—these together have been the wonder of observers. This Japanese writer says:

Every mail from the front brings some poems composed by them to their relations and friends at home. Admiral Togo gave commission to a merchant to send him some dwarfed trees in pots, to beguile his officers and men from the monotony of the sea. The men of another vessel drank *Banzai!* at seeing a branch of cherry flowers brought to them by the captain of a transport. A reconnoitering party which landed at a point in Manchuria brought back, in addition to an accurate report, a bouquet of violets. Here is a soldier on the bank of the Yalu who picks some azalea flowers and sends them in a letter to his parents at home. He says he wants to share with them the pleasure of seeing the first flowers in Manchuria. Another soldier writes home, asking his brother to send him some books of poetry. Such are the men. Yet under this smooth surface there lies a terrible determination—a determination to win or die. To a friend's letter wishing for his safe return, "I will cling to the word of my mother," answered a soldier, "and will either return in triumph or receive your offerings and hers at the *shokonsha*." When the victorious march upon Chiu-lien-Cheng was about to be made, the soldiers, without any previous talk, changed their shirts and dusted their clothes, even to a man. What for? In order not to leave behind them unseemly corpses after they have left this world. This reminds us of the ancient Japanese warriors who used to perfume their helmets when they went to a battle, in order not to give the enemy uncomely heads, if they fell in the battle, and thereby to show them that they had been fully prepared for death.

As a consequence of this intense patriotism, "the country of tea ceremonies, flower arrangements, dancing, and fine arts transforms itself, at the sound of the bugle, into one vast camp, where every person, male or female, is ready to sacrifice everything, even life itself, for the furtherance of the common cause."

Viewed in this light, says this Japanese writer, the achievements already accomplished, and those yet to be accomplished by Japan in the present war, become all natural to such a people. They appear wonderful only to those who have not understood her. "And of all nations, the one that ought to have understood, and yet has grossly misunderstood her, is her present antagonist; and it is this misunderstanding on the part of her enemy that has given the general public an opportunity of discerning Japan's real military worth.

THE STORY OF THE BATTLE OF NANSHAN.

A SPIRITED account of the battle at Nanshan Hill, in May last, which gave the Japanese the control of the Liao-tung Peninsula and practically sealed the fate of Port Arthur, is contributed to *Leslie's Monthly Magazine* for November by an anonymous writer whose name is withheld because "it is against the custom of Japanese officers to recount their own exploits or those of their armies." The editors of *Leslie's*, however, declare that the story is genuine,—that it was written by a Japanese officer who took part in the battle. The action began at half-past five in the morning, this officer tells us, with a bombardment from the heights, which were strongly fortified, apparently impregnable.

The sight of the Nanshan, towering above the neck of land like a lofty point of a necklace, was superb, both as an object of art and as a fortress. Standing there in the early light, bristling with all the ornaments in the shape of semi-permanent forts with which the Russian engineers crowned her, the very sight of it conquered your imagination; you would have said to yourself that it was impossible for mortal power to storm it. And the tactician will tell you that the best way to win a victory is to begin a battle by winning a bloodless victory over the imagination of the enemy. There was something which was infinitely more wonderful than the infantry charge up the slope on the historic 26th,—it was the daring of General Oku's brain which conceived the possibility of taking this stronghold at all.



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THE TELL-TALE SHELL: AN EVIDENCE OF HURRIED RETREAT.

(Mr. J. H. Hare, the correspondent, showing the United States Military attaché the breech-lock of a Russian gun in which the shell still remained, indicating the hurried flight of the artillerymen.)

It is utterly beyond the power of human words to adequately describe a real artillery duel, says this Japanese officer. "Some poets have described the shells and shots that searched us on that day as a shower of lead. The expression only serves to bring a smile to the men who went through it. It only serves to emphasize the limitation of the human tongue; that is all." At five in the evening, after fighting all day, the Japanese infantry received the command: "Dash along the highway, carry the hostile positions, destroy or capture the machine guns of the enemy who are commanding the road. At the same time, flank the enemy's right and enfilade his trenches." The strength of the Russian positions was such that "if ever man ran in the face of Providence, his course lay along the highway which led from Kinchau to the foot of Nanshan." Nevertheless, as there was no other way to reach the hostile positions, the Japanese took this.

The trenches of the Russians which were shelving the hill-slope were well manned. But they were out of our view. A few steps forward that we took toward the hill called forth from these trenches such storm of shots as would have staggered the imagination of the Olympian gods. To the men who marched along the highway, the very idea of life or death became rather ridiculous to think of.

THE JAPANESE CHARGE UP NANSHAN HILL.

The officer's account of what followed the order is like this:

All of a sudden, the buglers of the third company broke the silence with the command to dash forward. It was the enemy who was surprised,—surprised, doubtless, at the unheard-of daring and recklessness of our men. Company number four leaped over the wounded and the dead left by company number three, which led the charge. Heading the men of company four came company number two. Pretty soon the road was choked with corpses; those of us whose wounds were not serious enough to stop us had to leap or climb over the dead bodies of our comrades. I rushed by a fellow who was down; his left leg was shot away. He was bleeding copiously. Through the din of rifle fire and machine guns, which gave us a mantle of smoke and dust, I shouted to him, "To the rear, to the field hospital, and be quick about it." The fellow looked at me, and upon his face was a marked sign of surprise. His lips quivered in a half-smile. The expression of his face was at once an interrogation-point and a mild rebuke.

Then he began to wiggle himself forward through the bodies of his fallen comrades. I repeated my order, which, seeing that he could not walk very well with one leg, was a rather foolish one,—I was somewhat exasperated at the evident indifference on his part to the order of his superior officer. He raised his face in my direction with the same old half-smile, and said to me: "Lieutenant, I have lost one of my legs, but don't you see I have two hands? They ought to be enough to strike at the Russian."

HOW THE HILL WAS WON.

The command of this particular officer was engaged in digging, with their swords, a trench to protect their wounded superior officer, when, "all of a sudden, we saw from where we were, in the fading light of the falling day on a curve of the Nanshan crest, facing the Kinchau Bay, a sight which made our blood bound in our veins, —it was the battle-flag of Nippon flapping away over where the Russian trenches were." This was the signal to storm the heights. The Japanese lines had been practically decimated, and it seemed as though the groaning of the wounded were the only sounds heard. But the effect of the standard was electrical. The men seemed to take on new life.

Instantly, as we saw our flag planted on the crest of the Nanshan, the shout of the "Banzai" rolled over the field. The wounded and the dying took up the cry. Those who were fortunate enough to enjoy the distinction of reaching the hilltop of the Nanshan on that day rushed through a rather weird scene, for the shouts of the "Banzai" coming from the dying men over whom we had to pick our way sounded like the voices from the world of the dead bidding us to carry the standard of our country to victory. As I reached the crest of the hill, I came upon a fellow who was already there ahead of us, and he was waving a flag which was about two feet square. It was all bloody. He was standing over the prostrate body of a Russian who was not yet dead. "This flag, sir," he explained humbly to me, "was given me by villagers of mine. I promised them I would plant it in the enemy's trenches some time. You see, sir, it is bloody. This Russian," pointing to the stalwart fellow at his feet, "was the last fellow who resisted me. I killed him with my sword, or, at least, I have pretty nearly finished him. I have wiped my sword on this flag. I am going to take this flag back, if I am allowed, to the men of my village, as a memento of the first fight I have been in."

When we gained the crest of the Nanshan, says the narrator, the enemy was in full retreat in front of us. It was nearly 7:30 P.M. The battle was over. The night had rung down the curtain over the blood and carnage of Nanshan.

THE END OF THE WAR CORRESPONDENT.

IF there is one personage whose star has paled in the course of the year 1904, says Pierre Giffard, himself a war correspondent, writing in *La Revue*, it is certainly the traveling journalist, the military reporter, or the war correspondent, as we are pleased to call him. Preceding wars had placed him on a pinnacle. We only need to call to mind the Russo-Turkish war of 1877, in which whole legions of journalists played a sort of international part in dispatching to the four corners of the earth the latest news relating to the war in both camps. But a quarter of a century has passed since the campaign in the Balkans, and, meanwhile, belligerents have gradually learned that a correspondent, "no matter how well disposed he may be to render service to his commander-in-chief in presenting victories as triumphs and reverses as part victories, can nevertheless be nothing but a spy."

"Had I been Kuropatkin," adds the writer, "I should not have allowed a single journalist to set foot within a 'circle of silence' which I should have drawn around my armies, and on that question I should have shown the utmost severity. This is what the Japanese did, and they did wisely. The Russians adopted half-measures, and they made a mistake. The Russians were free to do as the Japanese did, and they could have acted in the same way, only they did not dare. And not having dared, they opened the door partially, then shut it again, then they reopened it half-way, instead of remaining quite inflexible, like the Japanese. They allowed journalists to enter Manchuria, but did not enable them to exercise their calling when they got there."

Those journalists who chose to join the Japanese hoped to be able to learn everything about the war, but during the last six months they have not been able to send a single message of importance. To add to their difficulties, the seat of war changed from one part to another. Some of the correspondents then went to Korea, others remained at Tokio; in either case, their *rôle* was ridiculous. The writer tells the story of the *Times* chartering the *Haïmun* for its correspondent, who was to sail between the belligerent fleets in order to startle the world with the most precise details of the last battle. It seemed as if the greatest thing in war correspondence was about to begin. But, alas! the Japanese were as cautious about war news as if the boat had

been a Russian packet; and the correspondent not only learned nothing new, but ran serious risk of being blown up, with his copy, before Port Arthur.

TROUBLES ON THE RUSSIAN SIDE.

The writer then gives some of his experiences with the Russians. Every day that he passed among them resembled, he says, a station of the cross. Nothing, nothing, nothing to tell. These were the words the waiting journalists had to hear every day from the general. At St. Petersburg, the journalists had permits to enter Manchuria, and, if possible, to go to the front. But Admiral Alexieff did not know what pretext to invent to get them sent back. For six weeks the writer remained alone in Manchuria after other correspondents were sent away. He was supposed to be writing nothing about the war, but simply sending telegrams approved by Admiral Alexieff. At last, he learned that his messages would not be sent unless approved by General Volkoff; General Volkoff referred him to General Gilinsky, and General Gilinsky sent him to Lieutenant-Colonel Potapoff. Then no message was to be sent which was not approved by General Volkoff only; at last, no more messages were to be sent at all. In despair, the writer took the train for Mukden, in the hope of being able to explain his case to the all-powerful viceroy. This sounds nothing, but the journey to Mukden and back took six days and seven nights to accomplish. The delays of the train were interminable, and the silence absolute. Not even the name of a single station was ever called out. At length he saw Admiral Alexieff, the admiral referred him to M. de Plançon, and M. de Plançon told him that later, perhaps, certain dispatches might be possible, but that at present the admiral had decided to stop all press communications from Manchuria. The same day, in the midst of a blinding snow-storm, the journalist took the train back to Harbin.

This was only the beginning of persecution. Deprived of the authority to send telegrams, even after censure; deprived of newspapers, for the post did not deliver a single one; deprived of letters,—for a fortnight the post had practically suspended operations; deprived of all news, for the local journals could only publish official news, a few correspondents still remained there in an ignorance which was unbearable. In the heart of Manchuria it was, at that time, absolutely impossible to learn anything about Manchuria. Nothing but our absence was required. Why, then, not have said so at the beginning! By April, other correspondents had arrived,—photographers, cinematographers, etc.,—and this was too much for the Russian authorities. Persecution increased, and it became impossible to send by post any letters or pictures whatsoever.



Mr Charles Hands. London *Daily Mail.* Col. Gaedke. Berlin *Tageblatt.* Baron Bender von Kriegelstein. Berlin *Kreutz Zeitung.* A Russian correspondent. M. Degas. Paris *Monde Illustre.*

NEWSPAPER CORRESPONDENTS WITH GENERAL KUROPATKIN.

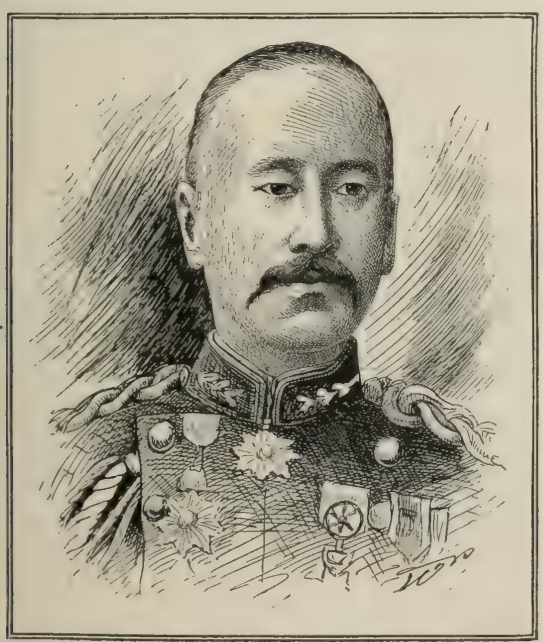
With the rapid systems of communication of the present day, the presence of special correspondents, this writer concludes, is intolerable to any general. And the journalist would do better to write about accomplished facts, to complete official telegrams, paraphrasing and explaining them, and the public would probably be better served. Thus, the war correspondent's self-imposed mission will disappear, and many a one will be spared an inglorious death at the front, however bravely faced.

M. Giffard deprecates what he calls the "insane competition" among journalists to secure the most voluminous, sensational reports. He says these serve neither the public nor the journals. Correspondents should, also, be careful not to violate the confidence reposed in them by the commanders. At this point he recalls the fact that it was the indiscreet dispatch of a correspondent to London, in 1870, which gave to the Germans their first information of MacMahon's movements, which resulted in the disaster of Sedan.

THE KOREAN-JAPANESE TREATY AND JAPAN'S DUTY.

IT will be remembered that late in August the terms of the treaty between Korea and Japan were made public. This treaty, which was signed August 22, provided,—(1) that the Korean Government should engage a Japanese as financial adviser; (2) that it should appoint a foreigner other than a Japanese as diplomatic adviser; (3) that it should confer with the Japanese Government before taking any important step in foreign affairs. The terms of this treaty have been rather severely criticised by many of the leading Japanese journals. The *Jiji Shimpo*, of Tokio, perhaps the best-known and most influential daily of the empire, expresses deep dissatisfaction. It contends that the participation in the Korean Government of a foreigner who is not a Japanese subject as diplomatic adviser will prove a serious obstacle to the exercise of Japanese influence in the Hermit Kingdom. It says:

What is the reason for recommending a foreigner instead of a Japanese for such an important position as diplomatic adviser? If because a fitter person has been found among foreigners than among our own countrymen, we raise no objection. The question of nationality is of little significance, if the person selected be a man of ability and character, honestly striving to promote our interests. What we oppose is the inadvisability of restricting, in the expressed terms of the treaty, the nationality of eligible persons to those foreigners who are not Japanese. We do not doubt that our government has recommended to the Seoul government a foreigner who is on friendly terms with us. But the new treaty is not of a temporary nature, and its terms were not made for mere temporary expediency. It is not probable that we can always secure a foreigner who will be favorable to our purposes and intentions. If we cannot find a suitable foreigner, in the event of the resignation of the person now being recommended by our authorities, we shall probably have to meet the problem of altering the provisions of the present treaty.



GENERAL HASEGAWA.

(Formerly in command of the Japanese Imperial Guard; recently appointed Japanese commander-in-chief in Korea, with practically dictatorial powers.)



HIS MAJESTY, THE EMPEROR OF KOREA.

The internal reforms in Korea are, of course, of vital importance; but the *Jiji* believes that the readjustment of diplomatic relations are more important, and that this should be brought about promptly, because the anomalous condition of Korean diplomacy has always been a stumbling-block in the way of Japanese interests in the peninsula. "The government ought to have taken such a decisive measure in this direction as to make the powers clearly understand our determination to control the foreign as well as the internal affairs of the Korean Kingdom. Our authorities have evidently meant to foster amicable relations with foreign countries by reserving for a foreigner an important and digni-

fied position in the Korean Government." Such an "over-consciousness," however, the *Jiji* considers "tantamount to timidity and diffidence." The Osaka *Asahi* and the Tokio *Yorodzu* also criticise the new treaty, but even more harshly. The *Kokumin Shimbun*, one of the recognized semi-official organs of the present cabinet, on the other hand, cordially approves the entire treaty.

Japan's Duty in Korea: A Socialist View.

A suggestion as to the proper policy for the Japanese Government to pursue in Korea is made by the *Heimin Shimbun*, the weekly Socialist organ of Tokio. Japanese speculators and politicians, this journal avers, "are greedily hunting now for hidden treasures in Korea, and even our government seems to give them recognition." The *Heimin* declares that Japan's duty is to ask herself, not "What can we get from Korea?" but "How can we make the Koreans utilize their natural resources?" To begin with, it insists that the Koreans must be thoroughly educated by modern methods. This Socialist organ points to the policy of the United States in Cuba and Porto Rico as furnishing lessons for Japan in Korea.

What the people of the United States are doing for the people of Cuba and Porto Rico at this moment gives us an invaluable lesson. It was about two years ago that several hundreds of Cuban teachers attended the summer school at Harvard University, specially opened for them. Their transportation was paid by the United States Government, while their expenses at Harvard were paid by contributions from the professors there. This is not only the pressing duty, but also the best policy for an advanced nation when it concerns itself with the culture of a younger or subordinate people. It is true our country cannot be compared with the United States in point of wealth, but we believe our government might well disburse one or two hundred thousand yen per annum for the purpose of educating Korean youth in our schools and colleges. Moreover, our government must exert some influence to establish a thoroughly equipped normal school at Seoul in order to build up intelligent Koreans into good capable teachers. As compulsory education is a necessity of modern civilization, we must urge the Korean Government to open common schools throughout the country and to compel all children to attend them. In this way Koreans may be brought up to a state of true independence, though it will require twenty or thirty years of patient labor. When Formosa became a part of our dominions after the Japan-Chinese War, vampire-like politicians and speculators hastened to the island to find victims. It is doubtless true that they aroused the antipathy of the natives, and consequently retarded the work of administration in a great degree. Most of the Koreans may be as ignorant as the natives of Formosa, but they can feel instinctively any kindness or insult shown to them. We should consider it a glory greater than that to be gained in victorious war if our people do not repeat in Korea the mistake made in Formosa.

THE DUTY OF JAPANESE BUSINESS MEN.

WHILE Japanese soldiers and sailors are carrying the flag of their country to victory, the Japanese business men, in the opinion of Mr. Y. Terata, who writes in the *Taiyo* (Tokio), have not been quite so progressive and patriotic. Mr. Terata is a shipbuilder himself, and he devotes the greater part of his article to a plea for the development of the shipbuilding industry in Japan. With regard to the navy and the building of ships, he contends, Japan should never rest until she occupies "the very same place in the far East that is held by England in Europe." At present, he declares, Japanese shipbuilders are supplied with most of their raw material by foreigners. He cites particularly the purchase of armor plate and other structural work from the United States, and says, that while this buying from foreigners must continue for some time to come, it should be superseded at as early a date as possible. He points out that most of the great qualities of life have been developed in the Japanese warrior by the old Samurai training. He makes a comparison of the Japanese fighters and business men, and says:

Now that our brave warriors are purchasing our national honor abroad with their life-blood against the powerful enemy both on sea and land, how is it possible for us, the business men of Japan, who are bound none the less to contribute something to our national honor, to remain silent with folded hands? The question justifies itself when we consider that the present war on the continent is very likely to affect to a serious extent the economic interests of the whole empire of Japan; still more forcibly does it assert itself when we consider that the pecuniary power of a belligerent constitutes above all others an especially important element in the achievement of her ultimate success. To Japan's superiority to her enemy in knowledge, in will force, and in physical strength is to be attributed mainly the cause of the brilliant victories that she has gained and is gaining in rapid succession, it is true; but suppose her to fall short of the money necessary for the continuation of the war, and what would happen then? Let me leave the question unanswered, for it is so easy, but take a step further, and affirm that in future the business class of a country should be kept at least equal, if not superior, to the warrior class in the eyes of the government, so far as their respectful treatment is concerned.

The business class ought not to be proud or selfish on this account, he concludes.

THE RICHEST FISHING-GROUNDS IN THE WORLD.

AN article from the pen of the explorer Berger Jacobsen appears in the illustrated magazine of Christiania, *Kringsjaa*, giving an account of the fishing in the northern Pacific waters between America and Asia. The writer maintains that the interests of Norway in the whaling and fishing of these parts of the Pacific become greater, from year to year, as the knowledge of the immense riches in these waters of fish increases.

The first scientific examinations of these fishing-grounds, the writer says, were made by the Japanese, and later by the Americans and the Russians. The sea fauna of the Okhotsk Sea, north of the Yellow Sea, is significant for the reason that in no other place is the polar fauna found so far south. The currents and the drift ice bring down the animal life of the polar sea in great quantities. The Okhotsk-Kamchatka coast line extends for about seven thousand miles, and, though the Okhotsk Sea, between the continent of Asia on the west and the peninsula of Kamchatka on the east, is situated in the temperate zone, between the forty-fourth and sixty-second parallels, it shows the real type of the polar sea to be about the same as the Hudson Bay. At times the ice shuts it off completely from the great ocean outside, and yet it is marked by an extraordinarily rich sea flora and fauna. The great mass of all kinds of sea plants, mollusks, and fishes, especially immense numbers of salmon, have from ancient times made it a favorite resort of the great animals that come down from the northern waters. To these latter belong six kinds of seals, two species of dolphins, and three of whales.

A GLANCE AT THE HISTORY OF THE FISHERIES.

Russia, Mr. Jacobsen declares, has always neglected the control of the fishing in its eastern boundary districts. From ancient time, there have been American smugglers, who, by the sale of tobacco and liquors, exercised a demoralizing influence upon the native Tsjuktsk and Teleutisk tribes. Yet it was not till 1847 that Americans inaugurated a systematic hunt of the whale, and every year scores of whaling vessels sailed from New Bedford. These expeditions, during the period of fourteen years, 1847–61, brought in whale oil and whalebone aggregating in value $130,000,000.

When the Americans first came to the Okhotsk Sea, a Russian-Finnish whaling company was founded in Finland, which earned a very large profit for a few years, but which later had to cease fishing on account of the war between France and England. In the meantime, the Americans also withdrew, but started again in 1888, both in the Bering and the Okhotsk seas. According to official statistics, the yearly American catch on the coast of Siberia and in the Pacific resulted in not less than 200,000 pounds of whalebone, 3,000,000 pounds of whale oil, and 100,000 pounds of tusks, besides other products aggregating an annual value of $1,500,000, which thus entirely escaped the control of the Russian Government.



WILL UNCLE SAM RUN AMUCK?

UNCLE SAM: "If I want to, I can smash all the windows in this place." –(From a cartoon by the famous Russian cartoonist, Sokolowski, in the *Novoye Vremya*, St. Petersburg.)

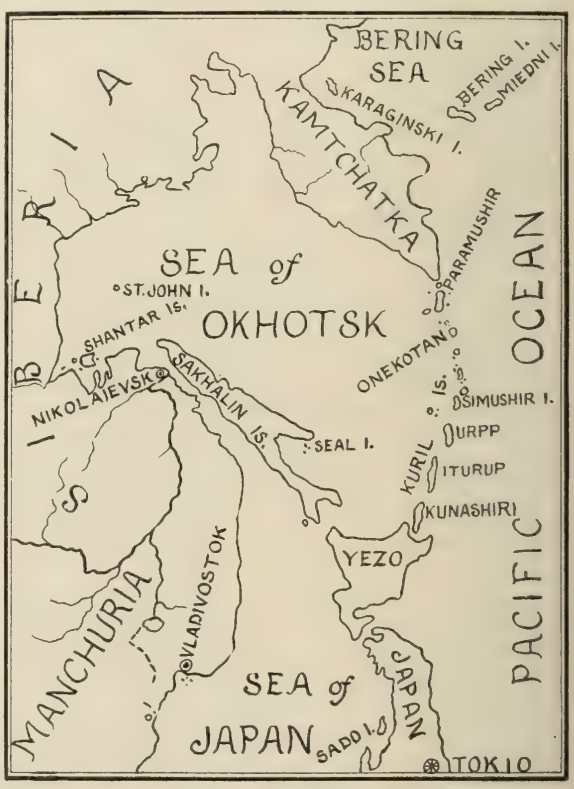
The Japanese have worked the fishing-grounds well, particularly on the banks off Sakhalin and the Kurilians, where immense masses of salmon and herring appear periodically. The herring is used for manure, while the salmon is salted for export. As an illustration of what these fishings could bring in it may be mentioned that the Japanese, in 1896, brought to their country not less that 9,000,000 pounds of this costly manure. Dr. N. Sljunin, who has examined the fisheries in these waters, tells how, during a land-storm, it is no uncommon thing to see heaps of dead fish five or six feet deep thrown up on

the beach, ridiculing the nation which does not take advantage of these valuable gifts of nature. He maintains also that the "time is not far distant when these vacant coast lines will witness a rich life, and that as a fishing station Sakhalin will be more prominent than Newfoundland or Heligoland." The same writer draws a line from Olga Bay to the southern coast of Korea as designating the main fishing-ground.

It was only as late as 1894 that the Russians succeeded in beginning the fishing business and in building permanent fishing stations. Count Rejserling obtained financial support from the government, procured whalers, both steam and sailing vessels, from Norway, and established a modern oil-rendering factory in the Vostok Bay. Foreign companies followed, and the foundation was laid for taking advantage of the great riches in these waters.

THE RICHES OF BERING SEA.

Bering Sea, between the fifty-second and sixty-second parallels, is separated from the Pacific by a line of islands known as the Aleutians. It presents the type of an oceanic sea open upon two sides and possessing a purer sea climate than the Okhotsk Sea. Bering Sea, as well as the Okhotsk Sea, is the favorite home of the seal, which is the object of a very extensive pursuit. A Russian-American company possessed the exclusive privilege of catching between the years 1797 and 1868. During this period, the company secured two million five hundred thousand seal-skins. In the year 1871, the privilege passed to the Alaska Company, Hutchinson, Roal, Phillipeces & Co., for twenty years. Their profit was in this time seven hundred and sixty thousand skins. Finally, in 1891, the chase of the seal passed again to Russian hands for ten years, and, in 1893, there was enacted a law which regulated the time and the place of the hunt. Violation of this law is punished by one and one-half to two years' imprisonment and the confiscation of the vessel engaged. The yearly profit has in later years amounted to thirty thousand skins. Herring and trout at certain times appear in enormous numbers on the coast of Bering Sea, and in 1899 a factory was established in the city of Petropavlovsk for the canning of fish.



EASTERN PACIFIC WATERS,—THE RICHEST FISHING-GROUNDS IN THE WORLD.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF RUSSIA'S MERCHANT MARINE.

A STUDY of Russia's merchant marine, by J. Charles-Roux, appears in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. The breaking out of the war with Japan, says this French writer, was coincident with the entrance of the Russian merchant marine into a period of organization. For years, quite neglected by the government, when hostilities began it had become an object of active solicitude. He considers the composition and importance of this service, and outlines the difficulties it has to contend with, as well as the help extended by the imperial government. There are three companies which, from the amount of their tonnage, the nature of their enterprise, and the political interest which attaches to their mission, are most important. These are the Commercial Steamship Navigation Company, the Volunteer Fleet, and the Eastern Chinese Maritime Service. The foundation of each one of these corresponds, we are told, to a stage in the development of the Russian marine, and its development is, in turn, bound up with the advance of Russian politics for half a century. He proceeds to consider them in the order named.

THE COMMERCIAL STEAM NAVIGATION COMPANY.

This is the latest and by far the most important of Russian navigation enterprises. It was founded in 1857, at the initiative of Admiral Arcas and Mr. Novoselsky, with the assistance of the government. It began with five vessels, and at once organized a regular service between all the Russian ports and the Black Sea and the nearest foreign ports, thus putting Russia in direct communication with Egypt and the Levant. M. Charles Roux admits that in the establishment of this company there was a political *arrière-pensée*. He sees in its creation an evidence of Russia's desire to overcome the handicap imposed upon her by the treaty of Paris, which imposed such humiliating conditions on her shipping in the Black Sea. During the war with Turkey, in 1887, he points out, the vessels of this company were of great service as transports, and after the treaty of Berlin they brought back the entire Russian expeditionary corps of 138,000 troops and 22,000 horses. Today the fleet consists of 77 vessels, of which 36 are postal packet-boats, 8 passenger and freight boats, and the rest smaller special vessels, making a total tonnage of 188,450. The company has two lines,—one of which supports itself, the other is subsidized by the government. Its vessels ply between Constantinople, Alexandria, Port Saïd, and the ports of Syria, Smyrna, the Pyræus, Anatolia, Caucasus, and the Crimea. Besides this, it has a service in the Sea of Azof, the Black Sea, and the Gulf of Syria. Outside of the Mediterranean, it runs a line from St. Petersburg to Vladivostok, touching at all the principal ports of the far East. It never fails, says this French writer, to coöperate on every possible occasion with the political designs of the imperial government. The writer intimates that a service from the eastern Mediterranean to the Persian Gulf is being planned by the imperial government to further its political designs on Persia.

THE FAMOUS VOLUNTEER FLEET.

The Volunteer Fleet owes its origin almost exclusively to political causes. It came into being as a direct result of the treaty of San Stefano, in 1878. The patriotic outburst in Russia against England and Austria, particularly the former, after the treaty of Berlin, in 1878, led to the formation of this fleet, which could be used as merchant ships during times of peace, and be readily transformed into auxiliary cruisers in war time. The expense of the fleet's creation was borne by public subscription, authorized by the government. Its political character may be noted from



THE CZAR CLIMBS DOWN.

NICHOLAS: "All right, John, I apologize, and restore your flag. I reckon it's better to have the English flag flying over this ship than over most of mine."

From *Punch* (Melbourne).

the fact that the president of the managing committee was the governor-general of Moscow ; the vice-president, the procurator of the Holy Synod, Pobiedonostseff. In May, 1878, three small vessels of the Hamburg-American Line were purchased, and this formed the nucleus of the Russian Black Sea Volunteer Fleet, which has already had its share of attention in the Russo-Japanese war. It was this Volunteer Fleet with which Russia endeavored to combat the Japanese merchant marine in the far East. As early as 1880, a passenger service was begun between Odessa and Vladivostok. The enterprise saw hard times in the early eighties of the past century, and the old company was dissolved. A new society, with a capital of $1,000,000, began business by establishing lines of call from Brazil to New York, to Japan, to France, to Belgium, and to Baltic ports. In conjunction with the Trans-Siberian Railroad, these vessels were beginning to make headway against all competition, with the possible exception of Japan, when the war broke out. The imperial government insisted upon a

maximum speed of eighteen knots for war purposes and thirteen knots in the commercial service. At the beginning of the present year the fleet numbered fifteen vessels, representing a value of somewhat over seven million dollars. It was the vessels of this fleet which transported Russia's contingent of troops during the Chinese trouble, four years ago. The *Smolensk* and the *Petersburg* are now the most famous of this fleet.

THE EASTERN CHINESE MARITIME SERVICE.

The establishment of Russian interests at Port Arthur and Dalny made necessary the formation of a marine fleet for Pacific waters exclusively. The progress of Russian colonization in Siberia, reaching to the shores of the Japan Sea, determined the imperial government to establish direct maritime communication with its Asiatic possessions, and so, as a child of the Volunteer Fleet, the Eastern Chinese Maritime Service was born. It was really an afterthought of the Eastern Chinese Railway, and a complement to the same. The growth of Dalny, the "fiat" city, and Russia's determination to make it one of the great seaports of the future, rendered such a line necessary. This service was just entering into its period of exploitation when the present war broke out.

The other marine enterprises which are subsidized by the government are the Steam Navigation Society of Archangel-Mourmaine, the Caucasus and Mercury Company, navigating the Caspian Sea, and two river companies—the Society for the Navigation of the Amur and the Feodorof Steam Company of Eastern Siberia. There is also a company for the navigation of Lake Baikal. As yet there are no subsidized lines in the Baltic.

RUSSIAN AUTOCRACY AND THE PSYCHOLOGY OF THE SLAV.

IT is assumed by the non-Russian world that the Muscovite autocratic system is now facing the most serious trial in its history. An interpretation of this autocracy, by a Russian writer, on the basis of the most famous advocates of the system, appears in the *International Quarterly*, from the pen of Prof. Vladimir G. Simkowvitch, of Columbia University. The autocratic system in Russia, says this writer, is breaking down.



THEIR MAJESTIES OF RUSSIA.

(The Czar and Czarina, as Byzantine autocrats, in the costumes of Seventeenth Century, Russia.)

The day when it will be abandoned ought to be a day of praise and thanksgiving, not only for the people, but also for the Czar; for Russian autocracy has not only brought the country to the verge of ruin and starvation, but it has also ruled Czar Nicholas II. with a rod of iron, and out of a man of noble motives and high ideals it has made a pathetic figurehead, suffering under the weight of the inherent system.

Professor Simkowvitch quotes several Russian writers to the effect that it is bureaucracy which is the ruin of Russia. With this he disagrees. The curse of the empire, he declares, "is not bureaucracy as such,—it is the specific spirit of the Russian bureaucracy. It is the point of view, the doctrinaire, sinister Byzantinism, the system of Alexander II., of Pobiedonostseff, of Katkoff, of Leontyeff, and others, that has gradually led Russia to moral and material degeneration."

ESSENCE OF RUSSIAN BUREAUCRACY.

What is this system? This writer declares that the best representative and interpreter of the spirit of Russian Byzantine bureaucracy is Nikolay Constantinovitch Leontyeff, who, in his famous work "The East, Russia, and the Slavs," has developed the principles of this philosophy.

Professor Simkowvitch summarizes this famous work of Leontyeff, and we further condense his summary :

Byzantinism is the basic principle. Byzantinism is the nervous system of Russia. It stands for something very definite,—politically, it is autocracy ; religiously, it is Christianity with very distinct features, which allow no confusion with Western churches and with the teachings of heretics and dissenters. In matters of morals, it does not share the Western exaggerated notions of the value and importance of human personality. The Byzantine ideal is discouragement in regard to everything earthly, including personal happiness, personal purity, and the possibility of personal moral perfection in general. Russian autocracy, Russian Czarism, developed under Byzantine influences. Byzantine Christianity teaches strict subordination ; it teaches that the worldly, the political, hierarchy is but the reflection of the heavenly hierarchy. There is no equality, because the Church teaches that even angels are not equal among themselves. Christianity is the surest and most practical means of ruling the masses of the people with an iron hand. Fear is the basis of the true faith. One who fears is humble, and seeks authority, and learns to love the authority above him. Organization is chronic despotism, and true constructive progress lies in limiting, not authority, but freedom. Freedom and liberalism are what is disintegrating the world.

As to the autocrat himself, the famous Russian writer puts it in this way :

By his authority, the Russian Czar has the right to do everything except to limit his authority. He can never cease to be an autocrat. Anything that the Czar does is good and legal. His doings cannot be judged by the merits of the case ; the pleasure of the supreme authority is the supreme criterion. He who cannot reason so may, under certain circumstances, in his private affairs be an honest man, but he cannot be a true Russian.

Russia, says Leontyeff, is surrounded by "the liberal pest." Russia "must be kept frozen that she may not grow putrid." The courts of justice are all wrong, because they have undermined all authority. The great cardinal problem for Russian interior administration, as well as for Russian policy, is how to weaken democracy. Russia, however, may become contaminated.

In the bottoms of their hearts, the Russians are already liberal. They do not realize that it is simply a *sin* to love Europe. If Russia becomes saturated with liberalism, there is only one salvation left,—the conquest of new and original countries ; the conquest and occupation of new territories, with a foreign and dissimilar population ; the annexation of countries that carry in themselves conditions favorable for autocratic discipline ; an annexation that does not hurry with any deep or inner assimilation.

This is the Russian autocratic system outlined by its ardent advocate, and firmly adhered to by Czar Alexander III. The present Czar, says Professor Simkowvitch, would have cast aside this system and reigned as an enlightened ruler, but he has been too weak to stand successfully against the bureaucratic influences which surround him. Now he is in the grip of this all-powerful system. To-day, this writer continues, the Russian people are not clamoring for Manchuria, "but for their daily bread, and such safeguards of personal liberty as the Anglo-Saxons have secured in their Magna Charta."

"GRAFT" IN THE FAR EAST.

The whole far-Eastern venture, says this Russian writer, has been brought about by "graft." This, he declares, is the latest crime of the autocratic system.

For what is Russian blood now sacrificed and billions of rubles wrung from the starving Russian people wasted on the fields of Manchuria? Do the Russian people need Manchuria? Not in the least. Even such expansionist and nationalistic papers as Suvorin's *Novoye Vremya* and Prince Ukhtomsky's *St. Petersburgskaiya Viedomosti* were bitterly opposed to it. But who cares for national interests when personal are at stake ! In Korea, a company formed by a couple or more of grand dukes and some higher bureaucrats has obtained valuable lumber and mining concessions,—a sufficient cause for declaring northern Korea under the Russian sphere of influence. As to the Manchurian adventure, everybody in Russia knew perfectly well and talked freely about this new promised land for official thieves. It is estimated that about three-quarters of the hundreds of millions appropriated for the railroads, the new commercial cities, the ports, etc., were stolen, and the money went high enough up to interest a powerful element of the autocratic administration in perpetuation of this new Eldorado. Already in the beginning of 1902, Professor Migulin, of the University of Kharkoff, a very conservative man and an expert in railroad finance, called attention to what was going on in Manchuria. The railroad afforded no technical difficulties whatsoever, the Chinese coolie labor used on the railroad was the cheapest in the world, the material used was imported duty-free, and yet the laying of rails alone (not counting equipment, cost of stations, platforms, etc.) cost the government more than 152,000 rubles per verst,—*i.e.*, about 230,000 rubles a mile ! Professor Migulin then also pointed out that Manchuria, on account of its extremely cheap coolie labor, is a place entirely unfit for Russian colonization, and likely to kill agriculture and colonization in the Russian Amur region, since Russians cannot compete with Chinese wages and the low prices of the agricultural products. Prince Ukhtomsky, the president of the Russo-Chinese Bank and formerly an intimate friend of Nicholas II., in an interview granted to the correspondent of the *Frankfurter Zeitung*, did not hesitate to acknowledge that the cause of this war is "graft."

A Eulogy of Slav Peoples.

A study of the Slav peoples, by Rev. Peter Roberts, appears in the same number of this quarterly. Mr. Roberts has made a special study of the Slav immigrant in the anthracite-coal re-

gions of Pennsylvania, and he finds him to be, although stupid and slow, generally "good-natured and pacific, adaptable, and imperturbable, with an instinct for organization, and an apt pupil under competent masters, admirably fitted for the work of peaceful agricultural colonization, long-suffering and conciliatory, and capable of bearing extreme hardships. There are many signs of progress among the Slavs. They are less cruel, more moral, more tender-hearted; and, wherever they go, in Asia, the land benefits."

When Skobeleff sheathed his sword in Central Asia, peace, order, and safety were established, but previous to the advent of the Russian tumult, anarchy and terrorism prevailed. Under the wise guidance of patriotic statesmen, the accursed vodka shops—the breeders of drunkenness and poverty—are regulated, and the peasants are provided with tea-houses, where the social instinct of the Slav is met. In no European state are there more comprehensive laws relative to employers' liability than in Russia, while many of the states of the Union can well afford to learn of Slav statesmen how to regulate factories where children are sacrificed both day and night upon the altar of mammonism. The railroads of Manchuria and the Caucasus have broken down the barbarous custom of collecting transportation taxes which rendered commerce in the interior of Asia and China impossible. Under the Slavs' supervision, good roads are made and model towns are built where formerly barbarous communities dwelt in filth. Wherever the Slav builds, he guards against disease, squalor, and unsightliness, which are common occurrences where Mongols and Tartars dwell. The Slav peasant is slowly awakening to a realization of his independence, to a due appreciation of economic freedom, to an understanding of the rights of property, and to the market value of industry, temperance, and truthfulness. Slav statesmen proclaim the commercial value of honesty, the necessity of enterprise in manufacturing industries and commerce, the worth of new methods in production, and the markets which await the production of farms and factories. All the lessons which industrial liberty teaches, all the blessings which science and art bring, all the results which centuries of civilization realize, are brought to the feet of this youth in whose heart are stored the energies of centuries of stolid living. Give him time, and the pressure of new wants and new ideas will awaken his sleepy brain and set in motion his sluggish nerves and effect a metamorphosis which the combined wisdom of philosophers and theorists cannot effect. Lobenoff changed the face of Europe in an incredibly short time; the foreign statesmanship of Russia in far-sightedness is not surpassed by that of any other modern nation; the Slav has developed a diplomacy which equals in skill and resource that of any other people of ancient or modern times; and when the Slav peasant fully awakes to the demands of modern life, he will go forth with singing and "come again with joy, bringing his sheaves with him." Let another Peter the Great arise to lead these one hundred million Slavs, strong in their youthful vigor, confident that they have a mission to fulfill, and what obstacles can stand before their onward march?

HOW FORTUNES ARE MADE IN CHINA.

THE pan-Mongolianism of Japan is only a side issue,—a sensational one, it is true,—of the development of the Oriental races. This is the judgment of the well-known political and economic writer, Alexander Ular, who contributes to *La Revue* a study of how fortunes are made in China. This pan-Mongolianism, he says, further, has no relation whatsoever to that grave problem known as the "yellow peril."

The latter cannot possibly be political or military. The pan-Mongolianism of Japan is an importation from the Occident, just as are their silk hats, their Western boots, and their bacteriology. It exists just as their warships, their parliamentary government, and their newspapers exist. It is, so to speak, a European importation, superficially adapted to the use of a minority who have found it to their advantage to play the *rôle* of Europeans. Pan-Mongolianism is to Japan what pan-Slavism is to Moscow, pan-Germanism to Berlin, and jingoism to London; and if, at the present time, there is a struggle between the imperialists of Tokio and St. Petersburg, it is not a case of the white race warding off the "yellow peril," but of the ambition of one government measuring itself against the ambition of another.

The "yellow peril," this writer declares, is not a race peril. The students who have a right to speak on this subject declare that it is an economic peril. They have in mind the commercial and industrial competition of Japan. Indeed, "the 'yellow peril' is for the Occident exactly what the 'American peril' is for Europe." The color of the skin has nothing whatever to do with the case. The danger to Europe and America from China and Japan is essentially an economic one. The secret of the wealth of China, as well as of individual Chinamen, M. Ular asserts, is, in effect, comprised in two words—association and credit. Their system is characterized by the absence of three principles which are the basis of Occidental economic life,—the borrowing of capital, the wage system, and a fixed monetary standard do not exist in the forms they assume in Europe. The borrowing of capital is replaced by the association with and collaboration of lenders, the wage system by a participation of associates, and a fixed monetary standard by credit. Production, be it agricultural, industrial, or commercial, is made the basis of coöperative association, or, perhaps, of eco-



From a stereograph. Copyright by Underwood & Underwood.

A RICH NATIVE BAZAAR ON THE NANKING ROAD, THE PRINCIPAL CHINESE STREET OF SHANGHAI.

nomic aggregation. The capital, or, indeed, the means of production, is furnished by all the members. Every one works, and every one shares in the profits. Almost all the large Chinese concerns known to Europeans are coöperative establishments. The Chinese fortunes, with scarcely an exception, are simply a result of a development of credit based on the collective product of work.

One of the most famous of Chinese syndicates, or commercial associations, is the Golden Dragon. This association owns many rice plantations in the center of China; it has hundreds of junks on the great rivers and on the sea; it conducts banks in all the principal cities; it has a post office of its own; it fabricates silk and cotton of all kinds, and in the last few years has begun an immense export and import business.

AN AMERICAN SCIENTIST ON THE BRITISH ASSOCIATION MEETING.

THE close association between science and politics in England gives to the annual meetings of the British Association for the Advancement of Science a peculiar interest quite distinct from the interest shared by American scientists in the work of their own national association. The impressions of President Henry S. Pritchett, of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, who attended the meeting this year at Cambridge (August 17–23), are given in an article which he contributes to the October number of the *Popular Science Monthly*. The large attendance, which reached nearly three thousand, at the Cambridge meeting is attributed by President Pritchett to two reasons,—first, the attractions which naturally belong to the charming old university town; and, second, the presence of the prime minister of Great Britain as president of the association. This latter fact, the participation of the head of the government in a great national scientific meeting, impressed Dr. Pritchett as perhaps the most curious and interesting feature of the meeting. It was as if President Roosevelt should take a week to preside over the meetings of the American association, to deliver an address, and to take part in its discussions; or as if Speaker Cannon should preside over the section of economics and take a real part in the debates. President Pritchett reminds us, however, that Jefferson was truly a representative of the science of his time. During a part of his first term, he was president of the American Philosophical Society, setting apart some of the rooms in the executive mansion for the study of fossils, particularly those of mammoths.

PREMIER BALFOUR AS PRESIDENT

As to Mr. Balfour's address, which was entitled "Reflections Suggested by the New Theory of Matter," and which sketched a brief comparison between the scientific conception of the physical universe to-day and that of one hundred years ago, Dr. Pritchett thinks it remarkable that a man so full of other work, as Mr Balfour must be, should be able to frame such a statement without committing errors of fact of a serious sort. The address is pronounced by this American scientist as on the whole clever, interesting, and suggestive, from the philosophical standpoint. To have presented such a paper is re-

garded by Dr. Pritchett as an evidence of great intellectual alertness and ability on the part of a man whose hands are full of practical business.

AN INTERESTING COMPARISON.

In suggesting a comparison between the American and the British association based on the study of the sectional addresses and other leading papers of the one as contrasted with the other, Dr. Pritchett admits that the American will find little to minister to national vanity. In the British meeting, the addresses are prepared with more care, and are given in a more interesting manner. It is evident, nevertheless, that the essential difference in the character of the papers presented at the two meetings lies in the difference in scientific training and habits of scientific work in England and America; and it is Dr. Pritchett's observation that the scientific training and methods of work in America are far more German than English.

While the addresses in American scientific societies lack the philosophic interest and charm which characterize many of those given before the British association, the authors of these papers are trained to go more directly at their problems, laying bare the difficulties, and even the failures, of the method or the process, but passing on to some point of vantage. One finds in many English scientific papers a clever use of words and terms; a tendency to philosophize instead of doing the hard work of investigation; a disposition to deal charmingly, sometimes half humorously, with the results and observations costing great labor; and in the end the whole subject left in a sort of agreeable haze in which one seems to have traveled a long distance without going anywhither. The method of attack adopted is somewhat akin to that of the modern military practice, under which frontal attacks are abandoned in favor of a less direct method of assault. One sees in English scientific papers a greater tendency to attack by the flank than in America or Germany; a somewhat readier disposition to be satisfied with a general statement of facts already known rather than the concentration of effort on particular problems which need to be cleared up. All of which simply means that the methods of education and of national life in England have not brought into existence a large army of disciplined students of research such as one finds, for example, in Germany.

As an American studying the great gathering, Dr. Pritchett is impressed by its possibilities for usefulness in scientific and national development. He finds in such a gathering a source of great intellectual stimulus both to scientific men and to the public. There are reasons why the American association is not likely to become so representative a gathering. For one thing, the small distances to be traveled in Great Britain make it easy and cheap for any member to come to the meetings. Then, too, there are differences in scientific training which prompt the American investigator to prefer the society of his fellow-experts to any gathering of a general character. Dr. Pritchett thinks, however, that if there is anything which would bring back to the American association its old-time prestige and influence, it would be some such devotion to the cause which the association represents, as has been shown by many of the leading men of science in England. The example and influence of men like Lord Kelvin have done much to make the British association what it is.

HOME RULE FOR ICELAND.

THE brave little inhabitants of Denmark's island possession in the Arctic Ocean have at last gained the substance of complete home rule, the shadow of which they have possessed for some time. In the *Nordisk Revy*, of Stockholm, appears an article entitled "The Constitutional Struggle of Iceland," by Rolf Nordenstreng. Six hundred years ago, this writer recalls, when Iceland first became associated with Denmark-Norway, it expressly stipulated for internal freedom; yet, Mr. Nordenstreng declares, "the royal word was not kept, and since that time the clear treaty rights of the Icelanders have been trodden under foot. During this long period, the people of Iceland, though separated from the outside world, have preserved the consciousness of their right, withheld from them only by superior power, and, in spite of injustice and oppression, have at last won the victory." The Icelanders have for some time been divided into two parties,—the Progressive party (Framfaraflokkur) and the Home Rule party (Heimastjornaflokkur). The former party is said to have contended mainly for democratic govenment and an Icelandic ministry, with residence at Copenhagen, where they could present the cause of Iceland to the throne. The aim of the Home Rulers was to have a prime minister at home, with the governing power established in Iceland. A second minister, with the same power, they contended, might reside at Copenhagen and represent Iceland before the King. These parties were bitterly opposed to each other, the principal objection of the Progressive party to the plan of the Home Rulers being that the minister resident at Copenhagen would not

need to know the Icelandic language, nor would he be obliged ever to appear in the Allthing, the Icelandic Parliament.

In the last decade of the past century, Iceland determined to ask for more independence. The Icelandic Home Rule party, in 1901, sent one of their most prominent members, Mr. Hannes Hafstein, to Copenhagen to confer with the Danish minister, Alberti. This mission resulted in nothing very definite, but it is assumed that the government looked with some favor on the proposition, as Mr. Hafstein is now secretary of state for Iceland. Hot agitation followed. The principal newspapers of Reykjavik — the capital — the *Isafold*, the progressive organ, and the *Thjodolfur*, the Home Rule organ, waged journalistic war. These journals, by the way, appear weekly, and have but a very small circulation. Minister Alberti was most liberal and energetic. While the Icelanders, who, Mr. Nordenstreng declares, "are generally impractical and inclined to be theorists, contended for their respective platforms, Minister Alberti sought and found a practical solution of the problem." He was chiefly instrumental in bringing about "The Message of the King to the Icelanders," of July 19, 1902. The substance of this proclamation was to the general effect that the Danish Government would never consent to the creation of an Icelandic viceroy with a cabinet of his own selection, and that while the two-minister system could not be accepted, there was "a way of making the highest government of Iceland thoroughly Icelandic without impairing the unity of the realm." The Copenhagen government, therefore, presented a new proposition according to the terms of which the minister for Iceland should sit either at Reykjavik or at Copenhagen. If at the island capital, his expenses should be paid by Iceland, while a special bureau, under the Icelandic minister, should be supported by the state at Copenhagen. The choice in this matter was left to the Allthing, the Icelandic representative body. The proposition of the government was unanimously approved by this body. The choice of Hannes Hafstein, "the foremost statesman of Iceland," by both parties was very appropriate. "He is a poet, and has more than once aroused his people by his powerful and beautiful compositions."

ECONOMIC STRUGGLE BETWEEN GERMANS AND POLES.

THE economic development of the Polish provinces of Prussia has been exciting the envy and dislike, even the active opposition, of the imperial German government, if we may believe the contention of a writer who signs himself "Swidowa," in a "Letter from Posen," in the *Przegland Polski* (Polish Review), of Cracow. "All the administrative officials, from the highest to the lowest, have received the confidential injunction not only to investigate the causes of this development, but also to place as many obstructions in its way as possible." Various means are employed for this.

From the denial to a Pole of the license for a business that requires permission to the boycott of Polish merchants, contractors, physicians, and banks; from the creation of an artificial competition for the Poles in all businesses by the giving of bounties to their German competitors to the disabling of the Polish peasant to acquire land,—all this is practised on a large scale. At the submitting of proposals for works and purchases dependent on the government, no Polish contractor, tradesman, or manufacturer will get that work or order to-day, even though his proposal be the most advantageous possible. No Polish artisan, merchant, or even physician, will get the job if the government authorities can decide directly or indirectly. The boycott of Polish industry and trade is purely personal, and private relations is also enjoined by the government on all its dependents. The newest order in this direction (already officially issued), compelling all holding any office whatsoever to sever all relations with Polish banks, will not, indeed, hurt those banks, but will rebound on those Poles who still hold little, petty offices, as letter-carriers, court criers, and court attendants. Many of them have been debtors of the Polish banks, having contracted loans there for the security required of them, without which they could not have obtained their situations. Such a loan they will not get from the German banks; hence, they will soon find themselves without bread,—unless, yielding to the pressure exerted on them, they will abjure their nationality and faith, assume German-sounding names, and educate their children as Protestants.

THE STRUGGLE FOR THE POSSESSION OF THE LAND.

The stubborn contest waged against the Poles is carried on with administrative and police measures, and when those are exhausted, with new exceptional laws. The most stubborn, the most radical, is the struggle for the possession of land. It has lasted for over a hundred years.

Now it has met with a competitor with whom it did not reckon formerly,—the Polish peasant. Industrious, thrifty, consumed with an inborn desire for obtaining a piece of land as his property, he represents the most fit and successful material for a colonist. This is an exceedingly valuable thing, for the parceling of large estates is a real social and economic necessity of the present moment, particularly here, where hitherto large possessions have far exceeded small possessions. Thanks

to the qualities of the Polish peasant, the parceling, entire or partial, of large estates, accomplished by the intercession of the Polish Land Bank and a few Polish allotment companies, has developed successfully. There have arisen new vital settlements, in which prosperity has begun to flourish. Many an estate has escaped the fate of becoming the prize of the government's Colonization Commission; many a landowner, Pole as well as German, has been saved from ruin.

Nevertheless, it is just for this reason that the government resolved to stem this Polish colonization tide. The government commenced, in its usual way, with administrative directions. On this road, it was begun, on its order, at first once in a while, and finally on principle, to refuse, under various pretexts, to settlers of Polish nationality the right to avail themselves of the statute of "rent estates," issued for the purpose of facilitating parceling in the eastern provinces. When this did not produce the expected result,—when it did not arrest the activity of the Polish allotment banks and companies,—advantage was taken of the statute by virtue of which the founding of a new colony was dependent on the permission of the administrative authority. "For such a permission, years had sometimes to be waited; sometimes the permission was refused downright, for trifling reasons, or it was granted under such heavy financial terms touching the regulation of the church, school, and communal relations of the future colony that it enhanced the price of the parceling immensely." The Poles then resorted to parceling by a method somewhat protracted, sometimes even risky. They did not found entire colonies at once, but, availing themselves of the liberty which the law had heretofore left in not directing governmental approval in such a case, they established separate colonies successively on ground gradually separated from the parceled estate.

THE NEW UKASE AGAINST POLISH COLONIZATION.

The imperial government, in order to prevent this, has had recourse to the submission to the Diet of a new statute, and this a statute with "such an exceptional addition, exclusively directed against the Poles, that it is a direct attack on the private right of ownership." The statute itself, in its general form, relates to the whole monarchy. "Obviously, however, it was caused by our relations, and it had those relations in view, for it puts parceling under the still stricter control of the administrative authorities, and establishes the indispensability of governmental permission for the founding of even the smallest settlement." To the general directions there is added a separate paragraph which constitutes the point of gravity of the whole statute, and which relates solely to the Polish provinces,—that is, the Grand Duchy of Posen, West and East Prussia, and Silesia. According to this paragraph, the president of the German Colonization Commission in Berlin is to have the right of prohibiting any parceling in the four abovementioned provinces which in his judgment will hurt the interests of the Colonization Commission.

AUSTRALIAN ART AND ARTISTS.

THAT there should be an Australian art, distinctive, and gradually but surely developing into a real school, will be somewhat surprising to most Americans. The editor of the *Review of Reviews for Australasia*, Mr. Henry Stead, however, declares that a conception of Australian art has already been formed, and that it is coming to be more and more regarded as "of vital importance, as much so as the planning of cities or the founding of a Bush Capital." The most notable living exponent of Australian art, Mr. Stead tells us, is Mr. J. Ford Paterson, ex-president of the Victorian Artists' Society, and life trustee of the National Gallery and Public Library at Melbourne. Mr. Paterson is a Scotchman by birth who thirty years ago came to Australia, leaving behind him an honorable but not particularly noteworthy record as an art decorator and exhibitor at the Royal Scottish Academy. Mr. Paterson found no traditions or legendary or historic associations near at hand in Australia, and he soon realized that "in the eager, pushing life of the young colony there was no room for the witches and nymphs of the older countries, and that abbeys and castles would be somewhat incongruous in the Bush." He might have supplied these from his academic studies, but his artist's sensibility "quickly grasped the fact that in the vast mysterious bush there are great artistic possibilities."

Its awfulness appealed to the uncanny element in his north-country temperament; its mystery and solitude touched the romance in his nature, and its soft tones and indeterminate and elusive outlines were a constant source of delight to his artistic sense, hitherto acquainted only with the harsh contrasts, rich coloring, and decided forms of a colder clime. Mr. Paterson determined to abandon the profession of decorative artist and to devote his life to the interpretation of the beauty and grandeur of the Australian bush, and gradually, slowly but inevitably, there formed in his mind



MR. J. FORD PATERSON, AUSTRALIAN ARTIST.

the conception of a school of Australian art which has found faithful expression on many canvases.

Mr. Paterson has always objected to the conventional European idea that "when Captain Cook planted the British flag on Australian soil thenceforward Australia should lose its individuality and become English through and through." As a matter of fact, he is fond of saying that Captain Cook "only discovered the outline; and it has been left to the artists of Australia to discover its beauties and to disclose them." The artist, he says, further, will not be favorably impressed by the first view of Australian scenery.

The first impression of Australian scenery is often enough almost repulsive to the artistic sense, and it is only after long and intimate companionship with the primeval forest that its charm becomes apparent. The atmosphere and scenery of this country are very æsthetic and very delicate. There is little of the drama in its beauty,—no great mountains, no vivid contrasts of strong color, no strange peoples in picturesque attire. The seasons pass imperceptibly into each other, and as far as the scenery alone is concerned, it would be difficult to tell summer from winter. Our local color is low-toned, subtle, and difficult to comprehend, and an English tree, with its rich coloring and vigorous outline, appears incongruous and mars the sweetness of the general view.

Mr. Paterson, the writer of the article tells us, never seeks easy effects. "Sincerity and faithfulness are apparent in the smallest details, and in no instance does he emphasize one particular portion of the picture at the expense of the whole." In the same number of this review appears a criticism of the work of Australian artists appearing at this year's exhibition of the Royal Academy in London. Many of the best-known artists of Australia, says Mr. Stead, have not exhibited at all. One of the most striking things about the pictures actually exhibited is that, "with one or two exceptions, not one of the many artists who hail from Australia has presented a really typical Australian scene." One of the best of those actually Australian in atmosphere, Mr. Stead thinks, is Mr. Tom Roberts' canvas, "The First Commonwealth Parliament," painted by the artist in London, from sketches and studies made in Australia at the time.

PROTECTION AGAINST FIRES.

HOW little is done in the United States in the direction of precautionary measures against loss of life and property from fire is clearly brought out in an article contributed to the current *Forum* by Mr. Louis Windmüller. Especially interesting is the contrast drawn by this writer between American laxity and European thoroughness in the matter of building inspection.

In Europe every house, so long as it is in course of erection, remains under the surveillance of a building police; and even after completion, occupancy is not allowed until the department has made a final inspection. The chief of this police then issues a certificate of construction and a permit for occupation. As long as our edifices are in course of erection, they should likewise be supervised by employees of a competent building department. Experienced and practical inspectors, sufficiently remunerated to make them independent of bribes, should be engaged by civil-service commissioners for the better protection of the public. They should have legal authority and be compelled to arrest and bring to justice whomsoever they might discover in the act of deviating from the approved plans. Architects and contractors should be licensed and not permitted to erect any important structures unless they could be held liable for the faithful performance of their undertakings. The authorities of New York had been warned against the material used in the "Darlington;" and had these warnings been heeded, twenty souls and the reputation of some builders might have been spared. Before any permament improvement can be expected of a service so vital to our prosperity, it must be divorced from politics.

Persons now delegated by underwriters to guard against insufficient insulation of electric wires are also

expected to condemn defective flues and to order the removal of such inflammable or explosive material as may endanger the environment. But they generally neglect these duties, and they seldom discover a danger until it is too late. The fire marshal of Massachusetts orders the removal of any material that may imperil property in the State; and when a fire has occurred, he investigates the cause, and endeavors to determine whether it was due to accident, negligence, or incendiarism. Since this office was created, fires in the Bay State have become less frequent.

THEATERS AND FIRE RISKS.

Mr. Windmüller offers several suggestions regarding the construction of theater buildings that should be heeded by our municipal building departments, as well as by the owners and operators of that class of property.

In amusement halls, the seats should be far enough apart to allow the spectators to pass without hindrance; broad aisles, free from incumbrances, should lead to convenient exits sufficiently wide to clear the house in five minutes of any audience it can hold; the curtain should be a fireproof partition between the stage and the public; and watchmen should be stationed at every exit during every performance. Watchmen rendered all the assistance they could and carried senseless women from the ruins of the ill-fated Iroquois at the peril of their own lives. But the flames spread with such rapidity that the efforts of these men availed but little. New buildings erected for a similar purpose should hereafter be placed in the center of a square, like the new public library building of New York. Modern theaters in Paris, Vienna, Berlin, and other continental cities are required to be more than forty feet distant from any other edifice. Until we can enforce a similar law here, we should at least insist that no building be used for such a purpose until it is made fireproof. It should also be protected against fire from adjoining buildings by solid brick fire walls of sufficient height and thickness. The agitation in Europe caused by the Iroquois fire has led a prominent architect, "Baurat" Helmers, to apply to the municipality of Vienna for permission to rehearse theater fires in a circus, in order to instruct the Viennese how to behave in case of such an emergency. After several theater fires, an association, known as the Asphalia Society, was organized in Austria for the better protection of human life. This society has introduced reforms in the construction of public buildings in many European countries, and no serious calamity has ever happened in any building erected under its supervision.

THE SOUL OF RELIGION—POETRY.

"RELIGION is poetry gone to deed. Poetry floating above life is merely poetry; poetry embodied in life is religion." Thus does Mr. Edwin Markham set forth his text for a study of religion and life, in the *Homiletic Review*. Religion and poetry, he continues, are one in essence, and they pursue the same end—"the realization of the ideal through the expansion of the social sympathies and the practice of the tender and heroic virtues. Religion seeks this end through life; poetry seeks it through beauty." It has always been thus, Mr. Markham continues.

The first poetry of the world came as a cry out of the religious passion of man, a cry to the mystery whence he sprang—the mystery into which he at last recedes. Poetry and religion were reckoned one in the morning of time. The Vedic hymns were sung by the Aryans in their adoration of the dawn, as they pressed southward through the passes of the Himalayas. The ancient pages of the Zend Avesta are crowded with hymns and pæans to help the heart in its long battle against Ahriman, the evil god. The old Hebrew poets, resting ever on the rock of the eternal, bequeathed to the world a noble poetry in psalm and prophecy, a poetry that has supported the worn steps and wasted spirits of men down long thousands of years. From the Ganges to the Jordan, from the fiords of Norway to the deltas of the Nile, the teachers of righteousness have been poets, and their work remains in its fresh flower, although the babble of the tongues that were about them has gone into the wind, and the multitude that drew their compassion are drifted dust. "The poet was of old the maker; so the first scripture was a child of the Muses. Theology in its origin descended as a song, and the beginning of revealed religion came as a poetic vision of the Creative Man.



EDWIN MARKHAM.

"WHERE THERE IS NO POETRY, RELIGION WILL PERISH."

The path of divine education, he says further, is the path of the sympathies. "This quickening of the heart is a work that is wrought by great poetry, and this work is the purpose and prayer of all gospels and all revelations." If science is "hacking away the props of the religious sentiment," the best remedy will be found in the cultivation of the imaginative faculty among the people.

Let there be schools of poetry to quicken in us the springs of beauty and wonder. To poetry more than to any other power must we look for the radiant energy that shall repel the march of scientific realism. To poetry we must look also for the glowing life that shall fling off the clutch of an archaic theology. The fatal error of the old theologians was their attempt to probe the abyss with a cold prose logic, a logic that searched for God with a syllogism and destroyed him with a definition. They forgot that the One we adore must reach down beyond the fathomable gulfs. To poetry, then, we must turn, for she only can refresh our spirits with a sense of the Unseen, with a sense of the living Mystery at the heart of the world. Where there is no poetry, religion will perish; and where there is no religion, the people will perish.

PARASITIC WORMS.

THE life of a parasitic worm is full of adventure, and it is one of the marvels of nature how such a fortuitous plan of development ever originated.

Dr. D. Ssinitzen, of the University of Warsaw, contributes an interesting article on parasitic worms to the last number of the *Zoologischer Anzeiger* (Marburg). The parasites upon which Dr. Ssinitzen's observations were made were different species of liver flukes, one of them being the well-known pest that produces the disease in sheep called "liver rot." Other species of flukes infest different vertebrate animals, both wild and domestic, in all parts of the world, fifteen kinds of flukes infesting cattle alone. The adult parasite is not altogether worm-like in appearance, but is flat and somewhat leaf-shaped, and is provided with either hooks or suckers for attaching itself to the animal upon which it lives.

In the course of its development, each individual assumes several different forms, and accommodates itself at various times to entirely different modes of life. The eggs require considerable moisture for their development, and, curiously, the young fluke never hatches out from the egg in the dark, but leaves the shell only when exposed to the light. This prevents it from ever hatching at night. When it emerges from the egg it is shaped like an elongated pear, measures about 15 mm. in length, and is covered with fine cilia. This young organism swims about actively until it finds a certain kind of amphibious snail, which it immediately bores into, then discards its coat of cilia, loses even the rudiments of organs which it formerly possessed, and proceeds to grow at the expense of the snail it has entered.

This quiescent form of the parasite gives rise to many more perfectly formed and more active individuals, which, however, have not yet attained the complex organization of the adult. They develop in such numbers that the host which they prey upon is killed, and as the parasite at this stage of development is unfitted for independent life, it would necessarily die with its host if it were not for its innate ability to change its form and adapt itself to new conditions. At this critical point in its existence it gives rise to a full-living, motile form known as a *cercaria*, which leaves the host and swims around in the water for some time, then, finally, crawls up on a blade of grass, or a stem of some sort, discards its tail, secretes a hard shell around itself as a protection from drying, and remains there until some animal, in eating the grass, unwittingly swallows it, after which the shell is dissolved, leaving the parasite free to penetrate the vital organs of its new host.

In this very complicated mode of development, it is of the greatest importance to the parasite to be able to find its host, and yet, as its only sense organs for the perception of things external to it have been supposed to be rudimentary eyes that could scarcely serve for more than to distinguish between light and darkness, it was incomprehensible how the particular species of snail that serves as the first host to be parasitized could be distinguished from all the other things that might be encountered. But it is found that the adult form, infesting sheep and cattle, and both incompletely developed forms that precede it, have a peculiar kind of sensory organs that combine the characteristics of organs for receiving sensations of sound, smell, and taste. These organs are in the shape of minute *papillæ* each one consisting of a transparent vesicle that contains a small rod and a few granules, and is connected with a nerve fiber that carries the stimulus to the brain.

THE FIRST LORD OF THE BRITISH ADMIRALTY.

ENGLAND'S popular naval hero at the present time is Admiral Sir John Fisher. A writer in the *Pall Mall Magazine* for September declares the maintenance of European peace during the Boer war more due to the admiral than to any other man, owing to the standard of perfection to which he had raised the Mediterranean fleet. While he had command of that fleet, he raised the average speed of the ships from eleven knots to thirteen.

When efficiency is really required, it is generally forthcoming. During the Boer war, the system of information regarding enemies' ships organized by Sir John Fisher was so perfect that at any time of the day or night the position of every foreign man-of-war throughout the world was accurately known. Had war broken out in 1901 or 1902, all that foresight could provide for was done. From Constantinople to the Straits of Gibraltar every conceivable problem had been worked out in such perfection that, no matter where or how war broke out, the commander-in-chief would have been ready for all eventualities.

A naval officer of high rank, whose name is a household word, recently said, "Jack Fisher's advent at the admiralty should delight the heart of the nation if they really knew what it means for efficiency."

As first sea-lord, Sir John Fisher will be ready for any storm, and the public will soon discover more interest in the admiralty than has been shown since Trafalgar. Gunnery efficiency will be required, not approved, by the admiralty; useless squadrons on distant stations will be withdrawn; the naval force of Britain will be concentrated. Sir John Fisher dislikes maritime alliances,—you cannot shoot a friendly admiral for ignorance or negligence. He considers that Britain, to be safe, must rely on her own right arm, and that the right arm, being the navy, should govern imperial defense. If the navy is the right arm of Britannia, John Arbuthnot Fisher is the right arm of the navy.



ADMIRAL SIR JOHN FISHER.

LAFCADIO HEARN ON TOKIO IN WAR TIME.

A LETTER from Lafcadio Hearn, dated at Tokio on August 1, but a few weeks before his death, is printed in the *Atlantic Monthly* for November. Mr. Hearn describes the calm and self-control of the Japanese capital in the midst of war's alarms. To the inexperienced observation, he declares, there is no excitement and scarcely any unusual interest. There is nothing whatever to indicate a condition of anxiety or depression.

On the contrary, one is astonished by the joyous tone of public confidence and the admirably restrained pride of the nation in its victories. Western tides have strewn the coast with Japanese corpses; regiments have been blown out of existence in the storming of positions defended by wire entanglements; battleships have been lost; yet at no moment has there been the least public excitement. The people are following their daily occupations just as they did before the war; the cheery aspect of things is just the same; the theaters and flower-displays are not less well patronized. The life of Tokio has been, to outward seeming, hardly more affected by the events of the war than the life of nature beyond it, where the flowers are blooming and the butterflies hovering as in other summers. Except after the news of some great victory,—celebrated with fireworks and lantern processions,—there are no signs of public emotion; and but for the frequent distribution of newspaper extras, by runners ringing bells, you could almost persuade yourself that the whole story of the war is an evil dream.

And yet, in the words of a current Japanese poem, "every time an extra is circulated, the widows of foes and friends have increased in multitude." All this calm simply testifies to "the more than Spartan discipline of the race."

Anciently, the people were trained, not only to conceal their emotions, but to speak in a cheerful voice and to show a pleasant face under any stress of moral suffering; and they are obedient to that teaching to-day.

It would still be thought a shame to betray personal sorrow for the loss of those who die for Emperor and fatherland. The public seem to view the events of the war as they would watch the scenes of a popular play. They are interested without being excited; and their extraordinary self-control is particularly shown in various manifestations of the "play-impulse." Everywhere the theaters are producing war dramas (based upon actual fact); the newspapers and magazines are publishing war stories and novels; the cinematograph exhibits the monstrous methods of modern warfare; and numberless industries are turning out objects of art or utility designed to commemorate the Japanese triumphs.

Mr. Hearn goes on to recount the different ways in which the war has influenced life in the Japanese capital. It has made the photographers very busy, he says, taking pictures of the departing soldiers. It has been the inspiration for an immense number of war pictures, mostly cheap lithographs, but some of them clever cartoons printed on blue-and-white towels. Many articles of apparel and fashion, such as hair-combs for the women, card-cases, purses, etc., have warlike designs on them, and even the children's games are really war games. The strangest thing in the line of war decoration, says Mr. Hearn, was a silk dress for baby girls.

These are figured stuffs which when looked at from a little distance appear incomparably pretty, owing to the masterly juxtaposition of tints and colors. On closer inspection, the charming design proved to be composed entirely of war pictures, or, rather, fragments of pictures, blended into one astonishing combination, —naval battles; burning warships; submarine mines exploding; torpedo boats attacking; charges of Cossacks repulsed by Japanese infantry; artillery rushing into position; storming of forts; long lines of soldiery advancing through mist. Here were colors of blood and fire, tints of morning haze and evening glow, noon-blue and starred night-purple, sea-gray and field-green, —most wonderful thing!

IS A UNION OF CATHOLIC AND PROTESTANT CHURCHES TO BE DESIRED?

AT this season of religious conventions, when questions of church government and the possibilities of a union of Christian sects are being discussed, it is interesting and significant to read the symposium which appears in *La Revue* on the desirability of a reunion of the Catholic and the Protestant churches. In introducing the subject, the editor of the symposium comments on the constantly increasing indifference to religious matters which prevails at the present day. He believes that no question of the time is more pressing than that of discovering where the churches stand, and whither they are tending. He asks: What is, so to speak, the balance in favor of Christianity after nineteen centuries? what is the task before it? and what are the hopes it may still cherish? The Protestant Church, he continues, has sometimes been called a daughter, rebellious and emancipated, of the old universal Catholic Church; but Catholicism and Protestantism must be regarded as two distinct Christian churches, or, at least, as two sister churches, two daughters of the same Heavenly Father.

The following questions were addressed by *La Revue* to eminent representatives of Catholic and of Protestant thought: (1) How long have tendencies to the reunion of Catholics and Protestants manifested themselves in either church? (2) Is the reunion of the Catholic and Protestant churches possible and desirable? and on what basis could reunion be realized? The replies are numerous and worthy of the great subject under discussion. They fill two numbers of the review.

THE CATHOLIC VIEW.

The opinions of the Catholic writers who replied were given first, those in the affirmative desiring fusion with the Catholic Church. The first authority quoted is Vicomte R. d'Adhémar, of the faculty of science at the Catholic University of Lille, a scientist who seeks to reconcile his faith in science with his faith in the Church. For him, science only touches the external side of things; it has not, nor can it replace, the intuition of invisible things. He insists that Protestantism exists as a church only to oppose Catholicism. Without a Catholic Church there could be nothing to protest against. Science and philosophy complement each other as a point of view from which to regard life; and there is the common-sense point of view. But science does not satisfy itself or us. The cradle and the grave, and the ebb and flow of human beings on earth, are enigmas, absolute mysteries, for the learned and the illiterate, and the Church as a living organism seeks to bridge over the abyss we cannot fathom. Protestants do not constitute a church in the positive sense, for they have neither doctrinal nor disciplinary authority. The Catholic Church asks us to accept her authority, but not as a spiritual Cæsarism to which we are forced to submit. In the Church,

the Catholic should never be either a slave or a subject. The Catholic believes in the Catholic Church because she enables him to perfect himself morally, and leaves him free to choose what cosmogony, what scientific theory, he prefers. The dogma of the Protestants is the Bible and nothing more. As regards the desirability of the fusion of the different confessions there can be no question, only the fusion must be with the more coördinate, the more alive of the churches, —namely, the Catholic Church.

The next Catholic authority to express an opinion on the question is Abbé J. Bricout, editor of the *Revue du Clergé Français*. He says Catholicism is, and ought to remain, a religion of authority ; Protestantism becomes more and more a religion of free belief ; therefore, a reunion of the two churches seems scarcely possible. To reunite, one or other would have to consent to sacrifice its leading principle. One thing only is desirable,—that Catholics and Protestants should not regard each other as enemies, but as separatist brothers ; they should unite to fight irreligion, their common enemy.

The eminent editor of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, Ferdinand Brunetière, believes that reunion would be possible if an understanding could be arrived at with reference to one or two articles of faith, such as the Eucharist and Papal Infallibility, which he thinks does not in any way clash with true spiritual liberty. There are, however, other more serious obstacles. Every Protestant considers his religion a personal acquisition, a conquest of his intellect, and the fruit of his meditation ; but perhaps the greatest obstacle of all is the tendency of the great churches to nationalize and make of Christianity a domain, with frontiers to coincide as exactly as possible with political or geographical delimitation. A national church can only be a confusion of temporal and spiritual power. The increasing development of Christian democracy or social Christianity, however, all tends to prepare for and facilitate reunion.

The director of the *Quinzaine*, G. Fonsegrive, follows M. Brunetière. He says, in effect, that Protestantism individualizes religion, whereas Catholicism socializes it. But, without making any concessions to each other, the more each church lives up to the vital principle which animates it, the greater will be the tendency of the two religions to come together on one common ground,—namely, that of religion.

Abbé Gayraud and others continue the discussion. The abbé says the basis of reunion can only be the Catholic faith. The father of the prodigal son can make innumerable concessions, but must remain the father.

The Protestant replies indicate an appreciation of the need for reunion, but a recognition of its impossibility on dogmatic grounds.

THE PROTESTANT VIEW.

Pasteur Babut, of Nîmes, is alive to the danger of irreligion, and consequently dreams of a common action against it,—a great Christian confederation against freethought. Since the seventeenth century, the two churches have followed two different roads, and have got further and further apart. The Catholic Church has adopted new dogmas, such as those of the immaculate conception and the personal infallibility of the Pope ; while the Protestant churches have assumed a character less and less dogmatic, getting more and more concerned with the spirit than the letter, and with faith itself rather than its formula.

Prof. G. Bonet-Maury thinks that in the seventeenth century a reunion of the two confessions was practicable, but that, on the basis of their respective dogmas, it is scarcely possible to-day. But some *rapprochement*, a loyal *entente* in certain fields of religious activity, is possible ; for instance, moral action in all home missions, Bible readings, foreign missions. And after working together for a few generations in these three fields, the two confessions may have become better acquainted and more sympathetic with each other, and so might then disarm and make a truce of God, and establish a *rapprochement* on the common basis of Christian life, evangelical truth, and divine love.

Pasteur T. Fallot desires with all his heart that the two churches should work in common at the common task. Union of the two faiths, he fears, is not feasible, for there is not merely doctrinal divergence, but soul-divergence,—two modes of feeling and thinking, which result in two modes of action, in the adherents of the two churches. The general conception of life and the rules of conduct is quite different in each, everything depending, with the Protestant, on individual initiative.

The director of the *Vie Nouvelle*, Pasteur Lafon, says reunion will only be possible when the Catholic Church has reformed itself. Between Protestants and Catholics there may be *rapprochement* of man to man by tolerance, etc., but between the two churches there is a great abyss.

Professors Lobstein and Luzzi agree that nothing will tend to reunion so much as increased sincerity in either faith. Protestantism and Catholicism in becoming more Christian will both work toward unity on the eternal basis of the Christianity of Christ. The Catholic

Church, says Professor Lobstein, professes absolute truth. The authority is the infallible Pope commanding obedience, submission, and in return the individual is relieved of all personal responsibility, and is assured constant support. The Protestant method is radically different, the Bible being the authority. But as the Church has progressed the spirit has replaced the letter.

THE INDEPENDENT VIEW.

Other writers continue the discussion, notably Pasteur Wilfred Monod, of Rouen; Ernest Naville, Pasteur Frank Puaux, Pasteur J. E. Roberty, Edmond Stapfer, and Pasteur Charles Wagner, of the Evangelical Liberal Parish, in Paris, author of "The Simple Life," "Courage," "Youth," etc., who is now in this country. M. Wagner believes that, while principles and dogmas may remain as fixed as the granite hills, men and life are as supple as principles are rigid. Reunion may not be possible; concert of action certainly is.

Prof. C. Godet thinks the gulf between Protestant and Catholic mode of thought was never so wide as it is to-day. It is simply a case of fire and water, incompatible elements.

Père Hyacinthe says the essence of the two churches is different, and their principles contradictory, but he adds that among the churches of similar nature, such as those which divide Eastern and Western Christianity, outside the Catholic Church, of course, union would be easy under the famous motto attributed to St. Augustine,—"In things essential, union; in things doubtful, liberty; in everything, charity." Distinction of churches is legitimate, but not division. Union with the Catholic Church would only mean submission.

A GENERAL CONCLUSION.

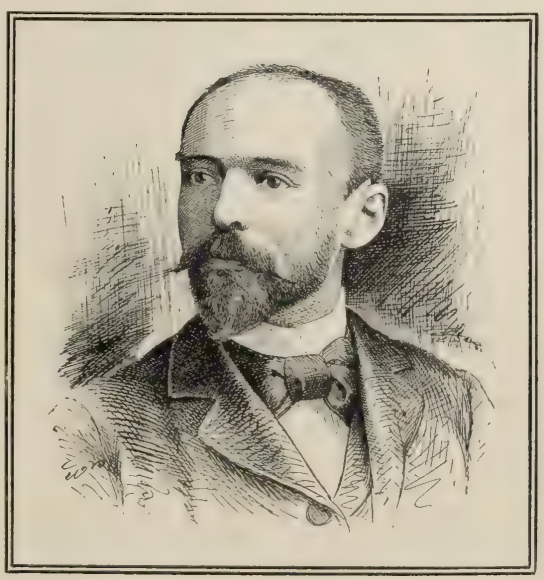
At the end of the lengthy symposium, Edouard de Morsier adds a few comments. At the outset he recognized that the two churches would sound very different notes, and he feared the actual separation would only be confirmed. But, on both sides, the ardent and general desire for Christian union comes out as a fact of first importance. What, then, prevents the Christians of all confessions from uniting one day in the year in a day of prayer and praying the universal prayer of all believers, "Our Father who art in heaven?" After nearly twenty centuries, Christianity continues to play a supreme part, yet only one-third of the people on the globe are Christians. The heart of Christianity beats in Europe; but if she is attacked in the heart by incredulity and freethought, she must die. For the last five centuries, Christianity has suffered from schism and reform. Not only are Christians disputing among themselves, but the Church is attacked from outside. Yet alongside of this schism there is a strong aspiration toward unity.

DISESTABLISHMENT IN FRANCE AND SCOTLAND.

MOVEMENTS for the complete disestablishment of the State Church are engaging the attention of not only thoughtful religious people in France, Italy, and Scotland, but of patriotic statesmen in those countries also. The question in France still keeps the form of almost open war between Church and State.

The French Governmental View.

The moderate and temperate governmental side of the disestablishment question in France is presented in a short article in the *National Review* by the well-known French radical member of the Senate, Georges Clemenceau. After tracing the history of the events which led up to and succeeded the signing of the famous Concordat, M. Clemenceau declares that the principal defect in the agreement, from the religious standpoint, was the impossibility of its application. Most of the points agreed upon by the Pope were wrung from him under duress. "The written text of the agreement was devoid



M. GEORGES CLEMENCEAU.

of importance; it was but the order of an imperious master compelling obedience." M. Clemenceau goes on to declare that most of the stipulations agreed to by the Pope have been unfulfilled. To-day, he declares, "we find ourselves face to face with a discredited compromise, of which the only clause scrupulously carried out is that under which the Roman Catholic clergy are salaried by the French state." All the guaranties inserted on behalf of the State have been neglected. The French statesman declares that the oath of civil allegiance has disappeared,—it is no longer absolutely necessary for bishops to obtain leave to go to Rome. The Concordat reduced the eighty-four bishops of the *ancien régime* to sixty, but, "in the interval, they have been raised to the former figure." In fact, "every one can see clearly what the State gives, but it would be difficult to say what it receives from the other party to the contract." M. Clemenceau goes on to charge the religious orders with violent opposition to the republic.

Every pulpit became a political platform directed against the government which paid the Church, every parsonage a focus of anti-republican agitation, combining political intrigue with works of charity which should in their nature remain outside party strife. And, unfortunately for the secular clergy, the religious orders, which had increased to such an extent as to have almost recovered the position they held under the *ancien régime*, threw themselves into the political fray with all the more ardor owing to being independent of the State, and they succeeded in dragging in their train some of the secular clergy who, if left to themselves, would probably have preferred the peace of their churches.

The rupture would never have happened under Leo XIII.; but Pius X., "who is a simple soul steeped in formulæ, allows himself to be 'run' by a secretary of state who goes straight ahead regardless of pitfalls." Both Church and State, he declares, are now "in the disagreeable mood which usually follows the decision to separate." And yet, "with courage, method, and perseverance, the French Republican party should have no doubt as to its success in the task before it."

The Unfortunate French Bishops.

A consideration of France and the Church, from the standpoint of the unfortunate bishops whose inability to comply with the conflicting demands of both Church and State precipitated the acute phases of the conflict between Premier Combes and the Vatican, appears in the *Revue Bleue* over the signature "X." The contradictions in the famous Concordat are pointed out by the writer, who marvels that such an inconsistent agreement could have remained in force for a century. Most compromises, he says, have for their object the settlement of differences and the prevention of conflicts, but the agreement between Pope Pius VII. and the First Consul, Bonaparte, it would seem, had for its object the provoking of these very differences and conflicts. For the greater part of the century of its existence, this Concordat was undisturbed, despite its contradictory character, because both parties to the contract were too weak to "fall out;" but "between a church become ultramontane and a democracy jealous of its independence and freed from all prejudice, opposition could not fail to become permanent and irreconcilable." This writer recalls the fact that, according to the terms of the famous agreement, French bishops were to be nominated by the government, and, if there were no ecclesiastical grievance against them, to be confirmed by the Vatican. The bishops took solemn and binding oaths to abide by the French constitution and support the republic, and, on the other hand, to be absolutely faithful, without question, to the behests of the Papal Government. So long as Pope and republic remained in accord, this was possible, but when these two powers disagreed, what was to become of the poor bishop? According to apostolic law, every bishop must make a periodical visit to Rome to present his homage. At the same time, by the terms of the French law, bishops must reside in their dioceses and cannot leave except by permission of the government. The Bishops of Dijon and Laval were summoned by the Sacred College to Rome, and forbidden to leave their residence by the minister of education at Paris,—"a strange and unhappy consequence of the Concordat, which makes bishops faithless to the authority of their Church or rebels against the laws of their country."



Mgr. Nordez. (Bishop of Dijon.) Mgr. Geay. (Bishop of Laval.)

THE TWO FRENCH INSURGENT BISHOPS.

Some Results of the Scottish Free Church Decision.

The decision of the British House of Lords in the Scottish Church case, the practical result of which is to turn over to the State minority church vast property interests, most of it accumulated by the so-called Free Church since the famous disruption in 1843, has aroused a great deal of magazine and newspaper discussion in Great Britain. Dr. W. Robertson Nicoll outlines the situation in an article in the *Contemporary Review*. He says :

The House of Lords, in order to gain the end of having the Church property administered according to the wishes of the donors, handed it over to the minority. They found that the minority represented the original Free Church,—(1) because they accepted the Establishment principle ; (2) because they held the Confession of Faith without modification, it being, according to the decision, illegal to make any change in the symbol ; (3) the Lord Chancellor was of opinion that the majority had parted from Calvinistic doctrine and become Arminians in contending for a free offer of the Gospel to all mankind, and he had considerable sympathy from other judges ; (4) it was decided that the property of the Church according to the intention of the donors was tied to believers in the Establishment principle, and in an unmodified Confession of Faith.

In 1867, the principle of the union of churches was accepted, he reminds us. Since then, "at least 90 per cent. of the funds has been provided by those in favor of union. The congregations represented in the minority have not, as a rule, been self-sustaining. They have existed in a perfectly honorable dependence on the aid of the Church at large." What were the views and intentions of the donors before 1867 ? Dr. Nicoll proposes to answer this question from a careful study of the union debates in the Free Church Assembly from 1863 to 1873. His contention is that "the disruption leaders, men who surely knew their own principles, repudiated every one of the judgments of the House of Lords in advance by a large majority, and in part unanimously. The evidence is adduced from their own speeches, as reported in the Free Church Blue Books." His quotations appear to fully justify his contention. At the end of the article he refers to his experience. He says :

I have remained in association with the Free Church, and have contributed according to my means, not only to the ordinary income, but to the building of churches and manses. There are hundreds of thousands who have done the same. There are many thousands who have been able to do so on a much larger scale ; and all have contributed in the faith that the money would be applied in the service of their convictions. If the Establishment principle had been a term of communion, we could never have belonged to the Free Church. If we had believed the Church to be tied for all time to the Confession of Faith we should never have subscribed a penny to its funds. To a church constituted as the church of the minority is now, we should never have given anything. Our money has been taken and violently diverted to purposes which are hateful to us. Should we not have a right to demand it back? Is there not a clear case for restitution ? I make the appeal to all fair-minded men. No doubt the desire of the majority in the House of Lords was to ascertain and give effect to the mind of the donors of the Trust Fund. Manifestly they have failed to do so. The unintentional effect of their judgment is confiscation on an unexampled scale. Is there not an urgent call for immediate redress in the interests of common justice as well as of Christianity ?

Are There Any Free Churches?

The writer of an article in the *London Quarterly Review* asks this question. He maintains that the decision of the House of Lords in the Scottish Church case leads to results "against which the moral sense revolts, and that the judgment, however in accordance with the strict letter of the law, is iniquitous." At the same time, the consequences of the decision must be borne until the law itself be repealed or amended. As regards the Scottish Church, it is to be hoped that ere long substantial justice will be done by mutual agreement and Parliamentary action. But, whatever be the issue for the churches directly concerned, larger questions arise which seriously affect the well-being, and might affect the very existence, of Nonconformist churches in England. The recent judgment raises certain questions concerning the administration of ecclesiastical trusts in their acutest form. The reviewer admits that, within limits, the grasp of the law must be made as firm as possible. The question is, what are these limits, and how may the line be drawn which shall fairly define them ? A legal tribunal must, in the last resort, settle questions both of law and of fact. The present duty of all Free Churchmen is to consider how far existing property trusts permit the *bona fide* use of the powers intrusted to them for the purposes for which they were conferred, consistently with such liberty to modify doctrine and administration as every religious community ought to possess. "A living church must have the power of restating her beliefs in the light of new knowledge and adapting her administration to a new environment,—always provided she relinquishes no fundamental principles and does not contravene the great purposes for which her constitution was originally framed." Nonconformist churches should see that their houses are in order, and not attempt to slight the technicalities of legal enactments. The Scottish Church case should furnish a lesson to all Christendom.

BRIEFER NOTES ON TOPICS IN THE PERIODICALS.

SUBJECTS TREATED IN THE POPULAR AMERICAN MONTHLIES.

The Russo-Japanese War.—Some excellent material from the scene of war in the far East is now reaching the magazine offices. We alluded last month to Mr. Thomas F. Millard's contribution to *Scribner's* dealing with conditions in the Russian army. Mr. Millard's observations went far to explain certain weaknesses in the Russian campaign which were strikingly revealed by the operations of the past two months. The second paper, which appears in the November number, throws additional light on the situation. Mr. Millard's opinion, expressed as recently as August 1 last, was that if the Japanese suffer no serious reverses on the sea we may in time see the war in Manchuria come to a sort of military stalemate. He believes that the Japanese will not dare to attempt to push the Russians farther, and that the Russians will not be able to gather strength enough to drive the Japanese out.—We have quoted elsewhere from the vivid account of the battle of Nanshan, written by a Japanese officer, and published in the current number of *Leslie's*.—In the *World's Work*, the "Vivid Pictures of Great War Scenes" are continuing in the current number. The same magazine has two articles this month dealing with Japanese conditions,—one a sketch of the Emperor of Japan, by that extremely well-qualified writer, Mr. Durham White Stevens, and the other a Japanese view of Japan's fitness for a long struggle, contributed by Jihei Hashiguchi.—Another very enlightening paper, on "Japanese Devotion and Courage," is contributed to the November *Century* by Oscar King Davis, the correspondent. Mr. Davis relates several instances of Japanese heroism, some of which, like that of Hirose's fatal attempt to block Port Arthur, were already known in this country, while others, none the less noteworthy, have hardly been heard of outside of Japan.

The Presidential Campaign.—The magazines, in their November issues, have their last opportunity before the election to deal with campaign topics. Only a few of the illustrated monthlies, however, have availed themselves of this opportunity. The *Century*, in its department of "Topics of the Times," takes occasion to promulgate suggestions in the direction of a national campaign on distinctly ethical lines. This editorial points out that, while our political campaigns as now conducted are not without their ethical uses, it is still a question, on the whole, whether these campaigns leave the country on a higher or a lower ethical plane.—Nearly all of the campaign articles that have appeared in the magazines this year have dealt with the personal qualities of the candidates rather than with questions of public policy.—We have quoted in another department from ex-President Cleveland's indorsement of Judge Parker and Senator Lodge's brief appreciation of President Roosevelt, both of which articles appear in the November *McClure's*. In the same magazine there is a study of the respective records of President Roosevelt and Judge Parker on the question of labor unions.—In the *Metropolitan Magazine*, the Hon. W. Bourke Cockran gives his reasons for supporting Judge Parker, while Mr. Alfred Henry Lewis offers a comparison of the two Presidential candidates, which results in favor of the present incumbent of the office.—Mr. Frank A. Munsey contributes to his own magazine a paper on "Training for the Presidency," an enthusiastic appreciation of President Roosevelt.—In *Leslie's Monthly* there is an article describing the work and qualifications of "The Financiers of the Campaign,"—namely, Mr. Cornelius Bliss and George Foster Peabody, who are serving as treasurers of the Republican and Democratic national committees, respectively. There is also in the November *Leslie's* a brief article on the Populist, Prohibition, and Socialist nominees for President, by Mr. Walter L. Hawley.—From Dr. Swallow's article, entitled "If a Prohibitionist Were President," we have quoted at some length in another department.—Mr. John T. Wheelwright gives, in the *Atlantic*, an interesting account of certain close election contests of the past.—In *Munsey's*, Congressman Charles E. Littlefield, writing on "Bombshells in Presidential Campaigns," tells the story of the Murchison letters, of the Morey forgery, and of Dr. Burchard's famous phrase, "Rum, Romanism, and Rebellion." This Republican Congressman characterizes Judge Parker's "gold telegram" as courageous and manly.—In this month's *Cosmopolitan*, the editor, Mr. John Brisben Walker, addresses an argument to young men on the question of entering political life. Mr. Walker advises young men to go into politics, and makes the encouraging suggestion that since, from time to time, crises arise in political parties when even the bosses, in despair of success at the polls, are unable to prevent honest men from securing nominations, the young man who does his duty will in time find an opportunity to gratify a legitimate ambition to serve the people by holding office.

Industrial Topics.—In the *Cosmopolitan*, Mr. William R. Stewart continues his series on "Great Industries of the United States" with a most interesting illustrated paper on the manufacture of silk. This country now stands in the front rank in comparisons of silk manufactures. More raw silk is made in the United States than in any other country in the world, while in the production of finished goods the United States occupies an equal position with France, and New York City is second only to Shanghai as a raw-silk market. At the present time, there are upward of five hundred and fifty active silk manufacturing establishments in the United States, having a capital of one hundred million dollars, and giving employment to some seventy-five thousand wage-earners.—In the *World's Work*, Mr. Clarence H. Poe describes the cotton industry of this country. Among other facts brought out in Mr. Poe's article is the statement that the value of the cotton crop to Southern farmers, last year, was twice the

whole world's product of gold. The importance of the crop to the South, and its relation to the recent phenomenal prosperity of that section, is clearly brought out in Mr. Poe's article.—A survey of the national wheat harvest is contributed to the *World's Work* by Mr. Isaac F. Marcosson.

The Philippine Question.—An important article on "The United States in the Philippines," by Alleyne Ireland, appears in the *Atlantic Monthly* for November. Mr. Ireland has spent two years in the study of comparative colonization in the English, French, Dutch, and American colonies in the far East. While Mr. Ireland finds much to criticise in the American methods of administration, it is significant that he fully justifies the action of the United States in taking the islands and declares that with the destruction of the Spanish authority in the Philippines the responsibility for the protection of the islands and for the establishment of a stable internal government devolved upon the country. Ninety-five per cent. of the people of the islands, says Mr. Ireland, have never had the smallest wish for independence.

Travel Sketches.—Among the interesting descriptive articles contributed to the November magazines are "In Folkestone Out of Season," by William Dean Howells, in *Harper's;* "Legends and Pageants of Venice," by William Roscoe Thayer, in *Lippincott's;* "The London Cabby," by Vance Thompson, in *Outing;* "Abiding London," by Dora Greenwell McChesney, in the *Atlantic;* and "To the Sahara by Automobile," by Verner Z. Reed, in the *Cosmopolitan.*—The truth long familiar to magazine editors, that the freshest subjects lie nearest home, is well illustrated by Mr. George Hibbard's article, "Winter on the Great Lakes," in the November *Harper's.*—In the *Century,* a somewhat out-of-the-way subject has been discovered and exploited to good advantage by Roger Boutet de Monvel in an article entitled "The Trackers of France,"—"trackers" being the term used to designate a class of people who correspond partly to our own canal men, except that they perform the greater part of the labor of hauling their boats along the French and Belgian canals themselves.—In the same magazine, an influential Tibetan priest, Agwan Dordji, who according to some accounts directed the resistance to the English in their march upon Lassa, is described by President Deniker, of the Anthropological Society of Paris.—"The Peeresses of Japan in Tableau" is the subject of a group of remarkable pictures reproduced in this number of the *Century* from photographs of tableaux actually presented by the peeresses at Tokio.

Science in the Magazines.—That entertaining astronomical student and writer, Camille Flammarion, attempts, in *Harper's,* an answer to the question, Are the planets inhabited? M. Flammarion is one of those astronomers who believe that Mars is a planet possessing physical features like those of our earth. All that he has learned about Mars leads him to believe that it is an abode suitable to the same kind of life that exists upon earth; and from the idea of the *habitability* of Mars, M. Flammarion argues to the idea of *habitation.*—An interesting paper by Dr. Henry Smith Williams contributed to this number of *Harper's* deals with "Some Greek Anticipations of Modern Science."—The leading feature of this month's *Century* is Prof. Henry Fairfield Osborn's paper on "The Evolution of the Horse in America," being the first complete account of the American Museum explorations of Western fossils under the William C. Whitney Fund.

The Fine Arts.—The subject of stage scenery and scenic effects is clearly and attractively presented in *Scribner's* by Mr. John Corbin. Drawings by Jules Guérin,— two in color,— add much to the effectiveness of Mr. Corbin's exposition.—The recent increase in the number of truly artistic business buildings and hotels in the city of New York is the occasion of an article in the *World's Work* by Mr. J. M. Bowles, who describes the beautiful painting, sculpture, and furniture with which these palatial structures are adorned.—The November *Munsey's* has a chatty article by Charles H. Coffin dealing with the portrait painters, mostly Europeans, who secure the amplest commissions from wealthy Americans.—In the *International Studio* (October), the articles of greatest interest to American readers are Mr. Nathan Haskell Dole's criticism of the stained-glass windows of Mr. William Willet, whose work is to be found in New York, Philadelphia, and Pittsburg, and a survey of the arts and crafts at the Louisiana Purchase Exposition, by Mr. Frederic A. Whiting.—In the *Arena* (October), Mr. William Ordway Partridge contributes a suggestive paper on "American Art and the New Society of American Sculptors."—The *Outlook* (October) has an interesting paper by Elizabeth L. North on "Women Illustrators of Child Life."

Topics of Special Interest to Women.—The *Outlook* for October 1, which is a special "woman's number," has an article on "Settlement Workers and Their Work," by Mary B. Sayles, illustrated with portraits of such well-known women settlement workers as Miss Jane Addams, Dr. Jane Robbins, Miss Cornelia Bradford, and Miss Mary E. McDowell.—In the same magazine there are three papers on "The Maid and the Mistress," contributed, respectively, by Mrs. Florence M. Kingsley, Prof. Lucy M. Salmon, and "Barbara," the author of "The Woman Errant."—In the November *Century,* Lillie Hamilton French describes "A New Occupation,"—that of the "welfare manager" in mercantile establishments and industrial plants. In brief, this functionary serves as an intermediary between employers and their employees. Some women have prepared for this profession as they would have done for the practice of law or medicine. Like other employees, they are paid by the company.—"How to Live Within Your Income" is the very practical problem discussed by Flora McDonald Thompson in the November *Cosmopolitan.* The same magazine has an essay by Rafford Pyke on "Strength in Women's Features."

Problems in Education.—After a year spent in visiting schoolrooms, East and West, Miss Adéle Marie Shaw states, in the *World's Work* for November, her conclusions as to the defects of our American public-school system and the problems yet unsolved. Briefly, she finds that the worst of these defects have their origin in bad methods of choosing teachers, in the inefficiency of boards of education, in the lack of effective organization, and in bad school equipment. Miss Shaw declares that it is an ignorant man who is satisfied with the public-school system of the United States, and

a very ignorant man who is not proud of it.—In the *North American Review* (October), President William R. Harper, of the University of Chicago, writes on higher education in the West. The effect of President Harper's article is to make more impressive the question which he says is frequently asked by Eastern educators, whether the serious spirit does not prevail more extensively in the Western colleges than in the Eastern.—A paper by Dr. Andrew S. Draper, now commissioner of education of the State of New York, and until recently president of the University of Illinois, on government in American universities, appears in the October number of the *Educational Review*. In the same journal there are important papers on "The Newest Psychology," by Edward L. Thorndike; "Some Reflections on Method in Teaching," by James M. Greenwood, and "Some Characteristics of New York City High Schools," by Edward J. Goodwin.—The magnificent work of the Chicago School of Education is described in the *Booklover's Magazine* for November.

THE SPIRIT OF THE FOREIGN REVIEWS.

Modern Decadence in Art.—In a study of modern art contributed to the *Contemporary Review*, Mr. E. Wake Cook laments the prevailing decadence. What are the chief characteristics of the new movements, he asks. "In the first place, there has been an utter relaxation of the artistic conscience. Truth of form, the scientific foundation of art, is violated in ways hitherto regarded as the sign-manual of incompetence. The human form divine is often represented with unfinished, misshapen, abortive limbs which shock delicate sensibilities. Yet these offenses against humanity, so far from outlawing the perpetrators and excluding them from the art-world, draw from the 'advanced' critics abject laudation. Then, again, instead of increasing the demands on the artist, the whole tendency is to lower them. Since Whistler's disastrous lead, all the poetic and inventive faculties have been steadily sneered at and discounted by the 'Newists.' Thirdly, instead of making the work more thorough, more precious, more sympathetic, with nature's subtle methods, the trend of the 'Newists' is in the opposite direction, art is cheapened by the display of means, and easel pictures show the clumsy adoption of the scene-painter's handling. Fourthly, in all other branches of art we see the same *blasé* revolt against things hitherto considered good, and the invention of new forms of bad work, or the return to primitive blundering."

Excellence of the French Theater.—The faithfulness to life of the French theater calls forth a good deal of praise from Mr. J. F. Macdonald, who writes in the *Fortnightly Review*. On the stage we get the *vie vivante* of France, he says. "In beholding the players, we behold typical Parisians and typical provincials; and in following the play, we follow the lives, in their most critical moments, of men and women whom we may meet with casually, yet never appreciate, never know. Thackeray vowed that no Englishman could arrive at an intimate friendship with a Frenchman. Impossible to gain admittance to de Brissac's foyer, to participate in his domestic joys: de Brissac was courteous and amiable on the boulevards and in his club, but the door *chez de Brissac* remained barred; and the Englishman never knew whether life was sympathetic or unsympathetic within. But one has only to pass an evening at the Française, the Gymnase, or the Vaudeville to become intimately acquainted with all the de Brissacs and with their friends. Before us, the de Brissacs, with their passions, principles, prejudices, and innumerable peculiarities, which, as they reveal themselves, explain states of mind and states of affairs more or less opposed and foreign to our own. Before us, scenes taken out of the heat of the street and shown us in the calm light of intelligence,—scenes of the moment; scenes that have puzzled, alarmed, agitated; human scenes from every conceivable environment."

An English View of Arbitration with This Country.—Writing on "New Treaties of Arbitration and Diplomacy" in the *Fortnightly Review*, Sir Thomas Barclay says: "In connection with the revived agitation in the United States for the conclusion of an Anglo-American treaty, I am not sure that it would not be better to make an experimental effort on the same lines as the Anglo-French treaty than to try to carry through the American Senate a more comprehensive treaty on the lines of the abortive one of 1897. A treaty, after all, apart from the considerations which I have dwelt upon, is of no great account if it does not express the widespread feelings of the contracting nations. The treaty of 1897 was supported by a majority of forty-two votes against a minority of twenty-six. This fell short by four votes of the constitutional two thirds majority necessary to carry a treaty. If it had been carried, there would have been a strong minority opposed to it, and its working might, therefore, have been attended with friction. It is to be hoped that whatever treaty is signed between Great Britain and the United States will have practically the unanimous consent of the American people."

Has Servia Been Judged Too Severely?—A writer in the *Independent Review*, Miss Edith Durham, comes to the defense of the Servian royal family, the Karageorgevitches, and asks a more lenient judgment for Servia. It is idle, she says, "to pretend that the means employed to place the first Karageorge's grandson upon the throne were commendable. It is equally idle to expect Western civilization from a people who have so very lately struggled free from Eastern barbarism. And it is possible that the Serbs know their own affairs best. In any case, the story of Karageorge and his gallant uprising of just one hundred years ago throws a light upon to-day and explains many things. And in those hundred years the Serbs have achieved much. In the last fifty years, indeed, they have done more for the country than the Turks did in three hundred. The mark of the Turk upon the land is easily swept away. The stain which he always sets upon the souls of a conquered people cannot be so swiftly erased, and they should be judged gently."

Miss Eva Booth's Salvation Army Work in Canada.—A character sketch of Miss Eva Booth, fourth daughter of General Booth, who for the past eight years has been at the head of the Salvation Army

work in Canada, appears in the *Young Woman*. Miss Booth, we are told, became an officer in the army when a girl of seventeen, and at once set to work in the slums. She told the writer of this article that she has sold many a bunch of flowers in the streets of London. She used to dress like a flower girl, and spent the day with them selling flowers in the streets to passers-by, in order to learn their difficulties and to see whether she could help them. Her work in Canada has been very successful. She has traversed the Dominion from end to end, and found her way at one time to the Klondike, where she sang "Home, Sweet Home" to the miners in the streets of Dawson City. It was the Salvation Army that sent the first missionaries to the Klondike. The advance party consisted of six capable men and two nurses, and they had a rough time on the trail on the way out. Rough miners stopped swearing when a Salvation Army lass was within hearing, and the girls go into the worst saloons without a rough word ever being spoken to them. Miss Booth paid special attention to prison work and detective work. Detective work is the organization which they have created for finding missing relatives and restoring them to their parents and friends.

Effect of the War on the Masses of Europe.—Commenting on the world-wide effect of means of transportation and communication to-day, the well-known Russian economic writer, Novicow, in the *Nordisk Revy* (Stockholm), declares that the rapidity of communication has had the effect of establishing a system of credit between citizens of different countries, and thus, not only is the knowledge, but also the financial sensibility, of nations affected. To-day, many individuals are holders of foreign government bonds. As soon as war is proclaimed in any country, the bonds of that country lose their normal value, and sometimes to a large extent. More, a Parisian having no financial interest in Japan directly is yet a holder of French railroad bonds, which, as a consequence of the Russo-Japanese war, have fallen many points. The financial sensibilities of the Parisian are thus influenced by the acts of Emperor Mutsuhito and his counselors. Thus, there is shown to be a bond of solidarity between the Parisian and the Japanese. At the outbreak of hostilities between Japan and Russia, panic also became imminent on the London exchange. English consols fell to 85½, the lowest point reached in half a century. Nothing like it had happened even in the worst days of the Boer war. The bonds of railroad and steamboat companies dropped 30 points, while their ordinary fluctuations do not exceed 1 to 2 points. Within twenty-four hours, the English people lost many hundred millions of pounds. The same panic occurred on the Bourse in Paris. On one day the losses in French rentes amounted to eight hundred and seventy-five millions. Frenchmen own almost eight milliards in Russian bonds. If the Russians suffer a serious defeat, these shares will undergo an enormous shrinkage in value. They will be sold for whatever they will bring, and thousands of French families will see their prosperity materially reduced. Italy has suffered still more seriously than France and England from the Russo-Japanese war in an indirect, yet in quite as serious and palpable a way. The Italian Government intended to fund the public debts in 1904. This would result in a saving of some forty millions, which it was purposed to use in the reduction of the heavy salt tax. But the moment the war was proclaimed, the raising of the revenues of the world by taxation began to increase, and Italy was compelled to postpone her funding to a more opportune moment. The peasants of Italy are thus compelled to suffer for a number of years to come by reason of an oppressive tax on such a necessity of life as salt, "because the governing classes of Japan desired to secure dominating influence in Korea."

Qualifications of a Japanese Gentleman.—There are two words which make up the qualifications of a gentleman in Japan, says the *Taiyo* (Tokio), editorially, and these are *bun bu*. *Bun* means literary culture; *bu* means military affairs. "These two words are quite comprehensive. A gentleman must be well up in the ways of *bun* and *bu*. Even in this age of specialization, a gentleman must cultivate these two ways. Mere literary acquirement effeminates a man, while too much military training makes him coarse and rough. These two qualities must be possessed in an even degree by a gentleman."

England and Russia.—In three articles in the *Revue de Paris*, Victor Bérard treats of the relations between England and Russia. He points out that Anglo-Russian trade has increased steadily ever since the beginning of the sixteenth century, when adventurers of the court of Edward VI. first entered the Russian port of Archangel. He believes that the relations of the two countries are at present so close, and so likely to become closer in the future, that political and military rivalry between the two empires is criminal.

Twenty Years of Chile.—In one of the geographical and historical surveys of the different countries of the world which are appearing periodically in the *Revue Universelle* (Paris), Chile, from 1880 to 1902, is considered by the well-known geographer and economist, Fr. Maury. This writer traces, in a paragraph, the history of this interesting South American republic for fifty years preceding 1880, during which period, he declares, internal and external peace had made Chile the strongest and most progressive state in South America. He then outlines the series of wars which began in the early seventies of the last century, with Peru and Bolivia, showing how the most valuable of Chilean lands were acquired as spoils of war during this period. At this time, he notes in passing, Argentina began to appear as a rising power, and it is with her that Chile must reckon most seriously in the future. The political progress during the terms of Presidents Santa-Maria (1881–86), Balmaceda (1886–91), Montt (1891–96), Errazuriz (1896–1901), and Riesco (1901 to the present) is outlined, and the foreign relations of the country explained. The great source of weakness in Chile, says M. Maury, is the instability of the ministry. At present, the two political parties are about of equal strength; but such is the governmental machinery that "ministries can maintain themselves but a few weeks, or a few months, and cannot realize any important reforms." Some interesting data of the economic situation in Chile are given by this writer, showing that railroads and shipping are progressing; that agriculture is being developed, especially in the direction of wheat and vineyards, and that the mining and other mineral industries are being pushed, copper, salt, silver, saltpeter, nitrates, and other products for fertilizing being the principal articles of export. Last year, there were three million inhabitants

of mixed Spanish and Indian blood in the country, and its commerce, chiefly with the United States, amounted, in 1900, to something over 200,000,000 pesos (about $150,000,000). Chile has a large foreign population, chiefly German.

The Origin and Meaning of Church Music.—The Pope's Encyclical Note on Church Music has called forth a number of articles on musical reform in the Catholic Church, both in the English and in the Continental reviews. Among those in the Continental reviews mention may be made of Mgr. Justin Fèvre's article on the "Restoration of Church Music," which appears in the *Revue du Monde Catholique* (Paris). The writer defines music as a sort of inarticulate language to express ideas or sentiments which a more inarticulate language cannot translate. It is therefore the language of the mysterious things of the soul, expressing its deepest and sublimest impressions, and its great theme is God. This brings the writer to a consideration of Plain-Song, the traditional form of church music, the inspired masterpiece of the Catholic Church. In the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, Camille Bellaigue deals with the subject of church music at the theater. In many operas there are church scenes, and some operas are altogether religious, he reminds us.

Holiday Colonies of the World.—A description of the "fresh-air" colonies for children all over the world, by Paul Delay, appears in a recent number of the *Correspondant*. Holiday colonies, he says in beginning, are the results of efforts by economists and philanthropists to provide breathing spells for the children of the poor. The first holiday colonies were founded in Switzerland and in America about 1876. Denmark followed in 1877, and every summer the city of Copenhagen alone sends 14,000 children to the country for six weeks. England joined the movement in 1878, and Austria-Hungary in 1879. In 1881, Germany, France, Italy, Sweden, and Norway all followed. The following comparative statistics are interesting, for they show the number of children for every 100,000 inhabitants which each country of Europe sent to holiday colonies in the year 1899. He does not give the figures for the United States.

	Children.		Children.
Spain	1	Belgium	38
Russia	6	Germany	85
Austria	11	Switzerland	104
Sweden	15	England	116
Holland	20	Denmark	552
France	21		

In 1882, the first municipal holiday colonies were organized in France. The city of Paris spends a considerable sum to enable the most deserving scholars, with a teacher, to make little tours in the country, and the results are stated to be most gratifying.

Italy's Colony in Africa.—In the hurry of the closing moments of the last Italian Parliament, there was passed a law "for the preferential treatment of certain products of the colony of Eritrea," including wheat up to an exportation of sixty thousand quintals (six thousand six hundred tons). Giorgio Sonnino takes this law as the text for an article in the *Nuova Antologia* (Rome), urging more enlightened and liberal treatment of this African dependency. He shows that this extremely fertile land suffers from over-production of grain, there being no profitable outlet. If relief is not afforded, the writer fears abandonment of land now occupied by settlers. Though the grain imported into Italy in one recent year amounted to twelve and a half million quintals, fear of competition in production from the colony has prevented the free admission of Eritrean grain, and now limits the amount to sixty thousand quintals. Signor Sonnino argues that it would only reduce the amount imported from other countries, and that the price would still be fixed by the world-market. Signor Sonnino sees no reason why the preferential treatment should not be extended to other products, such as pearls, mother-of-pearl, dried skins, and other animal products. The inclusion of coffee and indigo would stimulate promising infant cultures. In short, he would like to see the colony treated no longer with fear and prejudice, but "as a sister province that with others would gem the crown of the great Italian fatherland." With proper treatment, the colony should also help to solve the growing problem of emigration. New means of communication should be favored, and capital, too little understood and too much feared in Italy, should be induced to come in by concessions and privileges.

Night Work for Women in France.—An exhaustive study of female labor, particularly at night, is presented by Georges Alfassa in the *Revue de Paris*. This writer declares that the rapid increase in the number of occupations calling for night work by women has assumed serious sociological importance, and threatens to affect the vitality of the country. It would seem almost impossible for these women to get the necessary amount of sleep to fit them for their duties as mothers of the young generation. In France, a law was passed on November 2, 1892, forbidding night labor for women and children, but exceptions were made in certain industries. The exceptions, no doubt, have assumed large proportions, with the result that the Association for the Legal Protection of Workers is carrying on an active campaign for the suppression of all exceptions. The loss of sleep is not the only serious mischief. When a woman is working in the day, the *crèche* will take care of her infant child; but in the night, the *crèche* is closed. And what about the hygienic and sanitary conditions of the factories in the night? What becomes of the older children after school hours? The whole thing is appalling. The fact that there has been a commission of inquiry into some of the evils of the system, and that a campaign against it is being carried on vigorously, may be taken to show that the proposed change will not be made without opposition. The opponents say, among other things, that the suppression of night labor will increase expenses, and will necessitate an increase of capital. Individual interests will be seriously compromised. Night work gives the woman the necessary leisure in the day to do the mending, etc., in the home!

Socialism in Italy.—A revival of religious interest and a repudiation of socialism, the principal ally of which is Freemasonry,—this is what Italy needs to save her for future greatness. This is the judgment of Count Joseph Grabinski, who contributes to the *Revue Générale* (Brussels) an article entitled "The Crisis of Socialism in Italy." Count Grabinski traces the history of socialism from 1871. Its first promoters, he declares, were the Italians who took part in the Garibaldi expedition to Dijon during the Franco-German War,

and afterward in the Commune of Paris. The real progress of socialism, he declares, began about 1880, after the election of the first Socialist Deputies to the Parliament. For the first decade,—that is, to 1890,—the growth of the party was slow, but recently it has been much more rapid. Count Grabinski reminds us that in Italy there are but few large industrial cities, and that in the few there are, notably Milan and Turin, socialism is very strongly intrenched. In the other large cities of the kingdom, such as Palermo, Naples, Rome, Bologna, Genoa, Florence, and Venice, there is industrial activity, but far less than in Turin and Milan; and in Genoa most of the dock workers have a special organization of their own, which "generally escapes the tyranny of socialism." In Italy, industry is distributed very generally throughout the peninsula, in the small towns, and in the country districts. Socialism has made but a feeble showing in these smaller districts, but has grown with great and alarming rapidity in the valley of the river Po. Italian socialism, Count Grabinski declares, is the place of refuge for all the "unclassed; all those who fight against the good of the majority, all the discontents, and all the revolutionists who have not courage enough to join the party of anarchists, where they would run the risk of receiving a fate such as was meted out for the crimes of Cæserio, of Lucchini, and of Bresci." There are two factions in the Italian socialistic party, "the Reformers and the Revolutionists." These are continually at odds, and, Count Grabinski asserts, they do not wish to become reconciled, because reconciliation would leave no place for a great deal of personal ambition on the part of the leaders of both. The Reformers, he declares, are opportunist; they favor reforms in the spirit of Marx, and are "partisans of a political evolution which would hand Italy over to socialism without passing through a violent revolution." The Revolutionary Socialists are "in favor of violent means, of assassinations, of barricades, and of semi-anarchy."

"Germany's Future Lies on the Water."—A writer who signs himself "General-Major Keim" contributes to the *Deutsche Monatsschrift* (Berlin) an analysis of Germany's navy and her future on the ocean. Her navy, strong and well equipped as it is to-day, is far from being able to protect the already vast and rapidly increasing sea-borne commerce of the Fatherland, declares this writer. This commerce and the capital it represents must be protected, and if, says "General-Major Keim," the German people are not able or willing to make the necessary effort to furnish adequate protection to their trade and interests dependent on water transportation, then Germany's future as a great naval world-power, and, indeed, as a great power at all, is but an empty dream.

Were There Really Giants in Those Days?—In discussing the question of stature in different ages, in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, M. A. Dastre, a French writer on science, combats the prevailing opinion that the races of to-day are the degenerate sons of a taller and stronger race, and that in the course of time feeble and nervous generations have succeeded those of more sanguine and exuberant temperament. The idea so tenaciously held is, he thinks, only a form of the ancient superstition—belief in giants. The Bible has had a good deal to do with the promulgation of the idea; the wonder is how the men so powerfully constituted as those often referred to in the Bible ever managed to disappear so entirely from the earth. To-day, however, the problem of stature presents itself to us in a more practical light than it did to our predecessors. We are better informed than they were, owing to the great strides made in the sciences of anthropology and medicine. Contemporary anthropologists have set to work and obtained careful measurements of men of all ages, from the remains of primitive man down to the races of our own day, and the conclusions they have arrived at go to show that there has been no tendency whatever to diminish in size, and the science of medicine upholds the theory, pointing out that the very few exceptionally big men to be found in all ages are merely a morbid deviation from the normal size, and that their giant stature is rather a sign of their inferior strength in the struggle for existence. In default of real giants in modern ages, mention is made of the inhabitants of Patagonia, sometimes spoken of as pseudo-giants. Magellan was the first to notice the great stature of the Patagonians. He accorded to them the height of seven and a half feet, but the average height of these people has been given by different authorities as seven feet, ten to eleven feet, and six feet. They are a big race, undoubtedly, but some of the travelers must have fabled when they ascribed to the Patagonians such an abnormal stature.

Ibsen on Independence for Norway.—The family and the friends of Ibsen having decided to publish Ibsen's correspondence with the leading literary men of his time, we get in the French reviews two interesting series of these unpublished letters. Among the most important are those to Björnstjerne Björnson, now published in *La Revue*. They cover the years 1865–67, when Ibsen was in Rome, and the years 1884–85. In the first letter from Rome, dated January 25, 1865, Ibsen is concerned about the independence of Norway. He says: "When you write, give me your opinion of home affairs. What course ought to be followed in Norway? What can the leaders do with the present generation? You will reassure me. I do not forget that you are full of hope, but I should be happy to know on what your confidence is based. It often seems unlikely to me that we shall disappear. A state may be destroyed, but not a nation. . . . But even if we do lose our independence and have our territories taken from us, we shall still exist as a nation. The Jews were a state and a nation. The state is destroyed, but there still remains a Jewish nation. I believe that all that is best in us will continue to be, provided that the national soul is strong enough to grow under misfortune. Ah! if I only had faith, confidence!"

A Polish Criticism of German Art.—A characterization of the German artistic sense is made by C. Jellenta in the course of an article in the Polish review *Ateneum* (Cracow). The Germans, he says, are humble and meek before great names. With them, artistic piety replaces an intuition, but the results are not always happy. Led on by the attraction of some great name, they bow before the works of the genius, striving to follow his ideals. They may accomplish this, but individually they have no voice from within which guides them to a comprehension of the beautiful. Another article on the same general subject of German art appears in the Polish magazine *Przegland Polski* (Cracow), by J. Flach.

THE NEW BOOKS.

NOTES ON RECENT AMERICAN PUBLICATIONS.

AMERICAN BIOGRAPHY.

ADMIRAL SCHLEY'S book of memoirs,—"Forty-five Years Under the Flag" (Appletons),—is a record of varied and honorable service in the United States navy, of which the battle off Santiago, in 1898, was the culminating incident. The story begins before the Civil War, with an account of the writer's training at Annapolis and a cruise to Japan. Then followed, in 1861-63, the fighting under Farragut in the South, and later a cruise to South and Central America. In the early '70's came an opportunity to see service under Admiral Porter in the far East. Those were eventful years in the young officer's career, and the experience then gained, increased by another decade of cruising, contributed not a little to the equipment of Commander Schley for the responsibilities of the Greely relief expedition to the Arctic regions in 1884. After the work of that expedition had been successfully performed, there was a long period of shore duty, broken by such incidents as the visit of the *Baltimore*, under Schley's command, to Chilean waters during the revolution of 1892, followed by several years of cruising prior to the outbreak of the Spanish-American War, in 1898. Admiral Schley's account of his part in that war, much of which has been a matter of bitter controversy in our navy, is dignified and modest. It can hardly give offense. Throughout the narrative, the use of the first person is studiously avoided. In form, as well as in substance, Admiral Schley's book meets the familiar test of autobiography. It is "what a biography ought to be."



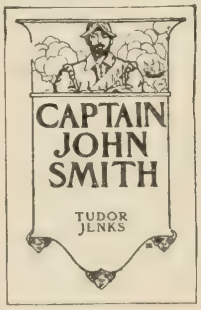
ADMIRAL WINFIELD S. SCHLEY.

Dr. S. Weir Mitchell's clever book, "The Youth of Washington" (Century), is an attempt to cast in the mold of an autobiography the important facts in the early life and times of the Father of his Country. Only one who had made a minute study of Washington's literary style would be able to point out inconsistencies in the excellent imitation that Dr. Mitchell has given us. Those who have never been profoundly impressed by the few literary effusions that have come down to us bearing the stamp of Washington's personality will discover in these memoirs not a little evidence of a genuine skill in the art of putting things. The fact that such skill, while it might have been Washington's, is really Dr. Mitchell's, should not be disconcerting. Never before was the story of Washington's youth so cleverly told; never before has the narrative conformed so unswervingly to historic truth.



S. WEIR MITCHELL.

The late Augustus C. Buell had been a lifelong student of the career of Andrew Jackson. The history of that worthy, completed by Mr. Buell only a few weeks before his death, last summer, has been brought out in two handsome volumes by the Scribners. This work offers a convincing refutation of the long-accepted notion that Jackson was a mere accident in American politics. Mr. Buell shows conclusively that by the time Jackson had reached the age of forty,—more than a score of years before he attained the Presidency,—there were few opportunities of public preferment that he had not grasped. Member of Congress, United States Senator, judge of the Supreme Court of his State, and influential leader in the councils of his party, Andrew Jackson, in 1807, was as clearly destined for a political future as at any subsequent time, although the battle of New Orleans was yet to be fought. All this and much more Mr. Buell sets in bold relief in the extremely interesting account of his hero's fortunes that this history sets forth.



COVER DESIGN.
(Reduced.)

That hero of the American schoolboy, Captain John Smith, is the subject of an entertaining biography by Tudor Jenks (Century). No attempt is made by this writer to make a display of his own erudition at the expense of Captain Smith's reputation for veracity. Such, indeed, has been the practice of Smith's biographers almost without exception, but Mr. Jenks prefers to accept the valiant captain's "True Relation" and "Generall Historie of Virginia" as fairly accurate records, in the main. That school of historians which has developed the theory that the Pocahontas story was pure fiction will find little comfort in Mr. Jenks' pages, for he treats the story as eminently probable and natural. In this, as in other instances of retaining statements classed by other writers as apocryphal, Mr. Jenks appeals to all fair-minded readers by the reasonableness of his arguments.

ESSAYS AND CRITICISM.

The third volume of George Saintsbury's "History of Criticism and Literary Taste in Europe" (Dodd, Mead) is entitled "Modern Criticism." It covers the work of the nineteenth century. The first volume included a history of the critical work of two thousand years, and the second from the Renaissance "to the decline of

eighteenth-century orthodoxy." Professor Saintsbury's name on the title-page is evidence of the exhaustive and scholarly manner in which the theme is developed.

The Wampum Library of American Literature, which Prof. Brander Matthews is editing for Longmans, Green & Co., begins with a volume entitled "American Short Stories," which have been selected and edited, with an introductory essay on the short story, by Dr. Charles Sears Baldwin, of Yale. The collection, we are informed in the preface, is not intended to include the best American short stories; it seeks "to exhibit a development."

Miss Agnes Repplier is one of the few living masters—or mistresses—of essay-writing. Her books are full of stimulus to thought, of charming humor and felicitous quotation. "Compromises" (Houghton, Mifflin) is her latest volume, and it will not detract from her reputation for graceful thought-provoking essays.



MISS AGNES REPPLIER.

A handsome edition of the "Canterbury Tales" has been issued by Fox, Duffield & Co. The immortal tales of Chaucer,—the best of them,—have been rendered into almost modern prose by Percy Mackaye, author of "The Canterbury Pilgrims." The famous Prologue and ten of the stories appear with some fine pictures in color by Walter Appleton Clark.

Dr. Hamilton W. Mabie has gathered some more of his nourishing, thought-provoking essays into a volume, under the title "Nature and Culture" (Dodd, Mead). Mr. Mabie's style is well known to the readers of this magazine. Culture, says Mr. Mabie, instead of being "an artificial or superficial accomplishment, is the only and inevitable process by which a man comes into possession of his own nature, and into real and fruitful relations with the world about him." This volume is very attractive typographically, and very handsomely illustrated.

Mr. Brander Matthews has written a small volume of delightful essays under the title of "Recreations of an Anthologist" (Dodd, Mead). The papers on plagiarism and "Unwritten Books" are particularly good.

Miss Carolyn Wells, that born anthologist, has brought out an excellent collection of parodies in verse, under the title "A Parody Anthology" (Scribners). All the famous "hits" at other famous masterpieces are included in this collection. Parody, Miss Wells contends, in her introduction, is a true and legitimate branch of art "whose appreciation depends upon the mental bias of the individual." To enjoy parody, she further says, "one must have an intense sense of the humorous, and a humorous sense of the intense; and this, of course, presupposes a mental attitude of wide tolerance and liberal judgments." The collection begins with H. W. Boynton's excellent parody, "The Golfer's Rubaiyat," and concludes with "An Old Song by New Singers," being pokes at Austin Dobson, Robert Browning, Longfellow, Andrew Lang, and Swinburne,—all by A. C. Wilkie. Some excellent index and reference matter completes the volume. Miss Wells, by the way, has also written a little volume of her own,—full of fun,—under the title "Folly for the Wise" (Bobbs-Merrill), dedicated to "those who are wise enough to know folly when they see her."



MISS CAROLYN WELLS.

A serviceable collection of "British Poets of the Nineteenth Century" (B. H. Sanborn) has been edited, with reference lists, by Dr. Curtis Hidden Page, of Columbia University. This book is intended to give in one volume all the material required for a college or university course in the British poets of that period.

"Readings from Modern Mexican Authors," by Frederick Starr (Open Court Publishing Company), was well worth doing. The literature and journalism of our neighbor republic is too little known to Americans. In this little volume, Mr. Starr has given representative selections from living Mexican writers,—all living except Icazbalceta and Altamirano, who died several years ago, but whose work belongs, of course, to the modern school. The selections from each author are preceded by a brief biographical note and an outline portrait. Every selection is Mexican in topic and in color; together, the selections form "a series of Mexican pictures painted by Mexican hands."

SHORT STORIES.

A weird, powerful story with a moral (a distinct moral, though not an obtrusive one), is Mark Twain's famous "Dog's Tale," which appeared in *Harper's Magazine* a year or so ago. It was an appeal for the dog like that made by "Black Beauty" for the horse, and is especially launched against vivisection. It is now issued in book form (Harpers), with colored illustrations by W. F. Smedley. Another book which is a tribute to canine intelligence and worth comes to our attention at the same time—Maeterlinck's "Our Friend the Dog" (Dodd, Mead). This story, contributed by the Belgian Shakespeare, is one which is not only readable, but which ought to be read.

Mr. Seymour Eaton's "Dan Black, Editor and Proprietor," is a strong, refreshing story. It is virile, and, while Robert Barr's statement that it is the best story of the decade may not be quite justified, it is certainly unconventional and vigorous enough to be in very agreeable contrast to the vast majority of latter-day stories. The story originally appeared in the *Booklover's Magazine*, and is now issued by the publishers of that periodical in book form, illustrated with pen drawings.

BOOKS ABOUT JAPAN AND THE WAR.

Mr. Alfred Stead has performed a noteworthy service to students of the far East by compiling his "Japan by the Japanese" (Dodd, Mead). In his preface, he points out the number of misleading books and magazine articles which have been written about Japan, and the comparatively small number of authoritative works on

the country and the people. At present, and for some time past, he says, the Japanese have been so busy making Japan a great state that they have had no time to write books. This fact, that the Japanese are a serious people, despite the dainty and quaint things that have been written about them, suggested to Mr. Stead the idea of inducing the Japanese to write a book about themselves. He therefore went to Japan, and suggested the idea to several of the leading men. A number of statesmen responded to his appeal for special contributions, some of them selecting some of their most important public utterances. The volume begins with a number of important imperial edicts and rescripts by the Emperor. The story of Japanese growth and politics is written by the Marquis Ito; the national policy under the constitution, by Field Marshal Yamagata; the army, by Field Marshal Oyama: foreign policy, by Count Okuma; finance, by Count Inouye; commerce and industry, by Baron Shibusawa; art and letters, by Baron Suyematsu, and "The Organization of a Constitutional State," by Baron Kentaro Kaneko. The volume is a rather bulky one of seven hundred pages, with a very good index.

"The Mission of Japan and the Russo-Japanese War," by the Rev. Kota Hoshino, is a presentation, in brief compass, of the Japanese position in the present war, and the task which she has set herself to accomplish in the far East. Mr. Hoshino was baptized a Christian in his early youth, and is at present pastor of the Ryogku Christian Church in Tokio. Japan's mission, he declares, is to prove to the world that modern civilization is not local, but universal; to harmonize Eastern and Western thought; to regenerate China and Korea; and to promote the peace and commerce of the East. He believes that she will be victorious in her war with Russia, but asserts that she needs Christianity,—(1) to make a right use of her political and educational institutions; (2) for her industrial and commercial development; (3) for successful colonization. This little volume is printed in English by the Fukuin Printing Company, of Yokohama.

We knew it was coming! We mean the book on jiu-jitsu, the famous Japanese art of wrestling. It is entitled "Jiu-Jitsu Combat Tricks" (Putnams), and has been prepared by H. Irving Hancock, author of "Japanese Physical Training," etc. The book is illustrated with thirty-two photographs taken from life.

POPULAR SCIENCE.

Dr. C. W. Saleeby has applied a really fascinating style and lucid way of thinking to a popular exposition of some of the facts of modern science. This he calls "The Cycle of Life" (Scribners), "being a series of essays designed to bring science home to men's business and bosoms." The essays deal chiefly with the greater problems of the universe, among them "The Living Cell," "Atoms and Evolution," "Space," "The Future of the Mongol," "The Living Garment of God," etc. The volume is illustrated.

A capital little volume is Mr. James Franklin Chamberlain's "How We Are Clothed" (Macmillan). This is sub-headed "A Geographical Reader." It traces clothing back to its origin, and thus takes the pupil to lands all over the world. "The relation between the physical and the life conditions,—real geography,—will thus be logically and interestingly developed."

Mr. W. N. Baker's latest work is entitled "British Sewage Works" (Engineering News Publishing Company). It is the result of a recent personal investigation of British works for the treatment of sewage, and has a brief introduction which outlines the general status of sewage treatment in Great Britain, showing how conditions there differ from those prevailing in the United States. To this is added some notes on the sewage farms of Paris, and on two German works. Mr. Baker, it will be remembered, is associate editor of *Engineering News*, and the author of a number of books on sanitary engineering, including "Sewage Purification in America," "Potable Water," "Municipal Engineering and Sanitation," and others.

DESCRIPTIONS OF FOREIGN LANDS.

Prof. W. Deecke's scholarly work on Italy, including Malta and Sardinia, which is really a popular account of the country, its people, and its institutions, has been translated by H. W. Nesbitt, and is imported by the Macmillans. The work is copiously illustrated with general views and numerous maps. The translator believes that this is the most important work of recent years, as showing how real progress is being made in Italy in spite of the dead weight of the taxation.

The first volume of the series "Our Asiatic Neighbors," which William Harbutt Dawson is editing for the Putnams, is "Indian Life in Town and Country," by Herbert Compton. This little book is packed full of information about the life of the average man and woman in India, and is copiously illustrated.

OUT-OF-DOOR LIFE AND ADVENTURE.

"Sportsman Joe," by Edwyn Sandys, author of "Trapper Jim," etc., is the account of an expedition to the heart of the woods by a New York business man, under the guidance of "one of God's own noblemen, even though he may appear a bit roughened by Western life." The volume (Macmillan) is illustrated with some lively pictures and suggestive diagrams.

The American Sportsman's Library, edited by Caspar Whitney, and published by the Macmillans, has been augmented by a volume on "Guns, Ammunition, and Tackle," written by Capt. A. W. Money and several other authorities on these subjects. The book is full of useful information, and is handsomely illustrated.

HISTORY, POLITICS, LAW, AND ECONOMICS.

It is impossible to form a judgment of the ten-volume history of the United States by William Estabrook Chancellor and Fletcher Willis Hewes (Putnams) from the single volume of the work that has thus far been given to the public. But it may be said that in this first volume the ground has been covered in an interesting way; that the proportions of the narrative have been wisely adjusted, and that discrimination has been used in the selection of materials. The period covered by this first volume is practically the first century of colonization, and the arrangement of the material differs from that of the ordinary colonial history. Part I., for example, is entitled "Population and Politics," and treats of the native races of America, as well as of the early supremacy of Spain, the rise of England as a sea power, the founding of the English colony in Virginia, the Dutch settlement in New York, and the beginnings of New England. Part II. is entirely devoted to wars with the Indians and King William's War of 1688-97. Part III., entitled "Industry," gives an interesting summary of early colonial agriculture, manufactures, and shipbuilding. Part IV. is given up to a discussion of

seventeenth-century civilization in America, under the heads of "Religion and Morality," "Education," "Literature," and "Social Life." The volume is indexed and supplied with numerous references and notes in fine print. The authors promise to present, in succeeding volumes, chapters dealing with those aspects of European history which essentially concern the progress of events in America.

A work that long ago made a place for itself as an authority on the American aborigines is the late Lewis H. Morgan's "League of the Iroquois." Published more than half a century ago, this treatise has never been superseded by any scientific treatment of the history, manners, and customs of the Indian tribes to which it relates. A new edition of the two volumes in one has recently been brought out by Messrs. Dodd, Mead & Co., the editorial work having been performed by Mr. Herbert M. Lloyd. In the new matter added to this edition are personal reminiscences of Mr. Morgan, sketches of his life and discoveries, a complete list of his writings, and much other interesting and important material.

"Presidential Problems" is the title of a volume containing four essays by ex-President Cleveland, two of which were originally delivered as addresses at Princeton University, while the other two appeared as magazine articles. In this volume, published by the Century Company, all four of the essays have been thoroughly revised by Mr. Cleveland. The first, on "The Independence of the Executive," is an important discussion of a constitutional question which occupied the thought of the founders of our government as much, perhaps, as any other one topic. Mr. Cleveland's review of his own experience in the Presidential chair, immediately after assuming office, in 1885, is a contribution to history. The same may be said of his paper on "The Government in the Chicago Strike of 1894," his defense of the bond issues in the years 1894–96, and his account of the Venezuelan boundary controversy of 1895.

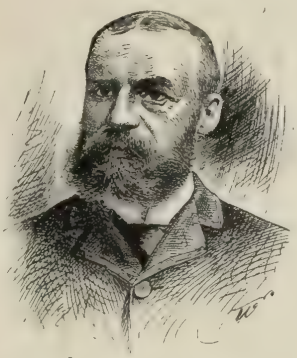
"The Art of Cross-Examination," by Mr. Francis L. Wellman, of the New York bar (Macmillan), is a unique contribution to the literature of the legal profession. It does not pretend to be a "treatise" of the ordinary dry-as-dust, sheep-bound kind, although the young lawyer will find it full of suggestions that may prove quite as valuable in his practice as anything that he can dig out of his more formal "text-books," but it is a popular exposition of a subject that has a fascinating interest even for the unprofessional citizen. In the revised edition there are five new chapters, including the records of several famous cross-examinations.



MR. FRANCIS L. WELLMAN.

In preparing his study of "The Monroe Doctrine" (Little, Brown), Mr. T. B. Edington, of the Memphis bar, declares that he had in mind "rescuing the American people from a distortion of their unwritten laws, which are traditional in character, like all other forms of tradition, and which ultimately become a matter of great uncertainty and doubt." Mr. Edington treats the famous doctrine rather from the legal standpoint.

Mr. Edward Kirk Rawson's book, "Twenty Famous Naval Battles" (Crowell), has been issued in a single volume, without abridgment. The sub-title, "From Salamis to Santiago," indicates the scope of the work and the recentness of its completion. Professor Rawson is superintendent of the United States War Records, U.S.N. The volume is illustrated with plans, old prints, maps, and portraits. It is also supplemented by notes and appendices.



EDWARD KIRK RAWSON.

In the exceedingly useful little series of "Handbooks of American Government" (Macmillan), Prof. Wilbur H. Siebert deals with "The Government of Ohio: Its History and Administration." The plan of this work, like that followed in Professor Morey's "Government of New York," of the same series, comprises a treatment of the growth, structure, and work of the State government. The publication of the book has been delayed in order to make the changes in the text necessitated by the revision of the school code, election laws, etc., by the Ohio Legislature of 1904.

Justin McCarthy, author of "A History of Our Own Times," has written out his life-work and experiences in a substantial volume entitled "An Irishman's Story" (Macmillan). The chapter "My Life in America" is full of appreciation for the warmth of the reception the Irish leader met with in the United States.

Mr. Dana C. Monroe, of the University of Wisconsin, has compiled, from Latin authorities, "A Source Book on Roman History" (Heath). The extracts in the volume are intended to be used in connection with a text-book on Roman history.

A history and description of Westminster Abbey, painted by John Fulleylove, R.I., and described by Mrs. A. Murray Smith (author of "The Annals of Westminster Abbey"), has been issued by Adam and Charles Black, of London, and imported by the Macmillans. It is illustrated with twenty-one full-page plates in color.

"A History of the Ancient World," by Prof. George T. Goodspeed, of the University of Chicago (Scribners), is a text-book adapted for use in high schools and academies. In the arrangement of material, and particularly in the matter of illustration, the book marks a notable advance in text-book literature.

A university edition of Prof. Francis Newton Thorpe's "Constitutional History of the United States" is published this fall (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.). This compact volume narrates the constitutional history both of the Union and of the States, showing the common basis of American local and general government. In his chapters on the State constitutions, Professor Thorpe directs our attention to a subject often neglected or sparingly treated in text-books of this character.

The latest college text-book of political economy is Prof. Frank A. Fetter's work entitled "The Principles of Economics, with Applications to Practical Problems" (Century). This book, the author tells us, grew out of a series of discussions supplementing a text used in a college class-room some years ago. The purpose of these discussions was to amend certain theoretical views even then generally questioned by economists, and to present the most recent opinions on some other questions. The author's presentation of the general theory of distribution is fresh and exceptionally interesting.

In "Modern Industrialism" (Appletons), Prof. Frank L. McVey, of the University of Minnesota, attempts to show what the history of modern industrialism has been in England, America, and Germany; how complicated industry is in the machinery of production, exchange, and distribution, and, finally, what problems arise in the very nature of the complicated organization with which states are forced to deal. Such a work ought to find a useful place as a university or college text-book.

"The Era of Greed and Graft," by Levi Griffen Meushaw, is a graphic and interesting presentation of the old, old struggle of the masses against the classes. It is further interesting in the fact that it has been produced by "union-paid labor from cover to cover, with the allied trades label."

A manual of "Argumentation and Debate" (Macmillan) has been prepared by Craven Laycock and Robert L. Scales, of the faculty of Dartmouth College. The work is divided into two parts, the first being a discussion of the general principles of argumentation (applicable alike to written and to spoken discourse), and the second being devoted to "the setting forth of certain additional precepts peculiar to oral debate."

RELIGION AND ETHICS.

Dr. Washington Gladden's latest book is entitled "Where Does the Sky Begin?" (Houghton, Mifflin). It consists of a series of discussions of great spiritual themes, with the purpose of bringing these very close to man's daily life. "The sky comes down to earth, and so do many other things which our thoughts usually put far away."

Margaret E. Sangster has written a life of Christ for little people under the title "That Sweet Story of Old" (Revell). This includes all the facts given in the Four Gospels, told in modern style. The book is well illustrated.

Count Toltsoy's ringing letter on war (the best portions of which were reproduced in an article in the REVIEW OF REVIEWS for August) has been published by Ginn & Co. for the International Peace Union.

"THE UNIT BOOKS."

The excellent features of "The Unit Book" plan, and the serviceable qualities of the volumes already issued, have already been set forth in this review. The latest issues are Renan's "Life of Jesus," Trench's "Study of Words," Mrs. Trollope's "Domestic Manners of the Americans," and "A Collection of National Documents." The first three titles are too well known to need characterization here. It is proper to say, however, that those reprints, in neat, simple typographical form, have been very judiciously and helpfully edited, with valuable supplementary matter, by way of explanation of the text. All three are books well worth preservation. "National Documents" is a collection of treaties, charters, declarations, messages, addresses, and proclamations famous in our national history. The book has a good index and some helpful annotations.

BOOKS RECENTLY RECEIVED.

Bacon's Advancement of Learning. Book I. By Albert S. Cook. Ginn & Co.
Balance: The Fundamental Verity. By Orlando J. Smith. Houghton, Mifflin.
Beauty Through Hygiene. By Emma E. Walker. Barnes.
Best English Poems. By Adam L. Gowans. Crowell.
Bethink Yourselves! (Count Tolstoy's arraignment of war and bloodshed.) Crowell.
Comedies and Legends for Marionettes. By Georgiana Goddard King. Macmillan.
Essays of Joseph Addison. By Hamilton Wright Mabie. Crowell.
Expert Maid-Servant, The. By Christine Terhune Herrick. Harpers.
Favorite Greek Myths. By Lillian S. Hyde. Heath.
Finding the Way. By J. R. Miller, D.D. Crowell.
Good of the Wicked. By Owen Kildare. Baker, Taylor.
Henry IV., Part I. (The Arden Shakespeare.) Heath.
Hints on Revolver Shooting. By Walter Winans. Putnams.
Honesty with the Bible. By Prescott White. Acme Publishing Co.
House and Home. By Miss M. E. Carter. Barnes.
How to Bring Up Our Boys. By S. A. Nicoll. Crowell.
Inner Life, The. By J. R. Miller. Crowell.
Junior Topics Outlined, 1905: United Society of Christian Endeavor.
Letters of Lord Chesterfield. By C. Welsh. Crowell.
Lost Art of Reading, The. By W. R. Nicoll. Crowell.
Messages of the Masters, The. By Amory H. Bradford. Crowell.
Mixed Beasts. By Kenyon Cox. Fox, Duffield.
Morning Thoughts to Cheer the Day. By Maria H. Le Row. Little, Brown.
Our Christmastides. By Theodore L. Cuyler. Baker, Taylor.
Pagan's Progress, The. By Gouverneur Morris. Barnes.
Pomes of the Peepul. By T. S. Denison.
Primer of Library Practice for Junior Assistants, A. By George E. Roebuck and William B. Thorne. Putnams.
Secret History of To-day. By Allen Upward. Putnams.
Semiramis and Other Plays. By Dargen. Brentano.
Sheridan's Comedies: The Rivals, and The School for Scandal. Crowell.
Silences of the Master, The. By John Walker Powell. Jennings & Graham.
Songs from the Dramatists. By Robert Bell. Crowell.
Star of Bethlehem, The. By C. M. Gayley. Fox, Duffield.
Starting Points. By John Horne. Jennings & Graham.
Stories of King Arthur and His Knights. Crowell.
Stories of Robin Hood. By J. Walker McSpadden. Crowell.
Studies in the Gospel According to Mark. By Ernest De Witt Burton. University of Chicago Press.
Synopses of Dickens' Novels. By J. Walker McSpadden. Crowell.
Teaching of Jesus Concerning the God Father, The. By Archibald Thomas Robertson. American Tract Society.
Tutonish. By Elias Molee.
Twenty-five Ghost Stories. By Bob Holland. Ogilvie.
Wordsworth's Shorter Poems. By Edward Fulton. Macmillan.

THE AMERICAN MONTHLY REVIEW OF REVIEWS.
EDITED BY ALBERT SHAW.

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THÉOPHILE DELCASSÉ, FRENCH MINISTER OF FOREIGN AFFAIRS.

(M. Delcassé, who is journalist, author, diplomat, and member of the French cabinet since 1894, is the man to whom more than to any other is due the triumph of peace in the reference to a court of inquiry of the North Sea dispute between Great Britain and Russia. He gave form and effectiveness to the earnest desire for peace of the Czar of Russia and the King of England. In 1899, M. Delcassé acted as mediator between the United States and Spain.)

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THE PROGRESS OF THE WORLD.

Mr. Roosevelt's Great Vote of Confidence.

President Roosevelt's election by the largest popular majority ever given in the country is a fact that many people have explained in many different ways; but, whatever the explanation, it has caused few to express either shocked surprise or sullen discontent. On the contrary, there has been a hearty acquiescence in the result that exceeds, if possible, that which was so noteworthy when Mr. McKinley was reëlected in 1900. It is the opinion of intelligent observers throughout the world that the people of the United States are to be congratulated. Our form of government stands in higher estimation when in its practical working it brings men of notable fitness into the places of chief authority.

A Victory for the Plain People.

American public opinion won a great triumph when it compelled the Republican party to accord the nomination to Theodore Roosevelt in spite of the preferences and efforts of a majority of the party's leaders and professional politicians. The real campaign was not that of 1904, but that of 1903. The plain people of the country wished for a chance to elect Mr. Roosevelt as President. Under existing conditions, this chance could only come through the nominating machinery of the Republican party. The great victory, then, of November 8 was something more than a triumph of the Republican party as such. If the formidable movement of the politicians last year to defeat Mr. Roosevelt and to nominate Mr. Hanna or some one else had been successful, there is nothing in what has now happened to render it by any means certain that the Republican party would have been victorious. With a good candidate, the Democrats might have won.

Our Foremost Public Character.

But there was never the smallest chance of beating Mr. Roosevelt at the polls this year, no matter what man might have been nominated against him. He combines so many elements of popularity that he now stands in our national affairs as the one conspicuous figure, with no close second in sight. He has always been a loyal enough member of his party; but in spite of himself he is a man of the whole people rather than of a party. The country likes his vigor, and it believes implicitly in his honesty. Furthermore, the country thoroughly approves of that combination of the serious-minded man and the optimist which is so typical of our national life at this time, and which Mr. Roosevelt exemplifies more completely than any one else. Thus one might comment through many pages; but what was plain to many of us long ago is now clear as daylight to everybody, and there is no need to multiply words. For many months past it had been frequently remarked in this magazine that the voters had made up their minds and were merely waiting for election day. This proved to be plainly true. The campaign committees were diligent on both sides, but this year it was not in their power greatly to make or to mar the situation. It was all a foregone conclusion.

The Result Foreseen in Business Circles.

For a number of days before election the shrewd and discerning leaders of the business world had laid aside every shadow of a doubt, and given their attention to commercial affairs as if there were no such thing as a political campaign. It was well known in financial circles that Mr. August Belmont himself,—of the Democratic Executive Committee, and chief financial promoter and supporter of the Parker candidacy,—had regarded the defeat of his ticket as inevitable. The market for shares in railway and industrial corporations was rising steadily for days before the election, and had practically before November 8 attained the strong advance that it has since held with every sign of continuance.

A Campaign of Intelligence.

The Republican campaign up to the very end was an appeal to the country to stand firm by its faith in the President and to give indorsement to the general policies which he and his supporters in the

cabinet and in Congress regard as sound and good for the country. The President's own utterances formed the leading campaign literature; and, next to documents like Mr. Roosevelt's letter of acceptance, the chief stress was laid upon the circulation of brochures such as well-printed editions of dignified addresses by Secretary Hay and ex-Secretary Root. It was a campaign of intelligence, and not one of sound and furor,—still less one of bribery and corruption.

The Closing Incident.

In the last days of the campaign, the Democrats made an exceedingly ill-advised attempt to create the impression that the Republicans were endeavoring to obtain a victory by the wholesale purchase of voters. The Democratic charges took two forms not wholly consistent with each other. First, it was charged that Mr. Cortelyou as campaign chairman had, before resigning from the Secretaryship of Commerce and Labor, used the powers of his office to possess himself of a vast deal of inside information regarding the great industrial corporations, and that in his capacity as campaign manager he had made use of this information practically to extort as blackmail from the corporations great sums with which to buy the election. The other charge was that the administration had practically surrendered to Wall Street as regards its future policy toward corporations, and that the "magnates" and "plutocrats" had therefore of their own free will decided to elect Mr. Roosevelt, and accordingly had contributed the necessary money with which to secure the desired result. The Democratic candidate, Judge Parker, had the misfortune to be led into the making of these charges in a series of speeches with which he tardily broke his long campaign silence just before election day.



THE SUCCESSFUL CANDIDATES.

(Reduced from the large campaign poster sent everywhere by the Republican National Committee.)

The President's Notable Statement.

There was deep indignation in the Republican camp, and for some days the question on every lip was whether or not Mr. Cortelyou would make reply. This question was answered in a somewhat unexpected form when on Saturday morning, November 5, three days before the election, there appeared in all the newspapers a statement to the American people issued from the White House and signed "Theodore Roosevelt,"—a statement very explicit and full, taking more than a column of newspaper type, and beginning with the following paragraph:

> Certain slanderous accusations as to Mr. Cortelyou and myself have been repeated time and again by Judge Parker, the candidate of his party for the office of President. He neither has produced nor can produce any proof of their truth; yet he has not withdrawn them; and as his position gives them wide currency, I speak now lest the silence of self-respect be misunderstood.

The President then set forth the charges and the questions at issue, after which he denied them in language as explicit and emphatic as any man has ever put into a public utterance. He explained that Mr. Cortelyou had been chosen as chairman of the National Committee only after Mr. Elihu Root, Mr. W. Murray Crane, and Mr. Cornelius Bliss had declined to take the position. The country, indeed, could not well fail to remember that very many of the newspapers which were joining with Judge Parker in making the charges had originally praised Mr. Cortelyou's selection as one that insured a conscientious and high-minded Republican campaign. The President concluded his denial with the following sentences:

> The statements made by Mr. Parker are unqualifiedly and atrociously false. As Mr. Cortelyou has said to me more than once during this campaign, if elected I shall go into the Presidency unhampered by any

pledge, promise, or understanding of any kind, sort, or description, save my promise, made openly to the American people, that so far as in my power lies I shall see to it that every man has a square deal, no less and no more.

Judge Parker's Ineffective Reply.

This pronunciamento, which was perhaps without a parallel in our campaign annals, made a profound impression. It was read aloud in political meetings great and small in every part of the country If it had appeared one or two days later, it might have been said that Judge Parker was given no opportunity to reply. But since it was given to all the Parker newspapers on Friday evening, a copy of it was in the judge's hands in advance of its appearance Saturday morning ; and he availed himself of the opportunity to inform the public on Saturday morning, side by side with the appearance of the President's statement, that he would make his reply at a meeting in Brooklyn on that same evening. His statement was carefully prepared and given to the press for Sunday morning publication, so that it was printed in even larger and more widely distributed editions of the newspapers than was the President's statement of Saturday. It was eminently characteristic of Mr. Roosevelt that he should have given his opponent this ample opportunity to reach the public before election day. It was rather commonly supposed that the Democratic committee was in possession of some concrete instances of campaign contributions from well-known corporation leaders that would seem to lend color to the charges, and that the candidate would bring these things out in his reply. Judge Parker's statement was a long one, filling nearly three newspaper columns ; but it proved to be merely a lawyer's argumentative and inferential discussion. It assumed all the facts, and then drew injurious conclusions from them. It was entirely well known at Washington, as the President also emphatically stated, that Mr. Cortelyou's preliminary work as Secretary of Commerce had not included any acquisition of corporation secrets.

The Charges Repeated.

Yet Judge Parker's whole argument in reply was based upon his repetition of the same charge,—with no pretense of giving any facts,—that the President had placed his private secretary in a position to get corporation secrets, and had then chosen him campaign chairman in order to force money from the trusts with which to buy the election. But let Mr. Parker speak for himself, for the following is the language he used in his statement of Saturday, November 5, made public in the newspapers of the following morning :

The President placed at the head of this great department—empowered to probe the secrets of all the trusts and corporations engaged in interstate commerce —his private secretary, who held that position for some months, when he resigned and was made chairman of the National Committee.

Now, these facts are not challenged in the statement of the President, nor can they be. The statute was passed and money was appropriated to probe the trusts ; Cortelyou was appointed at the head of it. He was without experience in national politics, and yet the President says in his statement, "I chose Mr. Cortelyou as chairman of the National Committee."

Now that this intended crime against the franchise has been exposed in time, now that the contributions of this money by these great monopolies looking for the continuance of old favors, or seeking new ones, stands admitted, now that these contributions have been made in such sums as to induce and permit the most lavish expenditures ever made, we, as a people, will fail in our duty if we shall not rebuke at the polls this latest and most flagrant attempt to control the election—not for legitimate business conducted for proper ends—but in order that the few may still further strengthen their hold upon our industries. We shall rue it, if, as a people, we do not make this rebuke so emphatic that the offense will never again be repeated.

What the Public Remembered.

As against the President's emphatic denial, Judge Parker's repetition of his charges without a single citation of fact to support them produced a veritable consternation in the ranks of his followers, and undoubtedly contributed not a little to the completeness of his defeat. After all, there were certain recent political facts of historic note that the American people could not forget. It was known, for instance, from one end of the country to the other, that the great fight of last year, carried on for the most part quietly and beneath the surface within the Republican party, was a fight on the part of the trusts and corporate interests to prevent Mr. Roosevelt's nomination. It was equally well known that those very same trusts and corporate interests, following the advice of a group of New York corporation lawyers, had selected Judge Parker as the man to bring forward for the Democratic nomination. It was too much to expect that the country, in a brief three or four months, should have forgotten the circumstances of Judge Parker's nomination, as set forth in unsparing characterizations by Mr. Bryan, by the Hearst newspapers, and by many other exponents of the Democratic party. In short, the most conspicuous fact in President Roosevelt's recent public career had been the opposition to him of the great concentrated capitalistic interests ; while the one conspicuous fact in Judge Parker's position before the country had been his selection as a candidate by those very interests in pursuance of their anti-Roosevelt programme.

The Attitude of Business Men.

It is probably true that before election day arrived a good many men identified with large business undertakings who had previously been opposed to Mr. Roosevelt had come to the conclusion that it would be better for the interests they represented to keep the Republican party in power for another four years. However that may be, President Roosevelt had not compromised his position with respect to the public oversight and control of great corporations, nor had he wavered with respect to his duty or his policy touching the prosecution of illegal or oppressive monopolies under the terms of the Sherman anti-trust law. As for Mr. Cortelyou's appointment, it came as an afterthought, and had been very properly commended by the country in general because of Mr. Cortelyou's highmindedness and his close association with President Roosevelt in his public acts and policies. These facts, which come within the month now under review in these pages, are not here recited in order to keep alive the controversies of the campaign, but simply because they constitute an important part of those events of an historical nature that belong properly to our record. Doubtless there were many contributors to the Republican fund who are wealthy men and are prominent in corporations of one kind or another; but certainly no one will arise to deny that the management of the Democratic campaign was absolutely in the hands of men conspicuously connected with great corporation interests, and that there was never a thought, when Mr. Parker was nominated at St. Louis, that the Democratic fund would be chiefly derived from other sources.

Growth of Independent Voting.

Upon one thing the country is to be congratulated. It was on both sides chiefly a campaign of appeal to the minds and convictions of the voters, and there was greater indication than ever before that the American citizen is thinking for himself and acting with freedom from party trammel and prejudice. However true it may be that in a country like ours two permanent and well-organized parties are necessary, it cannot be too boldly said that even more necessary is the freedom of intelligent voters, not merely to fluctuate between parties, but to vote according to their convictions, from time to time, about individual men and particular measures. In a recent campaign, the freedom of the voters expressed itself in their action regarding a public measure,—namely, the monetary standard. In the election of last month, on the other hand, the freedom of the voters expressed itself in preference for a man. It was not that the voters were repudiating Judge Parker, for whom they entertained a courteous and kindly feeling (except as this feeling may have changed on account of his charges at the end of the campaign), but rather that they were indorsing Mr. Roosevelt and his administration. Judge Parker early on election evening sent the President the following well-expressed telegram:

> The people by their votes have emphatically approved your administration, and I congratulate you.

This, of course, was the true way to interpret the result. It was an indorsement of the President, and a vote of full confidence in his public views and official policies. Further than that, however, the vote was an enthusiastic tribute to Theodore Roosevelt, the man and the citizen. If there had been nothing else to turn the scale, that very considerable element of the young voters casting their first ballot in a Presidential year would have assured the result. The President's hold upon the young men of the country is not confined to any one class. Strong as it is in the schools and colleges, it is probably stronger still on the farm and in the workshop.

An Announcement Regarding 1908.

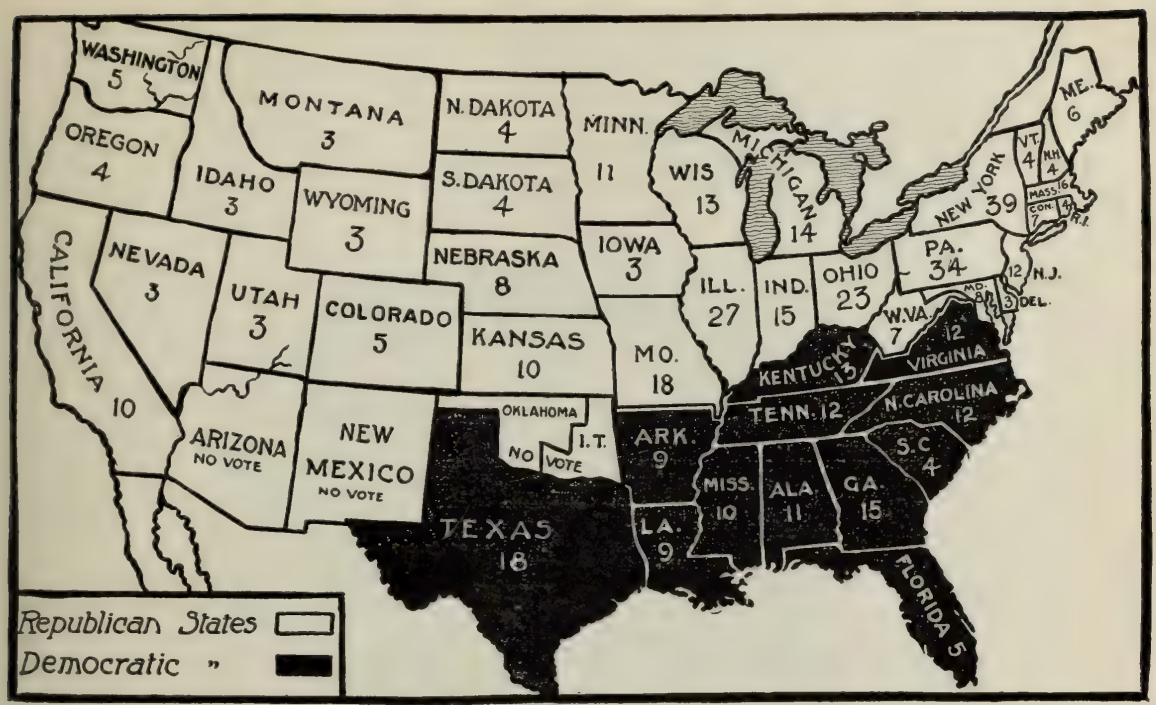
It is highly characteristic of the decisive and effective way in which Mr. Roosevelt does things that he should have chosen the moment of his sweeping and unprecedented victory to make the following announcement:

> WHITE HOUSE, IN WASHINGTON.
>
> I am deeply sensible of the honor done me by the American people in thus expressing their confidence in what I have done and have tried to do. I appreciate to the full the solemn responsibility this confidence imposes upon me, and I shall do all that in my power lies not to forfeit it. On the Fourth of March next I shall have served three and one-half years, and this three and one-half years constitutes my first term. The wise custom which limits the President to two terms regards the substance and not the form. Under no circumstances will I be a candidate for or accept another nomination.

He did not even wait until Wednesday, but gave this statement to the press on Tuesday evening, so that it appeared Wednesday morning in the newspapers which were filled with the news of his unexampled success at the polls.

An Unpledged Administration.

This announcement has great significance when read in connection with the statements explicitly made both by the President and Mr. Cortelyou to the effect that there are no campaign pledges or promises of any kind to be redeemed. Perhaps at no time for three-quarters of a century has a President been elected with such absolute free-



THIS MAP SHOWS THE GEOGRAPHICAL DIVISION OF THE COUNTRY BETWEEN ROOSEVELT AND PARKER.
(Figures mean number of electoral votes.)

dom from any sort of personal or party obligation that could affect the making of appointments or the President's utterances or actions in respect to any public measure. It had already been practically decided and publicly announced that Mr. Cortelyou would in due time be made Postmaster-General, and his return to the cabinet will bear no relation at all to the services rendered by him as manager of the campaign. It is needless to go into particulars regarding the pledges and promises that campaign managers have made in former contests. This year, certainly, none was made on behalf of President Roosevelt. His decision under no circumstances to be a candidate again, served notice upon all men and all interests that no thought of a political future could enter into his public actions during the four years and four months that would intervene between election day and his retirement on March 4, 1909.

Some Details of the Election.

The Roosevelt electors carried all the States that had been regarded as probably Republican, all of those that had been put in the doubtful list, and also took from the column of "sure" Democratic States Missouri, and in part Maryland. At first it was conceded that Maryland had gone Republican; but later it was found that the electoral vote might be divided, and that it would be necessary to await the official count. If Maryland's eight votes should be equally divided, there would be 339 electoral votes for Roosevelt and 137 for Parker. Our diagram shows to the eye at once the striking fact that the Parker electoral votes are all massed in the Southern States. New York, the home State of both Presidential candidates, gave Roosevelt a plurality of about 176,000. West Virginia and Indiana, the home States of the Vice-Presidential candidates,—both of which had been generally regarded as doubtful States but confidently claimed by the Democrats,—gave decisive Republican pluralities. That of Indiana is reported to be well above 90,000, and that of West Virginia about 25,000. Wisconsin, to which the Democrats also laid claim on account of local conditions, gave about 75,000 plurality for Roosevelt. Connecticut and New Jersey, which were in the doubtful column, gave Republican pluralities, respectively, of nearly 40,000 and nearly 75,000.

The Pluralities North and South.

Illinois, far from giving its electoral vote as the Parker management predicted, rolled up a plurality of almost 300,000 for the Roosevelt electors. Pennsylvania's plurality was a little short of 500,000.

Ohio's, in round figures, was 250,000. Iowa came fifth with about 165,000, being only a little behind New York. Michigan, Minnesota, Kansas, and California all gave pluralities well above the 100,000 mark. Political conditions in the Southern States are such that a full vote is seldom polled; so that the pluralities do not signify so much. This is not wholly true of Texas, however, which is reported as having given Parker a plurality of about 190,000. Kentucky, while in recent years firmly Democratic, has a vigorous Republican organization, and the Parker plurality was 14,000. In Virginia it was 25,000, in Louisiana about 35,000, and in Florida about 20,000. In North Carolina, South Carolina, Mississippi, and Georgia it was reported after election that the Parker pluralities were in each case not far from 50,000.



HON. JOHN A. JOHNSON.
(Democratic governor-elect of Minnesota.)

Democratic Governors in Roosevelt States.

The most surprising thing in the election statistics, and one regarded as upon the whole more significant than almost anything else, was the election of Democratic governors in several States that gave large Roosevelt majorities, and the divergence in several other States between the vote on the national ticket and that for State and local candidates. This is to be taken as proving in another way the independent mind that the voters carried into their political action this year, and also the mastery they have finally achieved over the intricacies of the Australian ballot system as now used in most of our States. Thus, no one would have guessed that a Roosevelt plurality of 125,000 in Minnesota might not suffice to pull almost any sort of Republican candidate for the governorship safely through. Yet Mr. Johnson, the Democratic candidate, was elected over Mr. Dunn, his opponent, by a plurality of about 10,000. It was well known that there had been a long and determined contest between two rival candidates, Messrs. Collins and Dunn, in the Republican primaries; but the country had not understood that Mr. Dunn, the nominee, was in serious danger of defeat at the polls. Still more attention has been paid to the surprising results in Massachusetts, where Roosevelt electors had a plurality of 86,000, while the Democratic candidate for governor, Mr. William L. Douglas, defeated Governor Bates by about 36,000. In Massachusetts, as in Minnesota, the other Republican candidates on the State ticket were elected. Again, in Missouri, which the Republican National Committee had no hope of carrying, the voters gave Mr. Roosevelt a plurality of nearly 30,000, while, on the other hand, Mr. Folk, the Democratic candidate for governor, was elected by a plurality as large or even larger. All the other Republican candidates on the Missouri State ticket were elected, and the new legislature will have a Republican majority, with the consequence that Missouri's veteran Senator, Mr. Cockrell, will be superseded at Washington by a Republican. The result in Colorado was not a surprise, since it had been predicted by well-informed observers that while President Roosevelt would carry the State, Governor Peabody would probably fail of reëlection. The labor vote was against him, and his opponent, ex-Governor Adams, was victorious. In Montana, also, there was a general Republican victory, accompanied by the election of Toole, the Democratic candidate for governor. In each of five States, therefore, which gave decisive pluralities for Roosevelt, the people chose to select a Democrat for the highest executive office of the commonwealth.

Other Instances of Divergence.

Rhode Island just missed doing the same thing, since it gave Roosevelt a plurality of about 16,000, while Governor Garvin, the Democratic candidate for reelection was defeated by less than 600 votes.



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HON. JOSEPH W. FOLK.
(Democratic governor-elect of Missouri.)

This divergence between the Presidential and the gubernatorial voting was exhibited all the way from the Atlantic to the Pacific. Thus, in the State of Washington, where Roosevelt's plurality was about 66,000, ex-Senator Turner was the Democratic candidate for governor, and he was defeated by only 15,000. It had been commonly predicted that the Democrats would elect their State ticket in New York. On the very eve of the election, with the betting odds about 5 to 1 in favor of Roosevelt's carrying the State, they were 2 to 1 in favor of the election of Herrick as governor over Higgins. It turned out, indeed, that Roosevelt ran almost 100,000 ahead of the candidate for governor; nevertheless, Mr. Higgins was elected by a majority of nearly 80,000. A number of other illustrations might be drawn from the voting in States, or in particular cities or localities, to show how extensive was the breaking away from party lines.

The Pendulum Might Swing Back.

It is therefore a great mistake to assume that the Republican party is of necessity intrenched in power for a long period to come. The voters who elected Democratic governors in Minnesota and Massachusetts this year might easily elect Democratic Congressmen two years hence, or a Democratic President four years hence, if conditions should arise to convince them of the desirability of changing the party balance in the House or the political character of the next administration. This enhanced mobility in the voting mass ought to yield a new zest to politics. It helps to break



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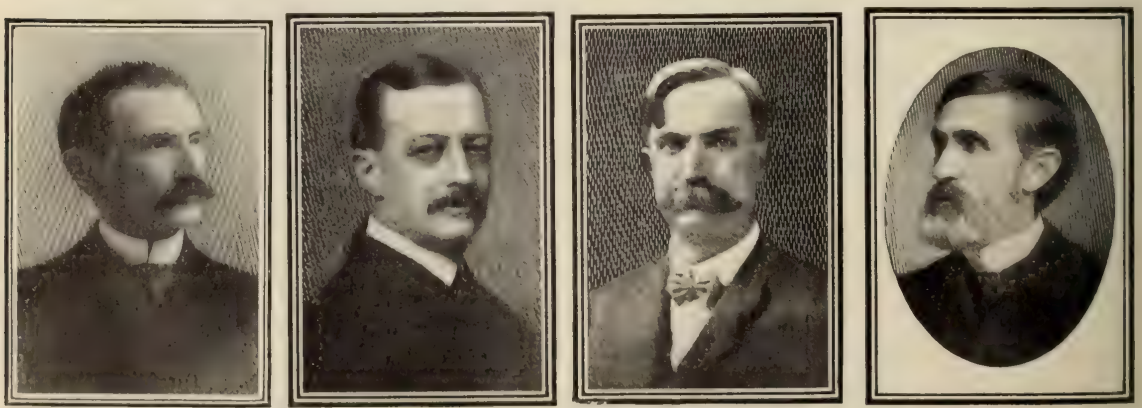
J. Frank Hanly, Indiana. Charles S. Deneen, Illinois. Francis W. Higgins, N. Y. George H. Utter, R. I.

THE REPUBLICAN GOVERNORS-ELECT OF FOUR STRONGLY CONTESTED STATES.

down the tyranny of mere machines and bosses. It opens wider the field in which Mr. Roosevelt himself has fought his way to the top.

Mr. Folk as an Example.

From this point of view, Mr. Folk's success, quite apart from what he may be able to do for Missouri, ought to encourage every young man who aspires to make his way by courage, character, and talent in political life. Mr. Folk won his nomination at the hands of the Democrats of Missouri against the desperate efforts of the controlling machine of his party. He has within a few months occupied a series of paradoxical situations. Seeking the nomination for governor as the determined enemy of the ring, he was in the end accepted by the ring, but was obliged to run on the ticket with men whose names he himself had publicly listed with those of the boodlers and corruptionists. He was obliged, thereupon, to take the stump and work for a Democratic success that might have meant his own political undoing, since the election of the full State ticket and a Democratic legislature would probably have tied him hand and foot in his proposals for particular legislative and administrative reforms. His canvass was pushed vigorously throughout the State on the plea made constantly by his supporters, if not by himself, that President Roosevelt desired his election. Yet, meanwhile, the Parker managers were basing their serene confidence of success in Missouri upon the certainty that Mr. Folk would pull through with him the Parker electoral ticket. Finally, to complete the series of paradoxes, Mr. Folk undoubtedly owed his victory to Republican votes; and the ablest and most vigorous of all the efforts that brought the Missouri Republicans into the field and carried the day for President Roosevelt were the efforts of Mr. Folk's honest and able opponent, Cyrus P. Walbridge, Republican candidate for governor, backed by Mr. Niedringhaus, the chairman of



Edward C. Stokes, N. J. Henry Roberts, Conn. Frederick M. Warner, Mich. W. M. O. Dawson, W. Va.

FOUR MORE REPUBLICAN GOVERNORS-ELECT.



John C. Cutler, Utah.



John H. Mickey, Nebraska.

TWO WESTERN REPUBLICAN GOVERNORS-ELECT.



Alva Adams, Colorado.



Joseph K. Toole, Montana.

TWO WESTERN DEMOCRATIC GOVERNORS-ELECT.

the Republican State Committee. Although Mr. Walbridge was himself defeated through conditions that gave Mr. Folk so large a non-partisan vote in St. Louis, he succeeded in securing the election of the rest of the Republican State ticket and of a majority in the legislature,—his efforts being united with President Roosevelt's personal popularity. And it is to this general Republican success alone that Mr. Folk will owe his best opportunities for giving the State a reform administration. Already the Democrats are listing him for Presidential honors in 1908.

The Wisconsin and Minnesota Victors.

Governor La Follette's victory in Wisconsin was more sweeping than outsiders had been led to expect. President Roosevelt's plurality was about 75,000, and Governor La Follette's was perhaps 60,000. (It may be as well to remark that nearly all the figures here cited are tentative, and that after official returns are available we shall print in the REVIEW a corrected table for purposes of reference.) The Republican Stalwart faction in Wisconsin kept Mr. Scofield in the field as a candidate for governor, but did not vote for him. They seem to have gone over practically in a body to the support of Mr. Peck, the Democratic candidate. A great mass of Bryan Democrats, on the other hand, as it would seem, voted for Governor La Follette. Thus, parties are topsy-turvy in Wisconsin, and it will take some little time to bring them into normal relations again. Mr. Johnson's victory over Mr. Dunn in Minnesota was also upon absolutely local issues. It is said that he did not once mention Judge Parker's name during the weeks of his winning canvass for Republican votes. The Northern Securities question played its part, and there were other State and personal issues which bore no relation to national party lines of cleavage. Both candidates were editors of country newspapers.



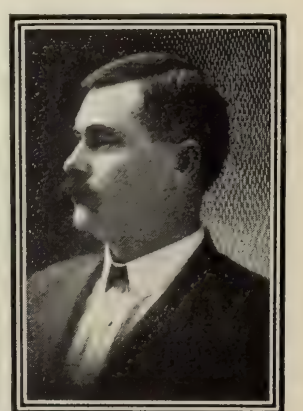
Duncan C. Heyward, S. C.



S. W. T. Lanham, Texas.



James B. Frazier, Tenn.



Napoleon B. Broward, Fla.

FOUR SOUTHERN DEMOCRATIC GOVERNORS-ELECT (THE FIRST THREE FOR SECOND TERMS).

Talk of Tariff Reform.

In Massachusetts, Governor Bates had alienated a considerable part of the labor vote by certain public acts, while Mr. Douglas, who is a large employer of labor, was fortunate enough for the time being to ride upon the crest of a remarkable wave of popularity. It is true that his arguments for reciprocity with Canada may have affected some votes, and it would be important to know to what extent this sentiment for reciprocity is deliberate and is likely to grow. There are indeed many signs that various phases of the tariff question will during the coming year be much discussed in the newspapers and be brought to the attention of Congress. The Republicans have a right to infer from their success at the polls that the country desires no drastic tariff legislation and expects the maintenance, for the present, of a protectionist policy. But there is sure to be a growing opinion in favor of an early readjustment of some of the leading schedules of the Dingley tariff act, which is now in force. There must also be a careful consideration of the reciprocity question and a study of the conditions that affect American markets, as well as of those that concern the control of the market at home. Whatever President Roosevelt may think best to recommend to Congress, it would seem as if he could hardly go amiss in utilizing the excellently equipped statistical bureaus at Washington for a fresh study of the relative home and foreign cost of production of staple manufactured articles and an impartial study of various other economic questions. This would provide Congress with certain statistical facts and scientific conclusions that would aid in showing to what extent particular parts of the tariff could be readjusted without doing away with an amount of protection required to meet the higher labor cost in America and preserve the superior standard of living that prevails among American workmen. Colonel Wright is at home in such work.

The Minor Parties.

Four years ago, the situation was such as to keep the small parties at low ebb. The Populists principally supported Mr. Bryan, the Socialists cut a very small figure, and the Prohibitionists were not an appreciable factor. It was inevitable this year that Mr. Watson's candidacy should draw a great many voters who had once been affiliated with Populism. In Mr. Bryan's home State of Nebraska, for example, it is a noteworthy fact that Mr. Watson polled more votes than Judge Parker. Mr. Watson, moreover, received a strong complimentary vote in his own State of Georgia; and when the full returns are in it will be found that his aggregate popular vote is large enough to have been of great consequence if there had been anything like an even division between the two great parties. Thus, in New York, where the Watson vote amounted to a good many thousands, and was undoubtedly drawn from the Democratic rather than from the Republican camp, it might, in case of a close situation, have turned the national scale. There has been much comment on the growth of the Socialistic vote. Mr. Debs, as the candidate, made marked gains over the vote cast for him in 1900; but it would be a mistake to draw inferences from such comparative statistics, because both great parties were this year regarded by men of Socialistic leaning as under full control of the capitalists and plutocrats, so that the growth of the Socialist vote was to have been expected. There is nothing at all in the general conditions prevailing in the United States to give prospects of large growth of any one of the minor parties. What is more likely is that one of the two great parties will henceforth become more radical in its attitude toward economic and social questions. Already the followers of Mr. Bryan, Mr. Hearst, and other of the so-called radical leaders of the Democratic party are busily discussing their plans for reorganizing the Jeffersonian Democracy upon what may be called a Populistic basis. In any case, the Democratic party remains a tremendous and vital organization, with quite as good prospects for the future as it had six months ago,—probably, indeed, better prospects.

Affairs at Panama.

Secretary Taft sailed for Panama on November 21, with the expectation of spending about a week there. His mission was that of a friendly adjustment of certain questions that must in any case have arisen regarding the precise relations of our government of the canal zone to the authority and government of the republic of Panama. Our acquisition of the canal right of way, and our relations to Colombia on the one hand and the new republic on the other, were made topics of the most exhaustive scrutiny and discussion during the campaign. It is generally conceded that the verdict at the polls carries with it a complete and final ratification of everything done by Mr. Roosevelt and Mr. Hay with reference to that subject. All reports relating to the practical work of canal construction at Panama are favorable in a high degree. The first change in the make-up of the Canal Commission comes with the retirement of Mr. Hecker, of Detroit, Mich., on the ground that the Panama climate does not agree with his health.

A Revolution Averted.

The revolutionary habit in Latin-American regions, particularly in the Central American and Isthmian strip, is a hard one to break off. Happily, under the treaty arrangements now existing between the Panama Republic and the United States, our government has the unqualified right to maintain order and keep the peace on the Isthmus. That right was exercised in the middle of November, when there would probably have been an attempt on the part of the diminutive military establishment of Panama to make a *coup d'état* and overthrow the government of President Manuel Amador but for the energy of Minister Barrett and the presence of United States marines. There is nothing fundamentally serious in the situation on the Isthmus, and no reason at all to believe that the course of affairs will run otherwise than smoothly and prosperously. But it is already plain to those who care to perceive the truth that the enhanced authority of the United States at that point is going to prove of great advantage for the tranquillity of Central America and the northern parts of South America, and for the development of business interests in those regions.

Mr. Higgins and the New York Canals.

Undoubtedly it will be President Roosevelt's ambition to see how rapidly the canal work can proceed in the period of his administration, as it will also be his determination to see that there shall be no misuse of money and no scandal of any kind in the carrying on of this enterprise. Governor Higgins will feel a like sense of responsibility in beginning the most expensive public undertaking that any one of the sisterhood of our American commonwealths has ever attempted. It will be remembered that the enlargement of the canal system which connects the Great Lakes with the Hudson River is to be entered upon at once, and that more than a hundred million dollars will be available for the work as rapidly as the money can be expended. One of the chief arguments used against the enlargement of the canal was the danger that it would become an extravagant and scandalous political job. The one great opportunity that lies before Governor Higgins is to bring his practical business training to bear upon the initiation of this work. He ought to push it with such vigor and with such zeal for efficiency and economy that the people of the State would find it necessary to give him another term as governor, in order that he might carry it on toward completion. The mixing up of politics and public works has long been customary in the State of New York ; but the fashion is changing rapidly.



THE STATUE OF FREDERICK THE GREAT, UNVEILED AT WASHINGTON, NOVEMBER 19.

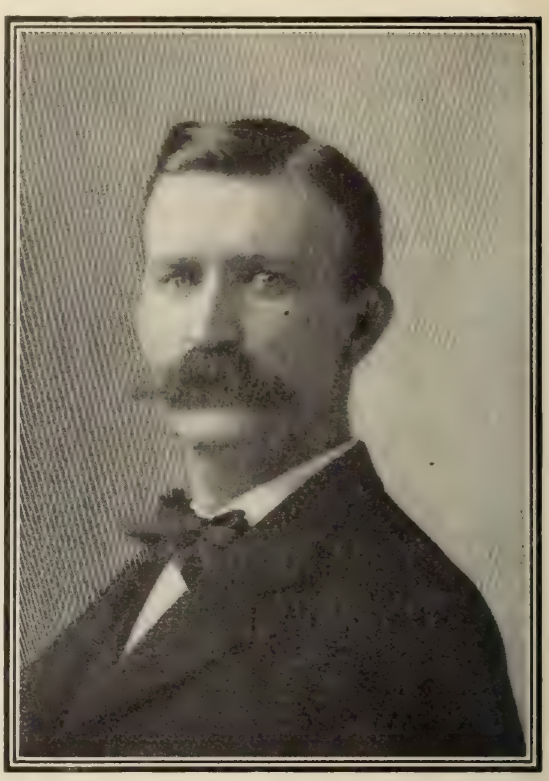
A Busy Month for Mr. Roosevelt.

The President made a quick trip to Oyster Bay to cast his ballot on November 8 ; but otherwise the campaign and the election did not much interrupt his steady application to the duties of his office. Almost immediately after election, he was at work upon his annual message. He had decided in October that it would be impossible for him to visit the exposition at St. Louis ; but this decision was reconsidered, and it was announced that he would depart on the night of the 24th of November for a day or two at the fair, making no stops at other places either going or coming. During the second week of November, his official hospitalities were extended to distinguished Germans who came to participate in the unveiling of the statue of Frederick the Great that the German Emperor had presented to this

country. The statue was unveiled on November 19, and the German deputation was headed by Leut.-Gen. Alfred von Löwenfeld and Major Count von Schmettow. In the same week, the President and official Washington also showed due attention to a distinguished Japanese, Prince Fushimi, who is visiting this country with his suite, and who is a close relative of the Mikado. With the opening of Congress, on the 5th of December, the State Department will have arbitration treaties ready to present for the Senate's ratification, and there will be reports from important commissions ready for the enlightenment of Congress. One of these is the report of the joint Congressional commission on the merchant marine. The accomplished secretary of this commission, Mr. Winthrop L. Marvin, explains to our readers in the present number of the REVIEW the nature and method of this inquiry. As to the arbitration treaties, our readers are referred to Mr. Walter Wellman's article, also in this issue, on "The United States and the World's Peace." Professor Jenks has returned from China, and has completed his report upon the very important question of the reform of China's monetary system, with a view to establishing a fixed rate of exchange with the gold-using countries. It will be remembered that Mr. Hugh H. Hanna, of Indiana, and Mr. Charles A. Conant, of New York, were colleagues of Professor Jenks on this monetary commission. It is said that the thorough investigation of the so-called beef trust at the hands of the Department of Commerce is also practically completed. Mr. Ware has resigned as pension commissioner, and the President has had a large number of appointments to consider.

Judge Parker at Work Again.

So much for some of the things that have made President Roosevelt's November a busy one. His defeated rival for Presidential honors, meanwhile, has accepted the result with calmness, and has lost no time at all in adjusting himself to the situation. Private life has no terrors for our typical and well-equipped Americans. It is, indeed, always interesting to foreigners to see the way in which we in this country from time to time call men from private walks of life to conspicuous public places, and, on the other hand, send back to their business or professional work men who are at the very height of brilliant public careers. Thus, Mr. Roosevelt, when elected to the Vice-Presidency four year ago, thought it probable that after next March he would be retired from public office, and was planning quietly to resume his early studies of the law, with a view to practising that profession. Judge Parker (whose



MR. WILLIAM F. SHEEHAN, WITH WHOM JUDGE PARKER IS SAID TO BE ASSOCIATED IN LAW PRACTICE.

successor as chief judge of the Court of Appeals, Judge Cullen, was elected on November 8) prepared at once to enter upon the practice of law in New York City. His offices were selected and occupied within a week after election day. In addition to the various private retainers he had presumably received already, he was on November 17 accorded by some of the New York judges certain appointments as commissioner in condemnation proceedings. While it is denied that he has formed a partnership with Mr. William F. Sheehan, his new office-room is in connection with the suite occupied by the law firm of which that gentleman is the head. It will be remembered that Mr. Sheehan, at the St. Louis convention, was Judge Parker's personal spokesman, and that throughout the campaign he was the most authoritative member of the Democratic campaign committee. Mr. Sheehan is a corporation lawyer, being counsel for street-railway companies and other important interests. Judge Parker will at once take a prominent place at the New York bar, where so many men of note and mark, like ex-Secretary Root, ex-Secretary Carlisle, and ex-Governor Black, are to be found.

Educational Occasions.

In the field of higher education, the past two months have been marked by a series of unusually important events. In the last week of October, there were commemorations which greatly interested the alumni of two of the older Eastern colleges. The presence of the Earl of Dartmouth at the laying of the corner-stone of Dartmouth Hall, which perpetuates the name of his great-great-grandfather, gave special distinction to the ceremonies at New Hampshire's famous college, the *alma mater* of Daniel Webster and of many other eminent Americans. A few days later occurred the celebration of the one-hundred-and-fiftieth anniversary of the founding of King's, now Columbia, College in New York City. Both these occasions brought together a throng of university and college officers, and greatly stimulated the interest of the alumni in their respective institutions. It happened also that late in October and early in November a number of college and university presidents were inaugurated,—Dr. Flavel S. Luther as president of Trinity College, at Hartford, Conn.; Dr. William E. Huntington as president of Boston University, and Dr. Charles W. Dabney as president of the University of Cincinnati. Dr. Dabney's installation at Cincinnati was especially significant, marking, as it did, the accession of a Southern man, whose reputation as an educator has been won in the South, to the administration of a Northern institution. The University of Cincinnati, like the College of the City of New York, is under municipal control. At the inauguration exercises, as at the Columbia celebration in New York, the importance of the modern city in its relation to the higher education was strongly emphasized. A novel and interesting experiment was made last month in the visit of a delegation from the University of Georgia to the University of Wisconsin. This delegation included Governor Terrell, Chancellor Hill, ex-Governor McDaniel, Mr. Clark Howell, of the Atlanta *Constitution*, and other representative Georgians. This visit was made to a typical Northern State university for the purpose of advancing the interests of State university education in the South.

The Elections in Canada.

As had been generally foreseen, the Canadian general elections, held on November 3, resulted in a substantial victory for the Liberal party throughout the Dominion. The present premier, Sir Wilfrid Laurier, will have a majority of between 60 and 70 in the House of Commons, which is composed of 214 members. At the elections in Newfoundland, Premier Bond's government was sustained by a large majority. The island thus expressed disapproval of proposals of union with Canada and a desire for closer trade relations with the United States. It is hoped that the Hay-Bond, reciprocity treaty, which had been pigeonholed for several months in the Senate committee, at Washington, will receive consideration in the new Congress. This British-American colony, however, still finds her greatest trial in the vexed question of the "French Shore." Mr. Elihu Root has recently returned from a visit to Newfoundland with the feeling that the Anglo-French agreement as to the fishing rights in these waters has not been successful in doing away with the friction between French and Canadian fishermen. And this impression is borne out by the newspaper dispatches. The general question of reciprocity between Canada and the United States is not, apparently, of such pressing general interest in the Dominion at present, where it is felt that the next overtures ought to come from the people of the United States. The feeling in New England, however, in favor of reciprocity with our northern neighbor has now manifested itself as a question of party politics. Perhaps the livest political question of a commercial nature in Canada at present is the attitude of the Dominion toward Mr. Chamberlain's preferential tariff with England. The fact that the Manufacturers' Associations of the Dominion will meet in London, England, next year, directly under the ægis of Mr. Chamberlain, makes it more than likely that a special commission will be appointed from the Dominion to draw up a tariff scheme which would be acceptable to Canadian commercial interests. The general political and economic situation in the Dominion was graphically described in three articles in this REVIEW last month.

The Baltic Fleet's Blunder.

How near the Russo-Japanese war has come to involving all Europe was forcibly illustrated in the latter part of October by the blunder of the Russian Baltic fleet in firing on English fishing vessels in the North Sea. Vice-Admiral Rojestvensky, who, despite the reports that he had been superseded, retained command of Russia's second Pacific squadron, generally known as the Baltic fleet, set sail from Kronstadt, on his way to the far East, early in October, and passed through Danish waters along the regular channel, arriving in the North Sea on October 20. Before the fleet had started, the officers and men had been worked up to a pitch of almost hysteric nervousness by stories of the cunning, daring, and treachery of the Japanese. The personnel of the fleet had never been rated very high,



VICE-ADMIRAL ROJESTVENSKY.
(In command of Russia's Baltic fleet.)

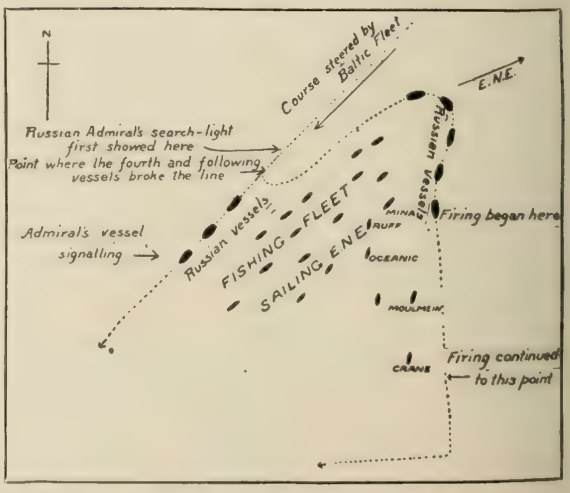
since most of Russia's trained seamen were already in Chinese waters. The most extraordinary precautions had been taken to guard the fleet, while on its way, from any possible attack by Japanese torpedo boats.

Attack on British Fishermen.

For some unexplained reason, when off the Dogger Bank, the fishing-grounds of the North Sea, the Russian admiral had left the regular channel and changed his course, making a détour to the southwest. On the Bank was a large fleet of English fishing vessels from Hull, mostly steam trawlers, engaged in fishing. Without warning, on the night of Friday, October 21, the Russians opened fire upon the boats, with shot and shell, sinking one of them, killing two of the fishermen, and wounding others. The entire fleet, about forty in all, were steaming in line through the trawlers, and the first vessels had passed, after examining the fishing craft with their searchlights, when, without any warning, one of the warships fired six or more shells in rapid succession, the other ships joining in the bombardment, which continued for half an hour. The fisher *Crane* was sunk, and the *Gull* badly injured. The skipper and a deckhand on the former were the men killed. The facts of the attack were not known until the Sunday morning following, when the fishing fleet, bearing the bodies of the men who had been killed, reached Hull. After the attack, the Russian squadron had continued on its course at high speed, and passed through the Strait of Dover without making any inquiry as to the damage done or attempting to rescue the men from the boats. A section of the fleet halted at Cherbourg, France, and the rest, under the commanding admiral, continued its course to Vigo, the Spanish Atlantic port.

The Czar's Regret and Grief.

So much for the undisputed facts. The fishermen declared that although the night was wet and drizzly and it was impossible to see at a great distance, the Russian ships passed so close to the trawlers that the sailors on the former could not help seeing the fishermen cleaning the fish, some of the latter holding out fish in both hands to the warships as they went by. The trawlers, which in no way resemble war craft, and which were in established fishing waters, in the fishing season, burned the international signal lights for fishermen, and, after the first few shots, gave evidences of their distress and innocent character. It was but a few hours after news had reached Hull that all England was afire with indignation and warlike feeling. The action of the Russian admiral in not stopping to make amends for his blunder and rescue the fishing vessels in distress was especially condemned. Public demonstrations in Hull and in London, and the warlike tone of the British press, aroused the country in



PLAN SHOWING HOW PART OF THE RUSSIAN BALTIC SQUADRON ALTERED ITS COURSE AND CIRCUMNAVIGATED THE FISHING FLEET SOUTHEAST OF THE DOGGER BANK.



From a photograph taken during the King's visit to Kiel.

TWO ROYAL WORKERS FOR PEACE.

(King Edward and Kaiser Wilhelm as admirals.)

a few hours to a pitch of excitement not known since the Boer war. This feeling was not to any great extent allayed by the Czar's personal telegram of regret and grief to King Edward and the Russian Government's voluntary offer to make full reparation in the event of the Russian squadron being culpably responsible for the unfortunate occurrence.

Warlike Feeling in England.

Diplomatic exchanges were at once made between the British and Russian governments through Lord Lansdowne and Count Benckendorff, the Russian ambassador in London, and the Russian foreign minister, Count Lamsdorf, and the British ambassador, Sir Charles Hardinge, in St. Petersburg. Meanwhile, the Russian admiral had not been heard from, and his report was awaited in both countries with the greatest anxiety. There had been talk of an ultimatum, and the "outrage" was generally regarded in England as an act of war. The attack had taken place on the anniversary of the battle of Trafalgar, and, coming as it did on the heels of the Russian captures of the British vessels *Calchas*, *Allanton*, and *Malacca*, and the sinking of the *Knight Commander*, the cumulative effect was such that there was imminent danger of the spark of war being fired between the British and the Russian fleets. The British Channel and Mediterranean fleets had been mobilized, and Lord Charles Beresford, admiral in command of the former, had so disposed his forces as to be ready to intercept the Russian vessels should they attempt to pass through the Straits of Gibraltar. In England, they were calling Admiral Rojestvensky's ships the "mad dog" fleet, and a number of London journals were clamoring for united British and American action in "shepherding" the Russians to their destination,—that is, escorting them with an armed force, so that there might be no further danger to the peace and commerce of the world.

The Russian Admiral's Story.

After forty-eight hours of waiting, Admiral Rojestvensky's report was received by the Russian admiralty. The Russian admiral declared that at 1 o'clock on the morning of October 21 he had been attacked by two torpedo boats, supposed to be Japanese, which, appearing among the trawlers, between the two divisions of the squadron, seemed to discharge torpedoes. The Russians opened fire, and sank one of them. The officer in command of the section which fired on the fishing fleet declared that a cannon had been fired from an unknown vessel, that the trawlers failed to obey the Russian signals to disclose their nationality, and that one of the Russian vessels was hit by six shots, which wounded some of its crew and tore off the hand of a priest.



LATEST PORTRAIT OF QUEEN ALEXANDRA.

(This photograph of her majesty, to whom much credit is given for the peaceful solution of the Anglo-Russian difficulty, was taken in Denmark. It shows her with Princess Victoria and Princess Charles of Denmark.)

Admiral Rojestvensky expressed his surprise and regret that any British vessels had suffered. The Russian officers further declared that they had received positive information of the equipment of Japanese boats in Swedish and British ports, and declared it to be their belief that these boats were disguised as fishing vessels.

Indeed, they asserted that Japanese seamen and explosives were seen to have been taken on board of one of the trawlers before leaving Hull. The Russians were very nervous, and it seems that the Hull fishermen were not the only ones who were attacked during the Baltic fleet's course through the North Sea. The Swedish steamer *Aldebaran* had been chased and fired at by a Russian cruiser, as was also a Norwegian steamer and a Danish torpedo boat. The German fishing vessel *Sonntag* had also been fired upon, sustaining considerable injury, and the German Government had filed with the Russian Government a demand for reparation.

Did the Russians Fire on Themselves?

Admiral Rojestvensky's report had been received, not only with incredulity, but with ridicule, in England. His statement that he was attacked by Japanese torpedo boats was regarded as a fabrication, or as evidence of his utter incompetency, particularly in view of the fact that four days had elapsed before his report was transmitted to his government. At the Board of Trade inquiry into the North Sea incident the fishermen stoutly maintained that they were alone when the Russians fired; that they had seen no foreign vessels except the Russians. The Japanese authorities also announced that there was not at the time, and had not been during the war, any Japanese war vessels in European waters; certainly, none had been seen by reliable witnesses. In Russia, however, the press and people accepted Admiral Rojestvensky's report as a complete vindication of the conduct of the squadron. The shooting of the fishermen, according to this view, was simply a deplorable incident of a perfectly legitimate act of war. On the other hand, it had been reported that a Russian torpedo boat was missing when the fleet put in at Cherbourg. This, with the fact that one of the Russian ships had been hit and one of her men wounded, appeared to confirm the impression which had been gaining ground in European capitals, despite denials from St. Petersburg, that, either through misreading signals or because of extreme nervousness in the darkness and fog, the Russians had fired on their own ships.

An Agreement to Investigate.

All immediate danger of war between the two nations had been averted by the agreement to await an investigation of the facts in the case by a commission organized under the provisions of the Hague tribunal. Premier Balfour had been able to announce this at a meeting of the Conservative Associations, at Southampton, on October 28. Although the terms of English official protest had not been made public, the demands were generally formulated in the press as being fourfold,—first, an apology; second, reparation for the victims (both these demands had already been voluntarily granted by the Russian Government); third, punishment of the officer to blame for the attack; and, fourth, a guarantee that British subjects and commerce should not suffer from a like attack. There had been a good deal of jingoistic writing in the press of both countries, the Russian journals openly claiming that England had been violating her neutrality in favor of Japan, and stoutly maintaining that, whereas apology and reparation would be willingly forthcoming, Russia could not listen to a demand made by a foreign power for the punishment of any of her officers.

Terms of the Agreement.

The points of agreement announced by Mr. Balfour were that the investigation of the facts of the case should be referred to an international commission of five,—one British, one Russian, one American, and one French naval officer, these four to choose a fifth; that the court should sit in Paris as soon as constituted, and that the Russian fleet should remain at Vigo (with the permission of the Spanish Government) until the Russian admiralty had named the officers who were to be detained for the investigation, and that both governments agreed to accept the findings of the commission. Russia appointed Admiral Kaznakoff to represent her on the commission of inquiry, and Great Britain Vice-Admiral Sir Lewis Beaumont, both men of eminence and ability. The French representative had not been named on November 20, nor had the American been chosen, although there had been reports that Admiral Dewey would be requested to serve. The Russian Government detailed four officers of those warships which had attacked the trawlers to be present as witnesses at the inquiry.

A Triumph of Peace.

The reference of the issues involved to a court of inquiry under the Hague convention was an impressive indication of the world's progress toward peace. The mixed court or commission of inquiry was possible under the provision of the famous Hague tribunal which provided for an international commission of inquiry "to act where differences arise from a difference of opinion on matters of fact." It was a triumph, because a terrible war between Great Britain and Russia would only have settled which was the stronger or better fleet. The Hague tribunal will come as near as human wisdom can to settling what is the truth.

Governments versus Populace.

The governments of both countries had acted with perfect propriety, courtesy, and coolness throughout. The prompt expression of regret, with promise of reparation, by the Czar, and the moderate though firm attitude of Prime Minister Balfour and Secretary Lansdowne, with the full support of King Edward, were fortunately permitted to prevail instead of the jingoism and belligerence of the populace and press of both countries. How near to war Great Britain and Russia were in the four days of the intensity of the incident may be inferred from the fact that the ships of Lord Beresford's Channel squadron had their decks cleared for action, and the London populace was clamoring that the "Czar's mad dog fleet" be stopped. It is true that Admiral Sir John Fisher, the first lord of the British admiralty, was declared to have seized upon the North Sea incident as the psychological moment to test the nerves as well as the efficiency of the British navy in a rapid mobilization with war in the air. The fact remains that the slightest indiscretion on the part of a Russian or British officer would have precipitated actual warfare.



GENERAL BARON KAULBARS.

(Who will command the Third Manchurian Army, under Kuropatkin.)



GENERAL LINEVITCH.

(Who will command the First Manchurian Army, under Kuropatkin.)

Splendid Services of France.

Too much credit cannot be given to the French foreign minister, M. Delcassé, for practically bringing about the satisfactory solution of what seemed so surely a *casus belli*. It is now no secret that France played an important part in the delicate negotiations which resulted in Russia and Great Britain accepting the inquiry proposition. As the ally of Russia and the friend of England, France's stake was almost as great as that of the parties actually concerned. Indeed, the very peace of the republic was involved, as war between Great Britain and Russia would have put the former into the camp of Japan and have necessitated France's fulfilling her obligations under the dual alliance. In the capacity of ally of one and friend of the other power, France was in a position to make her counsels of wisdom and moderation heard with equal weight in both London and St. Petersburg. M. Delcassé went earnestly to work as a friend of both countries, and when Admiral Rojestvensky's report raised a direct issue of fact the French statesman at once suggested an inquiry to establish the facts through an international commission, under the Hague convention. The acceptance of this propo-



From *Le Monde Illustre.*

GENERAL-ADJUTANT A. M. STOESSEL, DEFENDER OF PORT ARTHUR.

(Who sacrificed a warship to send a message to the Czar.)

sition by both nations at variance has been a great triumph for international peace, and an equally great triumph for the enlightened diplomacy of the French Republic.

Before Mukden.

After the series of battles on the Shakhe, or Sha, River (October 6–17), the armies of General Kuropatkin and Marshal Oyama remained at rest for several weeks, each desiring to recuperate its losses. An official report of the general staff at St. Petersburg gave the Russian loss in killed, wounded, and missing, between October 9 and 18, as 45,000 men. Of this number, Field Marshal Oyama estimated that 13,300 were killed. His own losses he reported at 15,800. It was said that two Russian regiments were entirely wiped out, only three men remaining of one of them. The recall of Admiral Alexieff to St. Petersburg,—some reports say to be viceroy of the Caucasus; others, governor of Moscow,—had left General Kuropatkin in supreme command of the military and civil forces of Russia in the far East. The alignment of the Russian armies at the seat of war, according to announcements which were declared to be final, on November 20, provided for three armies, — the first to be under command of General Linevitch, who commanded the Russian contingent during the Boxer outbreak, and who had been in command at Vladivostok up to that time; the second, which has not yet been dispatched to the far East, to be in command of General Grippenberg, and the third to be under command of General Baron Kaulbars. A number of minor engagements between the two armies during the month ending November 20 had been reported. But at that date Kuropatkin and Oyama still faced each other within a few miles of Mukden, and neither one seemed willing to begin what might be the long-expected decisive battle of the war. Meanwhile, the winter cold is upon the armies, and both are building permanent quarters. The Japanese strenuously deny the report that General Kuroki was killed early in October. This report would not be worth mentioning at all were it not for the persistence with which it has been repeated.

The Siege of Port Arthur.

The first full and authorized report of the operations around Port Arthur was cabled to the American press, by way of Chefu, on November 2. The Japanese censor with General Nogi permitted the publication of an almost complete narrative of the military operations from August 7 to November 1. The publication of this

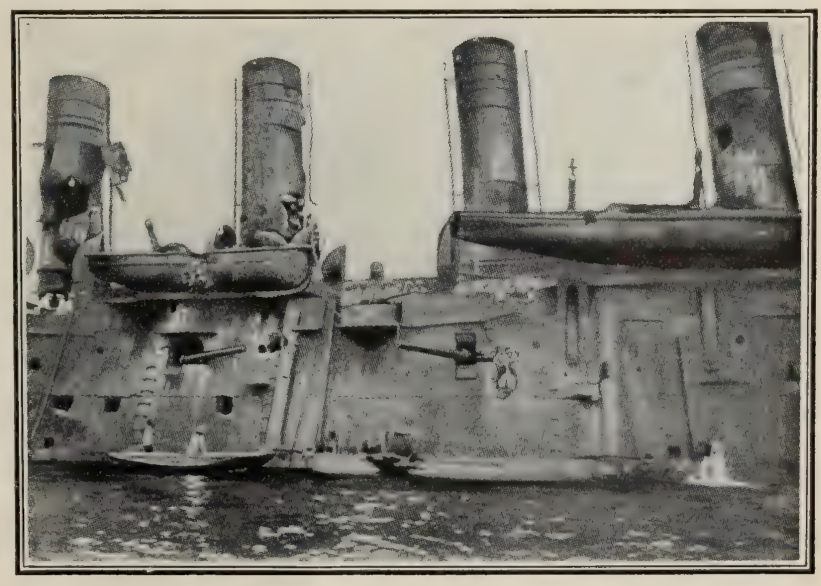
report was a great tribute to the patience, ingenuity, and honorable record of the American Associated Press. It monopolized the Pacific cable for fourteen hours in transmission, and gave a detailed description of the gradual approach of the Japanese investing force, after the battle of Nanshan Hill, up to the attacks of October 26 and 27. Without analyzing the report in detail, we may say that the first great task of the Japanese was the reduction of the outlying forts, extending in a semicircle fourteen miles long, from coast to coast, around Port Arthur, and four or five miles distant from the main fortress itself, which they had also to take by storm. The main points of the outer chain,—that is, the Orlung and the Keekwan forts, and the positions on the Taku and Shaku mountains (all strongly fortified),—were taken by the Japanese on the night of August 7, although the victors were not able to occupy them because of the fire of the inside forts. Step by step, the Russians desperately disputing their advance, the Japanese fought their way, with frightful losses, taking position after position by storm, until the Russian posts at Rihlung were captured on October 26, and the Japanese guns dominated the city and harbor. The fighting had been of the most sanguinary character, the Japanese repeatedly entering the native town of Port Arthur after dark, but being driven out again by daylight. For four months, assault followed assault. Many positions were taken and retaken four or five times. Deeds of heroism on both sides had been of daily occurrence, and the endurance of the garrison had almost surpassed the energy and heroism of the besiegers.

Desperate Straits of the Garrison.

Great as had been the suffering in the beleaguered town, with disease, hunger, and death to contend against;—with a polluted water-supply, overcrowded hospitals, no anæsthetics, and ammunition so low that the men were forced to use wooden shells,—General Stoessel had maintained one of the remarkable defenses of history. With the aid of his devoted wife, the commander had been untiring in his effort to alleviate the sufferings of his men. The general himself, suffering from a severe wound in the head, had been detained in the hospital, leaving the direction of the defense largely to General Smirnoff. The desperate straits to which the defense had been reduced by the middle of November was seen from the blowing up of the destroyer *Rastoropny*, at Chefu, on November 16. This vessel, the speediest of the Port Arthur fleet, was sacrificed to the duty of conveying dispatches to the Czar. Eluding the blockading fleet, she carried reports to Chefu; then, in order to escape pursuing Japanese destroyers, she was blown up by her commander. Her report, as given out at St. Petersburg, had shown the spirit of the garrison to be much higher than was supposed, and had indicated their inflexible determination to hold out to the last man. The month also saw the loss of the *Yashima*, a battleship of Admiral Togo's fleet, and of the Russian cruiser *Gromoboi*, at Vladivostok.

Is Russia Becoming Liberal?

Prince Sviatopolk-Mirsky, the new Russian minister of the interior, has begun his administration under very favorable auspices. His accession has apparently brought to a head a Russian liberal movement of a constructive, moderate sort, not supported by the radicals or the revolutionists, but by the great body of liberal-minded Russians, who, while they have no sympathy with violence, reverence the Czar and detest the bureaucracy. The relaxation of the censorship over the newspapers of the empire, a privilege which has been



THE RUSSIAN CRUISER, "GROMOBOI," ASHORE AT VLADIVOSTOK, SHOWING MARKS OF JAPANESE SHELLS.



GENERAL PRINCE FUSHIMI.

(The prince, who has been visiting the United States, commanded the Japanese first division at Nanshan Hill.)

taken advantage of to the full ; a more humane policy toward Finland ; the abolition of punishment by administrative order, and promise of greater tolerance toward the Jews,—these, astonishing as it may seem, are actual accomplishments of the past fews weeks in the empire, and largely, if not wholly, due to the influence of Prince Mirsky. True, he has had much to contend against. The entire bureaucracy has opposed him violently, and the powerful Procurator of the Holy Synod, Pobiedonostseff, had gone to the extent of warning the Czar that autocracy and orthodoxy would be in peril if the new *régime* were permitted to continue its liberalizing work. The Czar, however, appears to support his minister, and in the attitude toward the zemstvos, or provincial assemblies (the nearest approach in Russia to representative government), may be seen the influence of Prince Mirsky's new, broad, and liberalizing policy, the best feature of which is that it is divorced from any radical revolutionary propaganda.

Lord Lansdowne on Arbitration.

To realize the full significance of the agreement of Great Britain and Russia to refer the North Sea case to a commission of inquiry, Lord Lansdowne's speech on arbitration must not be forgotten. The British minister of foreign affairs, in an important speech at the annual dinner of the Lord Mayor of London (November 10), in justifying his action in the North Sea dispute with Russia, drew a vivid picture of the horrors of the war in the far East, and declared it was his hope and belief that in the future there would be resort to "less clumsy and brutal methods of adjusting international differences." Arbitration, said Lord Lansdowne, has become the fashion. The tone of his speech was so emphatically pacific, and its expression of condemnation of the slaughter going on in Manchuria so decided, that the world in general took the utterance as a suggestion that the time for friendly intervention had come. It is true that, in the words of Count Cassini, Russia has announced that she will "pursue the war in the far East to the bitter end,—that is, until Russia has conquered." To conquer, however, in a war unpopular with both peasantry and aristocracy needs a Napoleonic military genius, which Russia does not appear to possess in her Kuropatkins, Alexieffs, and Rojestvenskys. It is certainly a notable sign of the times that a minister of the government possessing the most powerful navy in the world should openly declare in favor of international arbitration.

Elections in Italy.

The Italian elections, which took place on the Sundays November 6 and 13, passed off more quietly than had been expected. There were no serious disturbances anywhere in the kingdom. The general result was a Conservative victory, with a loss of some thirty seats to the Liberals, or Extremists. The power to all the Extreme parties was greatly curtailed, and the result may force the Conservatives to abandon Premier Giolitti, who is a Liberal. The Conservatives owe their victory largely to the violence of the recent strike riots. Several months ago, a number of Italian prelates united in a petition to the Pope to rescind the rule (formulated by Pope Pius IX.) forbidding Catholics to take part in national elections. No relaxation of the rule had been announced, but a great number of Clerical votes had been cast, even priests and monks in their ecclesiastical robes depositing their ballots, and in Rome even attachés of the Vatican going to the polls to vote against Signor Ferri, the Socialist leader. There are three principal forces or ideas in Italy,—the monarchy, the Church, and socialism,—the latter being really republican. The monarchy and socialism are both opposed to the Church, avowedly, but in its present extremity the monarchy is almost forced to ask the aid of its clerical enemy against the new danger which threatens both,—the economic "peril" of socialism.

RECORD OF CURRENT EVENTS.

(From October 21 to November 20, 1904.)

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—AMERICAN.

October 25.—The Panama Canal Commission awards contracts for equipment.

October 26.—W. J. Bryan ends his ten days' campaign in Indiana....Secretary Hay addresses a political meeting in New York City.

October 27.—A board of retired naval officers is appointed to investigate the United States steamboat inspection service.

October 28.—The board of registration at New Haven, Conn., refuses to register a Filipino student of Yale University on the ground that he is not a citizen of the United States.

October 31.—Ex-Judge Alton B. Parker, Democratic candidate for the Presidency, addresses a large gathering in New York City.

November 3.—Ex-Judge Parker speaks in four Connecticut cities.

November 4.—President Roosevelt makes a reply to Judge Parker's charges that money has been corruptly obtained from corporations by the Republican National Committee.

November 8.—Electors of President and Vice-President, Representatives in Congress, and many State legislatures and State and local officers are chosen in the United States.

The following table shows the number of votes in the Electoral College and the approximate popular pluralities by States, as divided between the Republican and Democratic candidates for President. As these estimates of popular pluralities are made in advance of the complete official canvass, the figures are not to be accepted as final; but it is believed that they correspond very closely with the actual results of the balloting. In Maryland, one Republican Elector is chosen and seven Democratic, the pluralities being so small that they may be disregarded in the total.

	Roosevelt.		Parker.	
	Electoral votes.	Estimated pluralities.	Electoral votes.	Estimated pluralities.
California	10	100,000		
Colorado	5	15,000		
Connecticut	7	40,000		
Delaware	3	5,000		
Idaho	3	8,000		
Illinois	27	225,000		
Indiana	15	93,601		
Iowa	13	165,859		
Kansas	10	30,000		
Maine	6	35,000		
Maryland	1	.....		
Massachusetts	16	86,279		
Michigan	14	150,000		
Minnesota	11	125,000		
Missouri	18	28,271		
Montana	3	10,000		
Nebraska	8	75,000		
Nevada	3	2,000		
New Hampshire	4	20,000		
New Jersey	12	60,000		
New York	39	170,000		
North Dakota	4	20,000		
Ohio	23	250,947		
Oregon	4	40,000		
Pennsylvania	34	490,000		
Rhode Island	4	15,974		
South Dakota	4	30,000		
Utah	3	8,000		
Vermont	4	35,000		
Washington	5	66,749		
West Virginia	7	25,000		
Wisconsin	13	60,000		
Wyoming	3	7,000		
Totals	336	2,492,680		
Roosevelt's plurality	196	1,928,680		
Alabama			11	40,000
Arkansas			9	40,000
Florida			5	20,000
Georgia			13	40,000
Kentucky			13	14 000
Louisiana			9	40,000
Maryland			7	....
Mississippi			10	50,000
North Carolina			12	50,000
South Carolina			9	40,000
Tennessee			12	15,000
Texas			18	190,000
Virginia			12	25,000
Totals			140	564,000



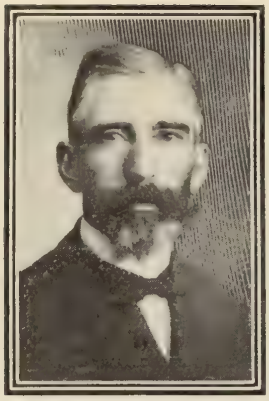
Frank R. Gooding, Idaho. Albert E. Mead, Washington.

TWO WESTERN REPUBLICAN GOVERNORS ELECTED IN 1904.

Elections to the Fifty-ninth Congress result as follows: 252 Republicans and 134 Democrats.

The following State governors are elected:

Colorado	Alva Adams, D.
Connecticut	Henry Roberts, R.
Delaware	Preston Lea, R.
Florida	Napoleon B. Broward, D.
Idaho	Frank R. Gooding, R.
Illinois	Charles S. Deneen. R.
Indiana	J. Frank Hanly, R.
Kansas	Edward W. Hoch, R.
Massachusetts	William L. Douglas, D.
Michigan	Fred. M. Warner, R.
Minnesota	John A. Johnson, D.
Missouri	Joseph W. Folk, D.
Montana	Joseph K. Toole, D.*
Nebraska	John H. Mickey, R.*
New Hampshire	John McLane, R.
New Jersey	Edward C. Stokes, R.
New York	Frank W. Higgins, R.
North Carolina	Robert B. Glenn, D.
North Dakota	E. Y. Searles, R.



Bryant B. Brooks,
Wyoming.



E. Y. Searles,
North Dakota.



Preston Lea,
Delaware.



Copyright by J. E. Purdy.

John McLane,
New Hampshire.

FOUR NEWLY ELECTED REPUBLICAN GOVERNORS.

South Carolina	Duncan C. Heyward, D.*
South Dakota	Samuel H. Elrod, R.
Tennessee	James B. Frazier, D.*
Texas	Samuel W. T. Lanham, D.*
Utah	John C. Cutler, R.
Washington	Albert E. Mead, R.
West Virginia	William O. Dawson, R.
Wisconsin	Robert M. La Follette, R.*
Wyoming	Bryant B. Brooks, R.

* Reëlected.

November 9.—President Roosevelt announces his determination not to be a candidate for another term; Alton B. Parker issues a statement declaring that he will never again be a candidate for office.

November 11.—A call is issued by the Populist national committee for a meeting to be held in Chicago for the purpose of forming a new national party.

November 15.—President Roosevelt issues an order extending the civil service rules to cover places in the Isthmian Canal service.

November 16.—President Roosevelt dismisses United States Marshal Frank H. Richards, of the Nome District of Alaska, from office, and asks for the resignation of Judge Melville C. Brown, of the Juneau District, on charges of improper official conduct.

November 17.—Col. Frank J. Hecker resigns from the Panama Canal Commission because of ill health.

POLITICS AND GOVERNMENT—FOREIGN.

October 21.—The French Chamber begins a debate on the dispute with the Vatican....In Portugal, the new ministry announces its policy to the Chamber.

October 22.—By a vote of 318 to 230 the French Chamber supports the Combes government against the Vatican.

October 26.—Premier von Korber reconstructs the Austrian cabinet.

October 27.—The British National Union of Conservative Associations meets at Southampton.

October 28.—The French Chamber debates the tactics employed in the war office regarding the promotion of officers.

October 29.—Tomas Arias, secretary of state of the republic of Panama, resigns office....The Spanish Chamber of Deputies has a disorderly debate on proposals for the constitution of certain Deputies.

October 31.—In the Newfoundland elections, Premier Bond and his colleagues are successful.

November 3.—In a Canadian election, the Laurier government secured a majority of about two to one in the House of Commons.

November 9.—Cuban Nationalist Senators resume obstruction tactics.

November 11.—The municipality of Innsbruck discharges 700 Italian workmen hitherto employed on public works.

November 13.—Opposition to the compulsory vaccination law leads to fierce rioting in Rio de Janeiro.... Troops are called out to suppress rioting in Warsaw; ten persons are killed and thirty-one wounded....In the Italian election, the party of the Extreme Left loses about twenty seats.

November 16.—The Brazilian congress and the city of Rio de Janeiro are in a state of siege owing to rioting by students.

November 18.—General Huertas, the Panaman commander-in-chief, and leader of the insurgent movement, resigns his office....The lower house of the Hungarian Parliament is prorogued, after scenes of disorder.

November 19.—Representatives of the Russian zemstvos meet secretly in St. Petersburg, the Czar having refused official sanction to the conference.

INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

October 21.—It is announced that Great Britain has positively refused a German request to be allowed to use Walfish Bay for the landing of troops and supplies ....President Roosevelt approves the invitations to the powers to take part in the second peace conference at The Hague (see page 671).

October 22.—The Russian fleet in the North Sea shells British trawlers; two Hull fishermen are killed and twenty-nine wounded; one boat is sunk and others injured.

October 24.—The British Government makes urgent representations to the Russian Government on the sinking of the fishing boats in the North Sea.

October 25.—The Russian Czar sends through the

British ambassador a message to King Edward and the British Government of sincere regret for the loss of life in the North Sea.

October 27.—The British cabinet council is summoned for the consideration of the Russian question; Vice-Admiral Rojestvensky's report sets forth that two torpedo boats made an attack on his fleet in the North Sea, and that it was these that were fired on, and not the fishing vessels.

October 28.—Premier Balfour announces that the Russian Government had conceded, in a spirit of conciliation and justice, the demands of Great Britain on the North Sea fishing fleet question; it is agreed to submit the whole affair to an international commission at The Hague.

October 29.—It is officially announced that the president of the British Board of Trade appoints Sir Cyprian Bridge and Mr. B. Aspinall, K.C., to report on the recent occurrence in the North Sea on behalf of the British Government.

October 30.—The United States Government sends to the powers signatory to the Hague conference a preliminary note suggesting that another conference meet to further consider questions of international law which would tend to minimize the results of the war (see page 671).

November 1.—The treaty of arbitration between the United States and France is signed at Washington.

November 3.—The British cabinet considers details of the Anglo-Russian international commission.... President Roosevelt sends congratulations to President Amador on the first anniversary of the independence of Panama.

November 5.—It is announced that Russia has accepted the convention to appoint an international commission to meet at Paris and fix responsibility for the attack by Russian warships on British trawlers in the North Sea.

November 9.—Lord Lansdowne, the British foreign secretary, announces that President Roosevelt's invitation to a peace conference at The Hague will be accepted with reservation regarding the subjects to be treated.

November 11.—The United States demands from the Turkish Government reparation for the attack on a caravan belonging to an American firm.

November 12.—The Anglo-French colonial treaty is ratified by the French Chamber of Deputies by a vote of 448 to 105.

November 15.—In the British Board of Trade inquiry into the North Sea affair, the Russian Government is represented.



MR. ISRAEL ZANGWILL.

(Who is visiting this country in the interest of the Zionist movement.)

November 16.—A treaty of arbitration between Great Britain and Portugal is signed at Windsor Castle.



Alfonso, nephew of the King of Spain.

Humbert, Prince of Piedmont, Italian heir-apparent.

TWO LITTLE HEIRS TO EUROPEAN THRONES.

THE RUSSO-JAPANESE WAR.

October 22.—The admiralty council in St. Petersburg annuls the decision of the Vladivostok prize court, and orders the immediate release of the British ship *Allanton* and her cargo.

October 24.—The Russian dead left on the field of battle at Shaho, as counted by the Japanese, number 13,333, the prisoners 709.

October 25.—By an imperial ukase, published in St. Petersburg, General Kuropatkin is appointed commander-in-chief of the Russian army in the far East ....Marshal Oyama reports that the total Japanese loss, including killed, wounded, and missing, is 15,879.

October 26.—Admiral Alexieff publishes an order of the day to the forces in Manchuria, he says the Czar has accepted his resignation of the duties of commander-in-chief of the forces in Manchuria, while retaining his position as viceroy....The cold in Manchuria is already so great as to cause much suffering, the country is devastated, and women and children are flocking into Mukden....The Spanish authorities refuse permission to the Russian Baltic fleet, which arrives at Vigo, to take in stores or coal in Spanish waters....The British steamer *Kashing*, from Chefu, strikes a mine and has to put pack for repairs.

October 27.—The British steamer *Sishan*, seized by the Japanese fleet on suspicion of running the blockade of Port Arthur, is released by the prize court at Saseho.

October 28.—The Japanese drive the Russians from a high hill on Kuroki's front....The Japanese make a desperate attack on Port Arthur and capture forts and batteries.

November 1.—A Russian detachment has a sharp engagement on the left bank of the Hun, losing forty men.

November 3.—The Japanese continue the attack on Port Arthur.

November 5.—The Russian Baltic fleet sails westward from Tangier.

November 7.—The Japanese vanguard captures three villages near Mudken, but is repulsed.

November 16.—A Russian torpedo-boat destroyer which entered Chefu bearing dispatches from Port Arthur is blown up by order of her commander.

OTHER OCCURRENCES OF THE MONTH.

October 21.—The rear column of the British force arrives at Chumbi from Tibet after great suffering from the snow.

October 24.—The armored cruiser *Colorado* maintains an average hourly speed of 22.26 knots, thus proving herself the fastest vessel of her class in the United States navy.

October 25.—The Protestant Episcopal General Convention at Boston adjourns after a three weeks' session.

October 26.—The Earl of Dartmouth lays the cornerstone of the new Dartmouth Hall, at Hanover, N. H.....Dr. Flavel S. Luther is inaugurated as president of Trinity College, Hartford, Conn.

October 27.—The New York rapid-transit subway is opened to the public.

October 28.—The bicentenary of the death of John Locke is observed by the British Academy....An explosion in one of the Colorado Fuel & Iron Company's mines at Tercio, Colo., causes the death of about twenty men.

October 29.—The centenary of the Code Civil is celebrated in Paris.

October 31.—The one-hundred-and-fiftieth anniversary of the founding of Columbia University is commemorated.

November 1.—About fifty thousand men are thrown out of work by a strike of hoisting engineers in Illinois.

November 12.—The rate war between the transatlantic steamship companies over third-class rates was settled by a conference....Official tests of the New York Central's electric locomotive to determine its speed and drawing capacity are held at Schenectady, N. Y. (see page 716).

November 14.—A strike of employees causes the principal retail stores in Buenos Ayres to be closed.

November 18.—The American Federation of Labor, in session at San Francisco, votes an assessment on the membership in aid of the striking textile workers at Fall River, Mass.....Fourteen miners are killed by an explosion of coal gas in a mine near Morrisey, Minn.

November 19.—The statue of Frederick the Great presented to the American people by Emperor William of Germany is unveiled at Washington, President Roosevelt making the address of acceptance.

OBITUARY.

October 22.—Dr. Samuel W. Abbott, secretary of the Massachusetts State Board of Health, 67....Chief Engineer John L. D. Borthwick, U.S.N., retired, 64.

October 23.—Rev. Francis De Sales Fullerton, S.J., 54.

October 24.—Lady Dilke, wife of the Rt. Hon. Sir Charles Winthrop Dilke, 64.

October 25.—Cornelius Van Cott, postmaster of New York City, 66.

October 26.—Field Marshal Sir Henry W. Norman, 78.

October 30.—John S. Brayton, a prominent business man of Fall River, Mass., 78....Justin B. Bradley, one of the early oil producers of Pennsylvania, 78.

October 31.—Archbishop William Henry Elder, of Cincinnati, 85....Ex-Congressman Hiram Odell, of New York, 74....Mrs. Kate Singleton, the actress, 59.

November 4.—Rev. Dr. Benjamin F. DeCosta, of New York City, 73....Paul de Cassagnac, well-known French journalist, 61.

November 6.—Louis F. G. Bouscaron, civil engineer, 64.

November 8.—Ex-Congressman George C. Hendrix, of New York, 51....Rev. Dr. Giles Henry Mandeville, of the Reformed Church in America, 79.

November 10.—Ex-Congressman Augustus Brandegee, of Connecticut, 76.

November 11.—Valentine Cameron Prinsep, the British artist, 66.

November 12.—Col. Daniel Read Anthony, of Leavenworth, Kan., 80....George Lennox Watson, the English yacht designer, 53....Dr. Charles F. Dowd, known as the originator of railroad standard time, 70....Maj. Leonard Hay, U.S.A., retired, 70.

November 13.—Henri Wallon, life Senator of France, and known as the father of the French Constitution, 92.

November 14.—Cardinal Mocenni, who was administrator of the apostolic palace under Pope Leo XIII.

November 16.—President Thomas S. Drown, of Lehigh University, 62.

November 18.—Ex-Judge Thomas A. Moran, of Chicago, 65.

November 19.—Col. W. C. P. Breckinridge, of Kentucky, 67.

November 20.—Ex-Gov. Hugh Smith Thompson, of South Carolina.

SOME CARTOONS OF THE MONTH.



"HERE WE ARE AGAIN!"

(Apropos of Mr. Roosevelt's triumphant election and subsequent visit to the world's fair.)

From the *World* (New York).

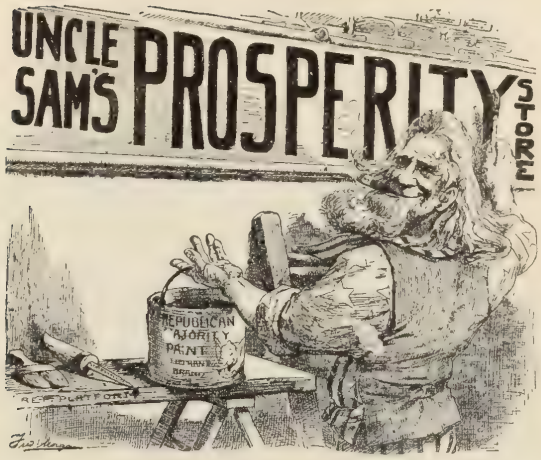


UNCLE SAM: "Now we can get up steam again."

From the *North American* (Philadelphia).



"A POST-MORTEM EXAMINATION."—From the *North American* (Philadelphia).



UNCLE SAM: "Do I believe in signs? Well, slightly. This old sign has been up for eight years. I've just repainted it, and that's a sign that it's good for four years more."

From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).



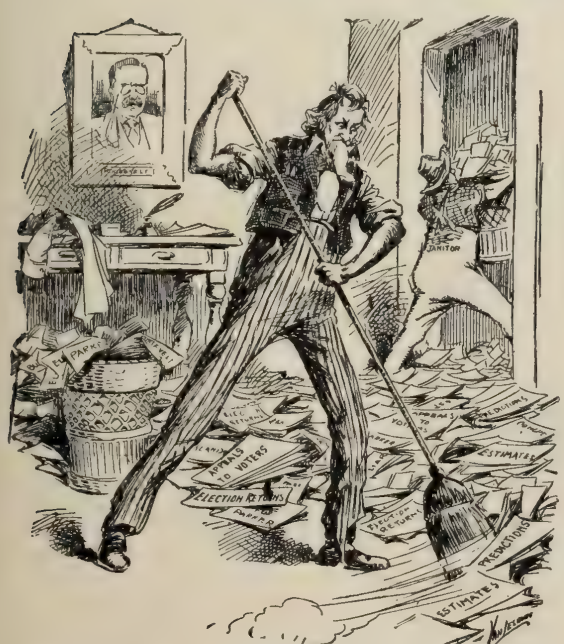
"KEEP SOBER."—(Secretary Taft's post-election warning to the G. O. P.)—From the *Brooklyn Eagle* (New York).



AFTER THE AVALANCHE OF NOVEMBER 8.—From the *Post* (Washington).



THE HORRORS OF WAR.—SEARCHING FOR A PARTY ON THE BATTLEFIELD.
DR. BRYAN: "The carnage was certainly fearful; I shall be lucky if I find the party I'm looking for."
From the *Inquirer* (Philadelphia).



UNCLE SAM: "I'm glad the election is over. I'll sweep out and get to work."—From the *Times* (Washington).



DAME DEMOCRACY: "I've tried two of those roads and I'm not on the right track yet."—From the *Times* (Washington).



THE WORLD INVITES RUSSIA AND JAPAN TO TAKE A RIDE IN THE CARRIAGE OF PEACE.

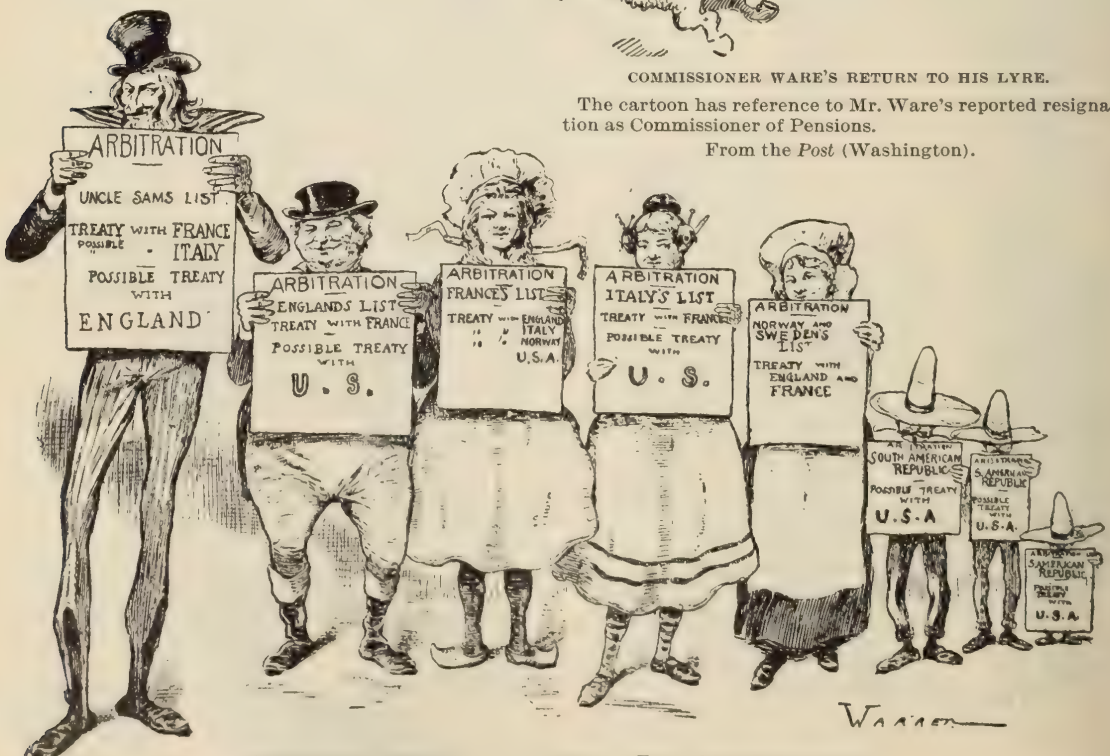
From the *Pioneer Press* (St. Paul).



COMMISSIONER WARE'S RETURN TO HIS LYRE.

The cartoon has reference to Mr. Ware's reported resignation as Commissioner of Pensions.

From the *Post* (Washington).



ARBITRATION SEEMS TO BE IN FASHION.—From the *Herald* (Boston).

THE UNITED STATES AND THE WORLD'S PEACE MOVEMENT.

BY WALTER WELLMAN.

IN the midst of war, the world is turning toward peace. Now the Christmas holidays approach, and "peace and good-will among men" has something more than sentiment and tradition to rest upon. The prayer for peace that comes swelling from all over the earth, with a volume which fairly gives it the weight of a demand or command, is now a living, vital force in the affairs of all the civilized nations. In Christendom to-day there is no more significant and promising fact than this. There is developing with giant strides a world public opinion, and it is a world-opinion which makes for peace. More and more the masterful peoples are coming to look upon war as barbarism, as a relic of the savage age, as a cruel and destructive monstrosity wholly unworthy to survive in our modern civilization.

It seems an anomaly to talk of universal peace while one of the bloodiest wars of modern times is in progress. But the carnage which has marked the great struggle in the far East is the very thing that has given momentum to the current movement to stop wars. Liao-Yang, Shaho, Port Arthur, have shocked the sensibilities of the world. They have roused a public sentiment everywhere. The peace movement is no longer confined to the dreamers and the sentimentalists, worthy host that pioneered the way; it has spread far and wide, till it has embraced the men who do the world's work,—the men of commerce and finance, the men who have their hands upon the throttles of the great industrial machine, the men who pay the taxes that are swallowed up in war, the men of journalism, of the pulpit, of the periodical press, the men of leadership in action and in thought. It has found its way into the royal palaces, the presidents' houses, the chancelleries, the foreign offices, the state departments of the powers. We may justly say that its growth and its promise together form the most notable world-event of the year that is now drawing to a close. It would be unwise to delude ourselves with the hope that war is impossible, that universal peace has spread her white wings over all the earth, that henceforth the civilized world is to be free of conflict and carnage. The millennium has not come. But it is true that the hazard of war breaking out has been sensibly lessened, and that the horrors which accompany it are sure to be vastly minimized if and when it comes.

PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT'S CALL FOR A NEW HAGUE CONFERENCE.

The most important practical step recently taken in this movement for peace was, of course, the note sent out to the powers by President Roosevelt and Secretary of State Hay opening negotiations for a reassembling of the Hague International Peace Conference. It must have impressed every observer of contemporaneous affairs as a peculiar circumstance that this important step should be taken by the head of the American state at a moment when, owing to the exigencies of a political campaign, Mr. Roosevelt was being well advertised by his opponents as an advance agent of war and an enemy of peace. Doubtless his critics were sincere and well-meaning, but even they must now admit, in the cold gray calm of the mornings after, that their chief magistrate is anything but the reckless swashbuckler and wanton wielder of the "big stick" that their imagination had painted him. At any rate, it is comforting to reflect that the remainder of the world did not take them at their word, and that the American people did not appear to be much impressed by their criticisms. Instead of looking upon Mr. Roosevelt as a probable disturber of the peace, our foreign friends have with noteworthy unanimity regarded him as the greatest personal and official force in all Christendom as a preserver of the peace and as a promoter of the movement designed to suppress, so far as possible, the barbarism of organized destruction of men and property in the name of national pride. Whether we be Republicans or Democrats, we may all feel satisfaction in this. And he must be an American with little warm blood in his veins or country-love in his heart who fails to be glad of the fact,—for it is a fact,—that Theodore Roosevelt, with election day's extraordinary mandate of the American people behind him, now wields a more potent moral influence in the affairs of the nations than any other living chief of state.

ABSURDITY OF THE "BIG-STICK" CRY.

At this juncture it may not be amiss to explain a recent episode of American history. President Roosevelt wrote a letter, which was read at a Cuban dinner in New York, and in which he said, in substance, that the United States had no designs upon the territory or the independence of any American nation, desired only their prosperity and happiness, and that no nation which maintained good government and met its obligations need ever fear interference on the part of the United States. This letter was at once taken up by the opposition to Mr. Roosevelt and exploited as proof that he intended to browbeat and subjugate all the other nations in this hemisphere. He was heralded as a terrible ogre with a big stick, as the continental policeman, as the man looking for trouble by asserting his right to regulate the households of his neighbors according to his own ideas of propriety. Now, the fact is that the letter in question was written wholly as a warning to San Domingo. At that moment a condition of affairs prevailed in that unhappy country which apparently made it necessary for the United States to intervene, not only for protection of American interests, but on the same ground of humanity which justified our armed intervention between Spain and Cuba. Mr. Roosevelt was not trying to intimidate all the Latin-American republics, nor to lay down a hard-and-fast rule for their guidance, nor yet a programme as to our own action, though doubtless if an emergency should arise of sufficient gravity to warrant intervention the general principles stated in that letter would govern the President's course. What he was trying to do was to beat some sense and respect for the decencies of international life into the thick heads of the San Dominicans; and though he may have been a trifle incautious in his expressions, particularly as they were intended for a specific and righteous purpose and not as a pronunciamento of a general policy, his critics were scarcely fair in building such an elaborate superstructure of theory and condemnation upon such a slender foundation of actual fact.

INTERNATIONAL ARBITRATION.

Most extraordinary and encouraging is the progress which the arbitration principle has made during the last two years. One of its greatest triumphs was the settlement of the long-standing and vexatious dispute between the United States and Great Britain over the Alaska boundary,—a settlement which in method of procedure and excellence of results might serve as a pattern for future years. It may not be generally known, but it is true, that the United States has ever been a leader in advocacy and application of the arbitration principle. In one hundred and seven years, the United States Government has been a party to no fewer than forty-seven arbitrations, or somewhat more than half of all that have taken place in the modern world. No doubt wars were averted by some of these settlements, for the questions thus disposed of are precisely those which have led to armed conflicts in the past,—boundaries, fisheries, and injuries to property or commerce in war.

Notwithstanding his reputation,—or the reputation his critics have tried to fasten upon him,—as a disciple of Mars, Mr. Roosevelt has done his fair share as a promoter of the peace movement. In his message to Congress, last December, he said:

> There seems good ground for the belief that there has been a real growth among the civilized nations of a sentiment which will permit a gradual substitution of other methods than the method of war in the settlement of disputes. It is not pretended that as yet we are near a position in which it will be possible wholly to prevent war, or that a just regard for national interest and honor will in all cases permit of the settlement of international disputes by arbitration; but by a mixture of prudence and firmness with wisdom we think it is possible to do away with much of the provocation and excuse for war, and at least in many cases to substitute some other and more rational method for the settlement of disputes. The Hague court offers so good an example of what can be done in the direction of such settlement that it should be encouraged in every way. Further steps should be taken.

In pursuance of the policy of the McKinley administration, President Roosevelt and Secretary Hay negotiated and presented to the Senate general arbitration treaties with all the countries of South America and most of those of Central America. These conventions now await action by the Senate.

Still more important work quickly followed. When Congress reconvenes in December, President Roosevelt and Secretary Hay hope to be able to present to the Senate treaties of arbitration with all the leading countries of Europe, or, if not in December, then before the session comes to an end, on March 4 next. A treaty with France was signed early in November, and negotiations for similar treaties were progressing favorably with Germany, Russia, Switzerland, Italy, Great Britain, and other European nations. These treaties mark a distinct step forward toward general peace. It is true that they do not provide for submitting all possible disputes to arbitration. Matters in which the nation's honor and intrinsic well-being are deemed to be

involved are expressly reserved from the list of arbitral questions; and it is, of course, obvious that any government may exercise its discretion in the widest sense, and under this clause withhold anything it chooses from the joint tribunals. We have not yet reached,—and, indeed, may never reach,—the point where the great powers are willing to agree to throw every issue or dispute into the courts of arbitration. But as an eminent diplomatist remarked, "To settle disputes by arbitration is a very good habit to get into; and once the habit is formed as to minor matters, it is only a step further to settlement of the major differences by the same means."

THE AMERICAN SENATE AND THE ARBITRATION TREATIES.

There is virtually no doubt that the Senate will ratify all these arbitration treaties. It may not do so promptly,—for the Senate is a body which moves in mysterious ways its wonders to perform,—but it is unbelievable that it will reject any of them or permit one of them to lapse. Seven years ago, the Senate rejected the Olney-Pauncefote arbitration treaty through the lack of two votes to make up the needed two-thirds; but the world has moved forward since then, and the United States has led the procession instead of lagging at the rear. Seven years ago, anti-English jingoism was a much more important factor in American politics than it is now. Fortunately, the day has passed in which a man or measure may be destroyed by raising the cry that he or it is the tool of John Bull. Some sorts of Chauvinistic foolishness we may still have with us, but that particular one is losing its forcefulness as the years roll by. Even the most intelligent and influential of our Irish-American friends are growing to view questions in which England is involved from the rational rather than from the hysterical standpoint. It will be interesting to note, as the winter speeds along, if the old tail-twisting jingoism is really dead and unable to offer opposition to the British treaty of arbitration. If any of the treaties is to be attacked, that will probably be the one; and in case opposition shows itself, public opinion may have something to say. So far as is known, the Senate is favorable to the various conventions which the President and Mr. Hay have negotiated.

ARMY AND NAVY EXPANSION.

One of the obvious meanings of the November election is that the people of the United States approve the efforts which our government has been making to build up an effective army and to secure a navy of first-class dimensions. Mingling with the people as I did in a professional effort to ascertain how the election was going, I could not discover that the cry of "militarism" produced any alarm anywhere. Apparently, the people of the United States want a good, though not large, army and a big and most efficient navy. They feel pride in all that the two arms of the service have done on land and sea. But if I have noted correctly the temper of the people, they have the same thought that is uppermost in the mind of President Roosevelt,—that is, they want an army and navy, not because they yearn for war, but because they believe timely and ample preparation for war the best means of preserving peace. Thus, we have the seeming anomaly,—but only seeming, not actual,—that the McKinley-Roosevelt period of naval expansion and army reorganization has also been a period in which the beneficent mission of the United States as a promoter of justice and peace in the world has made its greatest advancement. Hence, it is only fair to conclude that the disarmament idea with which the Czar set in motion the Hague movement is an extreme step the world is not yet ready to take. The tendency, rather, is in the other direction, but with this important condition attached,—only the great and rich nations can afford to maintain vast armaments, and the great and rich nations are the very ones that feel the most acute responsibility for the preservation of the world's peace. The day may come when disarmament will win favor with the powers. But now conditions approach as near the ideal as could be reasonably expected in this essentially practical and sordid world,—greatest power in the hands that most greatly feel a sense of responsibility.

THE ARBITRATION IDEA IN EUROPE.

It is not alone in America that the arbitration principle has made progress. During the past year, probably a score of arbitration treaties have been concluded between the nations of Europe. The most important of them are:

The Franco-English treaty, which has just been ratified by the French Chamber; a treaty between France and Italy; the Anglo-Italian treaty; a treaty between Denmark and Holland; the Franco-Spanish treaty; the Anglo-Spanish treaty; a Franco-English agreement concerning Egypt, Morocco, Newfoundland, western Africa, Siam, the New Hebrides, and Madagascar; the Franco-Dutch treaty; a treaty between England and Germany, and treaties between England and the Scandinavian powers, and between Spain and Portugal.

There may be critics who say that all these

conventions are trash, not worth the paper they are written on, and that any serious dispute of the future will be settled with the sword, as disputes have been settled in the past. But such is not the judgment of eminent publicists and diplomatists,—men who are behind the scenes, and who know whether all this parade of good intentions is merely for theatrical effect. In their opinion, it is sincere, valuable, and promising.

THE BALTIC FLEET INCIDENT.

Within the past few weeks, the world was given a notable example of the practical workings of the arbitration principle. A proud and powerful nation was deeply stirred by the killing of innocent fishermen by ships of war. Every diplomatist and every naval officer in the world knows what happened. The tragedy was foreseen by England's great poet, Rudyard Kipling, —for the true poet is also a prophet,—when he wrote these lines in "The Destroyers:"

> Panic that shells the drifting spar—
> Loud waste with none to check;
> Mad fear that rakes a scornful star,
> Or sweeps a consort's deck.

For a few days, no one would have been surprised if England had gone to war, or at least if an ultimatum had so impinged upon Russia's pride as to bring war perilously near, all because in mad fear Russian naval officers had fired at their own ships as well as at anything and everything else in sight. But the principle of mutual forbearance and self-restraint was called into action and the danger averted.

HOW THE EVILS OF WAR MAY BE LESSENED.

If in our generation the powers cannot be induced to disarm, if war cannot be made virtually impossible by sweeping agreements to arbitrate, the danger of conflict may be greatly minimized by these agreements to settle all minor disputes amicably. With the machinery for such settlement at hand, it will be employed; there will be a world-opinion which demands it; and the tendency will naturally be ever to make broader and broader the scope of the compacts, rising from the minor to the major. This is progress. And there is a vast work to be done in mitigating the evils of war, if war there must be. With the true genius of a world-statesman, Mr. Hay took a long step forward when he made his memorable move toward delimiting the area of the Russo-Japanese conflict and toward preservation of the integrity of China.

It is in dealing with the collateral issues of war, rather than with the dream of universal peace and disarmament, that the Hague conference, when it reassembles, promises to be of the highest service to mankind. There is the important question of the rights and immunity of property in transit in neutral ships. Mr. Roosevelt renewed to the Congress last winter a suggestion which had already been made by President McKinley,—that the executive be authorized to correspond with the governments of the leading maritime powers with a view to incorporating into the permanent law of civilized nations the principle of exemption of all private property at sea, not contraband of war, from capture or destruction by belligerents. Congress authorized such negotiations, and the State Department now awaits a favorable moment,— which cannot be regarded as at hand till the struggle between Russia and Japan shall be brought to a close,—for presenting the matter to the attention of the powers. During the summer, seizures at sea by Russian cruisers brought this prolific cause of vexatious and hazardous international disputes most acutely before the world, and it is obvious that if the next Hague conference achieves nothing else than settlement in the international law of what is regarded as contraband of war, it will have justified its reassemblage. The first Hague conference earnestly recommended such an agreement.

Other questions raised at that conference, or in the experience of mankind, and now pressing for adjustment, may be briefly summarized: A convention concerning the laws and customs of war on land; adaptation to naval warfare of the principles of the Geneva Convention; the prohibition of throwing projectiles from balloons, of the use of projectiles which have for their sole object the diffusion of asphyxiating gases, and of the use of bullets which expand easily in the human body; the use of submarine and land mines, such as have worked such dreadful havoc in the present conflict; the inviolability of all private property on land; the regulation of bombardments of ports and towns by naval forces; the rights and duties of neutrals; the neutralization of certain territories and waters; the protection of weak states and native races; the condition of the Armenians and other subjects of the Turkish Empire, and the situation in the valley of the Congo.

THE PROPOSED CONFERENCE AND ITS PROSPECTS.

What is the prospect for an early reassembling of the International Peace Conference, to whose hands lie such important and beneficent work? Just now the outlook is not favorable. In his admirable note to the powers inviting an exchange of views as to the advisability of a reas-

sembling of the conference, Mr. Hay took care to point out that in accepting the trust urged upon him by the Inter-Parliamentary Union, representing the whole world, President Roosevelt was not unmindful of the fact that a great war was now in progress. The inference is that not much in the way of immediate response was expected, for obvious reasons; and yet the results have been far from discouraging. Most of the powers have signified their acceptance of the principle that there should be another conference, some of them with reservations as to the programme of discussion, and most of them with reservations as to the date. The sum of the matter is that while there is little chance of a new conference so long as the war in the far East continues, it seems to be almost settled that as soon as that war shall be at an end there will be a great international peace conference at The Hague, and that its work will be of vast advantage to the world. In the words of Secretary Hay: "Its efforts would naturally lie in the direction of further codification of the universal ideas of right and justice which we call international law; its mission would be to give them future effect. . . . You will state the President's desire and hope that the undying memories which cling around The Hague as the cradle of the beneficent work which had its beginning in 1899 may be strengthened by holding the second peace conference in that historic city."

THE MERCHANT MARINE COMMISSION.

BY WINTHROP L. MARVIN.

(Secretary of the commission.)

WHAT a priceless possession in time of need is that virile quality known as the "sea habit" Russia and Japan are now demonstrating as vividly as did ever France and England in the old ocean duels of the Nile and Trafalgar. When the early Czars wished a navy, they simply marched a regiment of troops aboard a ship, and the tradition that soldiers and artillerists are all that are required, and that seamen are not necessary, has ruled Russian naval practice down to the sailing of the Baltic squadron. This unconscionable delusion bore its logical fruit at the Dogger Bank, when Russian officers and men, ignorant of the sea and unnerved by the blackness and mystery of night, fired into one another in disgraceful panic, and killed and sank the English fishermen.

RUSSIA'S HELPLESSNESS.

That episode has made it clear to the whole world why the Russian battleships were so easily surprised and torpedoed off Port Arthur at the sudden opening of the war, and why Admiral Witthoeft's final desperate sortie failed against an inferior force of Japanese blockaders. Japan has the "sea habit;" Russia has not. Behind the efficient Japanese navy stands its indispensable reserve, a great merchant fleet and a skilled and loyal seafaring population. Russia has almost totally neglected this resource of the national defense, and has paid a terrible penalty.

Beyond the small so-called "volunteer fleet," Russia really has no ocean shipping worthy of the name, while Japan, through systematic national encouragement of her building yards and steamer lines, has developed a merchant tonnage more rapidly than any other nation in the world—from 151,000 tons in 1890 to 730,000 tons in 1903. Indeed, when this present war began, Japan actually had more overseas steamships afloat than has the United States on both the Atlantic and the Pacific oceans. These Japanese steamers are chiefly officered and altogether manned by native sailors,—skilled, hardy, and courageous men,—and there are, besides, several hundred thousand fishermen. Among these men, bred to the ocean, inured to its vicissitudes, Japan has found an inexhaustible reserve for the strain of war, to recruit the worn crews of her battleships, and to keep in constant service her superb torpedo-boat flotilla. Need we wonder that every naval action thus far fought has gone overwhelmingly in favor of the side which has had the foresight to cultivate the "sea habit," so fatuously neglected by the other?

A WARNING TO AMERICA.

The small professional naval force of the United States, is, of course, incomparably more efficient than the Russian personnel,—more carefully selected, and more thoroughly trained in the discipline which gives coolness and steadiness in danger. But it is a staggering truth that, alone of the naval powers, the United States resembles Russia in the absolute lack of a sea-

faring reserve. Our naval militia, useful in its way for harbor and coast defense, is composed almost entirely of landsmen. Like Russia, we have of late years ignored the value of the "sea habit," and sacrificed, not only our ocean ships, but most of our seafaring population.

It was with a view, manifestly, to the strengthening of our navy as well as to the expansion of our commerce that President Roosevelt, in his annual message to Congress, a year ago, gave conspicuous place to the merchant marine, emphasizing its continued and alarming decline, and urging the creation of a commission "for the purpose of investigating and reporting to the Congress at its next session what legislation is desirable or necessary for the development of the American merchant marine and American commerce, and incidentally of a national ocean mail service of adequate auxiliary naval cruisers and naval reserves." The President significantly added: "Moreover, lines of cargo ships are of even more importance than fast mail lines, save so far as the latter can be depended on to furnish swift auxiliary cruisers in time of war. The establishment of new lines of cargo ships to South America, to Asia and elsewhere, would be much in the interest of our commercial expansion."

PERSONNEL OF THE COMMISSION.

In response to this earnest recommendation, Congress, before adjournment, provided for a national commission "to investigate and to report to the Congress on the first day of its next session what legislation, if any, is desirable for the development of the American merchant marine and American commerce, and also what change, or changes, if any, should be made in existing laws relating to the treatment, comfort, and safety of seamen, in order to make more attractive the seafaring calling in the American merchant service."

As appointed on April 28, by the President of the Senate and the Speaker of the House, the Merchant Marine Commission consists of Senator J. H. Gallinger, of New Hampshire; Senator Henry Cabot Lodge, of Massachusetts; Senator Boies Penrose, of Pennsylvania; Senator Thomas S. Martin, of Virginia; Senator Stephen R. Mallory, of Florida; Representative Charles H. Grosvenor, of Ohio; Representative Edward S. Minor, of Wisconsin; Representative William E. Humphrey, of Washington; Representative Thomas Spight, of Mississippi, and Representative Allan L. McDermott, of New Jersey.

Senator Gallinger, who was immediately elected chairman of the commission, has long served upon Senator Frye's Committee on Commerce, in the Senate—the committee within whose jurisdiction in that body come all matters relating to the merchant marine. Senator Gallinger, like Senator Lodge, has been active and powerful in the movement for the rebuilding and increase of the navy. Senator Lodge, the son of an East India merchant and shipowner, has a keen interest in ocean trade and navigation. Senators Penrose, Martin, and Mallory are all members of the Committee on Commerce from important maritime commonwealths. Representative Grosvenor is the veteran chairman of the Committee on the Merchant Marine and Fisheries of the House, and Representative Minor is, after the chairman, the ranking Republican, as Representative Spight is the ranking Democratic, member of that important committee. Representatives Humphrey and McDermott are also members of the Merchant Marine Committee of the House. Therefore, the theme of the inquiry is not an unfamiliar one to any of the ten members of the commission, two of whom possess, besides their legislative experience, an actual personal experience of the sailor's calling. Senator Mallory, son of the distinguished Confederate Secretary of the Navy, served as a midshipman in the squadron defending Richmond, and Representative Minor was for years a licensed officer of steam vessels in the mighty commerce of the Great Lakes. The commission chose as its secretary Mr. Winthrop L. Marvin, of Boston, a member of the Massachusetts Civil Service Commission, and author of "The American Merchant Marine" (Charles Scribner's Sons, 1902).

A THOROUGH, FAR-REACHING INQUIRY.

Prompt beginning was made in the inquiry directed by Congress with a series of hearings at the office of the New York Board of Trade and Transportation, May 23–25. About thirty witnesses,—merchants, shipowners, shipbuilders, officers, and seamen,—were examined at New York, and then the commission visited, successively, Philadelphia, Baltimore, and Boston. Later, there were hearings at Chicago, Detroit, Cleveland, and Milwaukee, and in midsummer Chairman Gallinger and three associates of the commission crossed to the Pacific coast and held sessions in Seattle, Tacoma, Portland, and San Francisco. After the November elections, the Southern sub-commission, of which Senator Martin, of Virginia, is chairman, conducted hearings at Galveston, New Orleans, Pensacola, Brunswick, and Newport News, and on November 22 Chairman Gallinger called the full commission together in Washington to prepare the report and recommendations which Congress re-

quires the commission to present on the first day of the session, Monday, December 5.

This inquiry of the Merchant Marine Commission is the most exact and comprehensive that has ever been undertaken as to the merchant shipping interests of the United States. It can justly be said that it has been carried on in a thoroughly frank and impartial temper. The commission is far more evenly balanced politically than are the usual committees of Senate and House—six of the ten members being Republicans, and four Democrats. Moreover, all sections of the country, including, not only the Eastern and Southern States, but the great middle West and the Pacific coast, are represented among the commissioners. A spirit of fairness and courtesy has characterized the hearings everywhere. Millionaire presidents of great railway systems have sat side by side with rugged seamen and firemen from the docks, waiting their turn to be heard, and skilled mechanics from the yards have known that they were just as welcome and would be as attentively listened to as any banker or manufacturer or head of a line of steamships. All the testimony has been carefully reported by the expert stenographers of the Senate, published in three volumes, indexed, and made available for everybody interested in this problem, which has so long seemed to baffle American statesmanship.

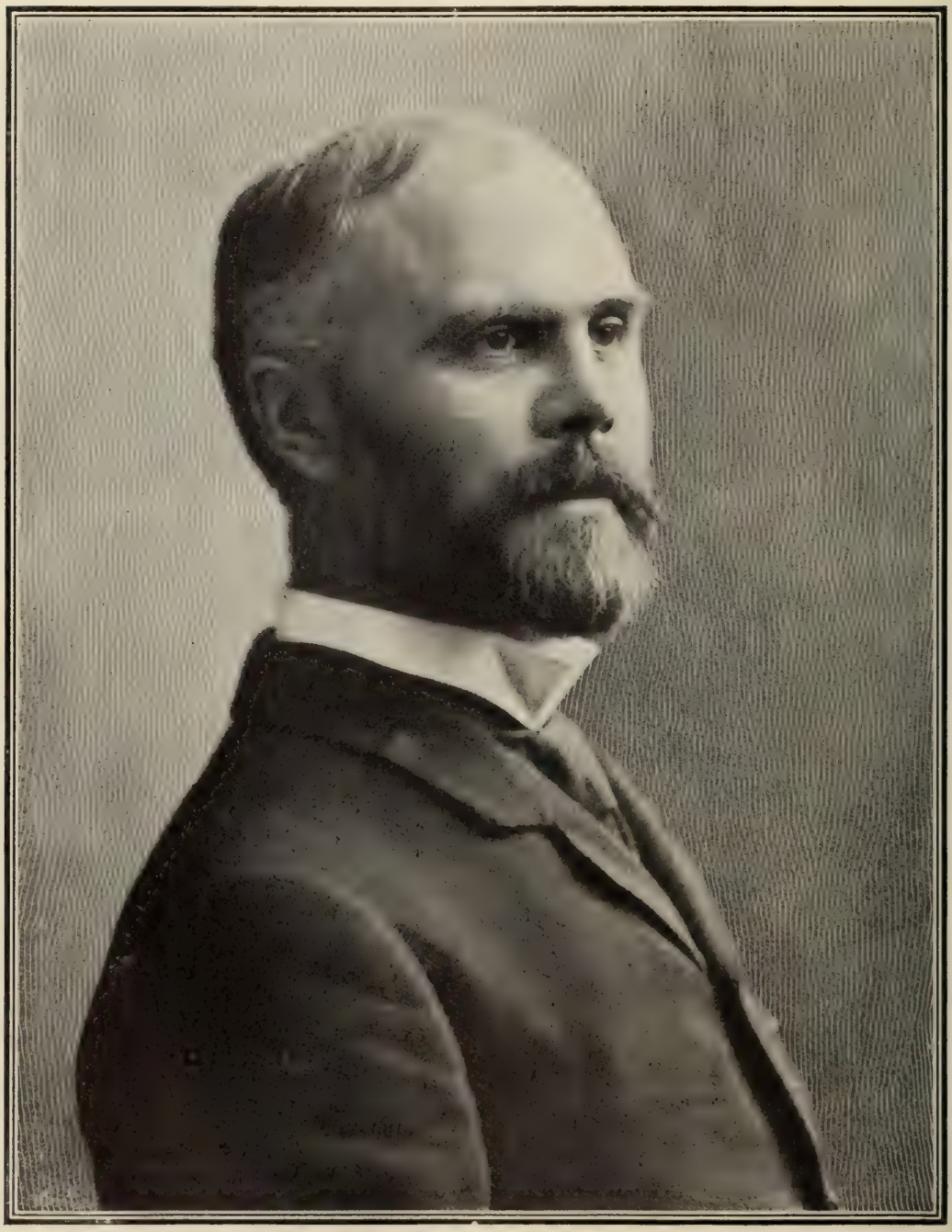
THE PLANS MOST FAVORED.

The commission resolved at the very outset of its inquiry that no time could be spared for history or reminiscences, and that the actual, desperate condition of American shipping and its imperative need of relief were known of all men. What the commission has everywhere invited, therefore, are specific suggestions as to the best line of remedy. These suggestions, naturally, covered a wide field. Some of them are on their very face impracticable. Others are as manifestly ineffective. But there is an unmistakable trend of earnest and informed opinion, alike on the North Atlantic, the Great Lakes, the Pacific, the South Atlantic, and the Gulf of Mexico, toward a few clear-cut expedients. In the first place, American public sentiment demands overwhelmingly that American merchant ships shall be, in the main, American-built ; that they shall be officered and, so far as may be, manned by American citizens ; that while fast mail steamers are valuable, and, indeed, indispensable, on certain routes, a deepened emphasis must be laid on capacious cargo ships, of steam and sail, and that it is of the utmost importance to secure at once improved direct communication, under the American flag, with South and Central America, Asia and the Philippines. These things, apparently, are regarded by the American people as of far more consequence than 24-knot greyhounds to the north of Europe.

The commission has listened to much discussion of subsidy methods, pro and con, and it can safely be said that the system of mail and auxiliary cruiser subvention embodied in the present law,—wherein the Government pays distinctly for services rendered and there is no bounty outright,—has won approval throughout the United States. Perhaps even more impressive, however, as one glances over the pages of the testimony, is the support given to a revival of the old, historic plan of discriminating duties and tonnage taxes, at least in the indirect trade,—that is, the enforcement of discrimination against foreign vessels bringing goods to this country from a country not their own. There are earnest objections to this, as, indeed, to every other expedient, and to adopt it would compel the modifying or abrogating of our chief commercial treaties. But it is rejoined that even the negotiation of new treaties would not be too great a price to pay for the upbuilding of our merchant marine and the revival of the "sea habit" among the American people.

NO SHIPOWNERS OR SEAMEN.

How perilously feeble this "sea habit" has become was sharply borne home to the Merchant Marine Commission at such important ports as Portland, Ore., and Galveston, Texas. There the inquiry failed to disclose so much as one American shipowner,—and, of course, American officers and seamen had vanished with the American ships. In both cities, the overseas shipping business was entirely in the hands of foreign companies, which look with frank hostility upon every effort to regain for American ships the carrying of even a share of American commerce. Indeed, it may be taken for granted that everywhere throughout the United States where a foreign steamship agent is established there will be persistent and aggressive opposition to any measure whatsoever for the upbuilding of the American merchant marine. The revival of the "sea habit" in our country is dreaded above all things by the powers that are our competitors in peace and our possible enemies in war. They would ask no better fortune than that Russia's plight might be our own indefinitely. When the report and recommendations are rendered, the commission will have done its part. It will then rest with Congress to determine whether the United States shall have merchant ships and a naval reserve, or shall retire, beaten and humiliated, from the ocean.



From a photograph taken last month for this magazine by Messrs. Davis & Sanford, New York.

MR. WILLIAM BARCLAY PARSONS, OF NEW YORK.

(Chief engineer of the New York rapid-transit railroad system.)

FOUR MEN OF THE MONTH: PERSONAL TRIBUTES.

I.—WILLIAM BARCLAY PARSONS.

BY NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER.

SUCCESS means many different things and comes to men in many different ways, but it is safe to say that William Barclay Parsons has both won success and has deserved it, whatever the word be interpreted to mean. It is no small thing to find one's self at forty-five at the head of a great technical profession, eagerly consulted by managers and underwriters of engineering enterprises of immense scope and great cost, and with a record of unbroken success in large things. Just at this time, when the underground rapid-transit railroad in New York City is in the first flush of its successful operation, not a little public interest has been excited in the personality of the man most responsible for the planning and the building of it. Highly intellectual such a man must certainly be, but brains alone accomplish little unless driven by a powerful will and harnessed to a firmly knit character. Mr. Parsons has this sort of will and this sort of character, and to them even more than to his high intellectual ability he owes the extraordinary record of accomplishment that is already his.

It is fashionable—and snobbish as well—to sneer at good birth and good breeding, but no substitutes for them have yet been discovered or are likely to be. The man who lifts himself up without either or both of them deserves the greatest possible credit; but it is hard to believe that he might not have lifted himself still higher had they both been his. Mr. Parsons is both well-born and well-bred, and he bears the marks of his birth and breeding in his carriage and in his speech. The best blood of old New York flows in his veins, and he has proved himself worthy of it. Through the Barclays, his ancestry goes back to the early days of Trinity Parish; and through the Livingstons, to the War of Independence and the formation of the Constitution. These fine family traditions have not caused him to lie back upon them in slothful pride, but rather they have served as a stimulus to honorable ambition and endeavor.

Mr. Parsons is also well-bred. From boyhood, he has had the fullest opportunity for association with men and women of character and refinement, and he has enjoyed the best educational advantages of our time. He was wise enough to prepare himself for the profession of engineering, not by the shortest cut possible, but by the longest way round, through the liberal education that a college gives. He entered Columbia College in 1875, and graduated with distinction four years later, having had time and strength to stroke the crew and captain the tug-of-war team while vigorously pursuing his studies. With this sound foundation, he entered the School of Mines of Columbia University and began his purely technical education. In those days, the modern system of training engineers, which requires long service at practical work in the field during the months that used to be devoted to summer vacation, was not in vogue, but Mr. Parsons felt the need of this sort of work, and spent his vacations gaining practical experience in surveying, in mining, and in railroad work. In 1882, he took his second degree at Columbia and was graduated as a civil engineer.

It is just twenty-two years since his *alma mater* put upon Mr. Parsons her stamp of approval of him as one who might safely enter upon the practice of engineering. Those twenty-two years have been eventful ones for engineers, and the achievements that those years record would have seemed incredible even a quarter of a century ago. Mr. Parsons has kept pace with them all, and has contributed powerfully to not a few of them.

After service in the engineering force of the Erie Railway, Mr. Parsons entered upon the practice of his profession in New York as an independent engineer. Very early he became associated with the enterprises that were then under way for the construction of underground railroads in New York City, but those enterprises were destined to failure because of the fact that adequate legislation covering the field of their operation had not yet been enacted. In 1891, Mr. Parsons entered the service of the Rapid Transit Commission as deputy chief engineer, and served as such for two years, and

until the engineering staff was disbanded. When the Rapid Transit Commission was reorganized in its present form, in 1894, Mr. Parsons was made chief engineer of the commission. He was then but thirty-five years of age, and in his hands rested the solution of the problems of underground rapid transit for the metropolis. These problems had developed a great fascination for his mind, and he lived with them night and day, reflecting upon them constantly, both in their more general aspects and in their minuter details. One cannot but believe that the long and anxious study then given to these plans played an important part in their rapid and skillful execution a few years later. But the work of the Rapid Transit Commission was not without obstacles and discouragements.

Objections both public and private were made to the carrying out of the proposed plans, long litigation ensued, and many friends of the undertaking became despondent and fell away. Mr. Parsons never wavered in his conviction that underground rapid transit must be provided for New York, and his enthusiasm for the project which he had conceived never flagged. Even in 1896 and 1897, when the decision of the Supreme Court and the acts of the municipal administration combined to put what seemed to be a permanent veto upon the progress of rapid transit, and when many friends urged Mr. Parsons to withdraw from his task, as it could only end in failure and loss of reputation, he stubbornly refused to be turned aside. He had risked his professional reputation upon his belief in the necessity and practicability of underground rapid transit in New York, and the triumphant end justified his judgment. It is quite clear that all through this period of his life character quite as much as intellect was winning reputation and success. A weak man would have surrendered in the face of what appeared to be insuperable opposition, and a vain man would have diverted his attention to something that promised more immediate and glittering success. Mr. Parsons was neither weak nor vain, but simply determined. Because of his determination, as well as because of his insight, he is to-day everywhere hailed as a man who has won for himself most enviable repute, and who has given to his city, not only a source of comfort and convenience, but an instrument of future growth.

Not even the engrossing task of the Rapid Transit Commission absorbed all of Mr. Parsons' energies. He had read and studied much as to the possibilities of railway-building in China, with its consequent benefit to the trade and commerce of the world. It was natural, therefore, that when invited by the group of capitalists headed by the late Senator Calvin S. Brice, of Ohio, to organize a staff of engineers and proceed to China and make a survey for a railway, he should undertake the task. On arriving in China, he found a complicated and dangerous situation, due to the unsettled political conditions, especially in the interior of the kingdom. Every adviser was averse to his undertaking the inland journey, but, nevertheless, Mr. Parsons carried out his plans and his instructions, and completed the survey through the district between Hankow and Canton, thus making the longest continuous instrumental survey that had been completed in China up to that time. That the undertaking was a dangerous one is evidenced by the fact that both foreigners and Chinese told Mr. Parsons that he could not get through the district into which he had planned to go, and that if he tried to force his way through he would certainly be killed. He did not have to force his way through, however, but went through practically without molestation, and was not killed.

Two more high professional honors have come to Mr. Parsons within a few years. He has been chosen by President Roosevelt as one of the commission to build the Panama Canal, an undertaking which attracts the interest of the whole nation, and which appeals to the imagination of the entire civilized world. Moreover, he has been invited by the British Government to become a member of a commission of three to examine into all the details of London traffic, both railway service and underground transit, including the problems of vehicular traffic, new and widened streets, and everything relating thereto. The associates of Mr. Parsons upon this commission are Sir John Wolfe-Barry and Sir Benjamin Baker, the two leading engineers of England. So far as is known, the appointment of Mr. Parsons is without a precedent, for no foreigner has ever before received a similar honor from the British Government.

Mr. Parsons is an active member of the leading engineering societies, both in this country and in Europe. He is actively interested in all that affects his city, his State, and his nation. He is a valued trustee of Columbia University, and serves also as a vestryman of Trinity Church. Busy as he is, he finds time to read and to reflect, and to enjoy the society of his fellows.

If the younger men of to-day are casting about for careers upon which to model their own, they will not go far amiss if they study the lessons of Mr. Parsons' life, which is yet in its early prime. Let them take note of the time

and effort spent upon laying a solid foundation, not only of professional knowledge, but of liberal culture. Let them take note of those strong personal characteristics which led Mr. Parsons to stick to his task without flinching after his mature judgment had once committed him to it. Let them realize, too, that the most truly successful man is not the narrow man, but the man who is broad enough to touch life's interests at many points.

II.—DAVID ROWLAND FRANCIS.

BY FREDERICK M. CRUNDEN.

WHEN any great achievement meets our eyes or comes to our knowledge, we have good warrant to apply, with a difference, the ungallant French phrase and *look for the man.* The Louisiana Purchase Exposition stands before us as one of the greatest triumphs of civilization and world-wide coöperation. It is more than a milestone,—it is a monument. The *man* is not far to seek. As I said in a REVIEW article on the Exposition in May, 1903: "With due credit to all the other men who have helped to make the Louisiana Purchase Exposition, St. Louis would have had no world's fair but for David Rowland Francis. . . . There is no other man in the State of Missouri who has the rare combination of qualities and characteristics, physical, mental, and temperamental, that has enabled Mr. Francis to work up public sentiment and bring to his support a large body of able citizens, to secure from Congress a grant of five million dollars, to persuade legislatures and convince commercial bodies, to organize the exposition and keep in touch with every part of the administration, and finally to storm the palaces of Europe and capture their royal occupants."

Like so many Missourians, Mr. Francis is a "son of Kentucky and a grandson of Virginia," his ancestors on both sides being among the pioneers from Virginia who cleared the forests in Kentucky. From this hardy and enterprising ancestry he received the magnificent inheritance in body and mind which has enabled him to win fame and fortune and take his place among the great men of the nation.

In 1866, he came to St. Louis from his birthplace in Richmond, Ky., a tall, slender stripling of sixteen. He immediately entered Washington University, from which he graduated in 1870. After five years of clerkship and a year or two of junior partnership, he founded the D. R. Francis & Bro. Commission Company, in 1877, and soon became known as one of the most successful business men and astute financiers in St. Louis. In 1883, he was elected vice-president, and the next year president, of the Merchants' Exchange, and in 1885 he was rescued from the danger of becoming merely a money-maker by receiving the Democratic nomination for the mayoralty. He served in this office till 1889, giving his time almost wholly to his public duties, and through his financial talents securing to the city the most substantial benefits. At the close of his mayoral term, he was elected governor, which office he filled for four years with dignity and distinction. He then returned to business life, till he was called to fill the post of Secretary of the Interior for the last half-year of Cleveland's second term. In 1876, he married Miss Jennie Perry, daughter of John D. Perry. They have six children, all boys, two of whom are married and members of the D. R. Francis & Bro. Commission Company.

When the Committee of Fifty, appointed to determine the most appropriate form of celebrating the Louisiana Purchase, decided on a world's fair, every one in the committee and in the community turned to Francis as the natural, the inevitable, head of the great undertaking. Only a man of supreme ability could have pushed the enterprise through its initial stages, the legislative and subscription period; and only a man of indomitable will and energy would have persisted in the face of obstacles that confronted the project at the outset.

Immediately upon his acceptance of the presidency, he arranged for the care of his private affairs by his brother and sons; and from that time on he has devoted his extraordinary powers of body and mind to the promotion and management of the exposition. In the beginning, his friends looked with concern on his prodigious expenditure of energy, and feared that he might not live through the three years. It was thought that if the work didn't kill him, the daily and nightly dining and wining would; but gradually all apprehension was allayed as he turned up each morning with bright eye and ruddy cheek and ready smile, as eager for the day's run as a Kentucky colt. And what runs he has had,



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HON. DAVID R. FRANCIS, PRESIDENT OF THE LOUISIANA PURCHASE EXPOSITION.

maintaining the racer's pace day after day, from ten in the morning to twelve at night, consulting with heads of departments, dictating letters on every imaginable subject, determining matters of policy and deciding questions of great financial magnitude, receiving distinguished officials and deputations, dedicating sites, opening buildings, and welcoming conventions and congresses, —luncheon a business meeting and dinner an official function, with speech-making all through the day,—always on his mettle, always keyed up to a pitch which the average man can sustain only a few hours a day. Why has he not broken down or showed signs of exhaustion? Because he has a brain that handles large affairs with ease, and a body that, in spite of unlimited impositions, keeps that brain in perfect working order; and, further, because he has taken daily doses of that greatest of all tonics, success. He was not pulling a dead weight. When he bent

to the oars he felt the boat bound beneath him. If the spontaneity of effort that springs from a vigorous physique animated by an intense purpose ever flagged from fatigue, it was spurred anew by the joy of triumph. If the powers that stood the heat and burden of the day ever faltered, the reserves came to the rescue and all marched forward with fresh courage and energy, inspired by the thought that the work they were engaged in was one of world-wide importance and lasting influence, that its results would not end with the disappearance of the gorgeous pageant it had created, but would endure in a better taste in art, a higher ideal of civic and domestic life throughout a vast region of this country,—in the promotion of peace and the growth of mutual respect and fraternal feeling among the nations of the earth.

This herculean labor of Mr. Francis has brought to him a bountiful return. Merely the pride and joy of achievement would have been sufficient reward; but this is not by any means the sole or the chief recompense. When Mr. Francis assumed the task he has performed with such ability and success, he was already a distinguished man, a man of wealth, a man of affairs, one who had held high official positions. His experience in public life had made him a good speaker; he knew everybody in Missouri, and had a large acquaintance among prominent men all over the country. These three years have greatly developed his powers and enormously enhanced his reputation. As an executive, he has been chief among a score of able chiefs; as a man of affairs, he has had the immediate direction of undertakings on an immense scale, and has dealt with millions as he formerly did with thousands; the multiplicity of interests that have come before him in the creation of the fair and in the reception of its visitors has added greatly to his stock of information; constant practice has developed a good speaker into an accomplished orator, well informed, ready, graceful, and forceful; finally, his fame has gone forth to the uttermost parts of the world; he has met under the most favorable conditions many of the great of the nations, and in few cases did he have to look up.

If space permitted, I should like to dwell on a few striking incidents of Mr. Francis' career,—as his appearance at the centennial anniversary of Washington's inauguration, where, according to the testimony of strangers, he presented the finest figure in the cavalcade of governors and generals, and his interview with Wilhelm II., which secured from the Emperor the promise of the magnificent exhibit that Germany has made at the world's fair. His climax up to the present (there are higher eminences ahead) was, I should say, his presidency at the farewell banquet to the International Congress of Arts and Science, on the night of October 22. In the grand banqueting hall were seated hundreds of learned and famous men from all the civilized nations. While each of these men knew more about his specialty than the chairman,—in some cases, more than any one else in the world,—each recognized in Mr. Francis a *savant* in the greatest of all sciences—knowledge of mankind. These men of science found in him an intellect of quick comprehension and broad grasp; they bowed before him and yielded to him their admiration as a "master" of men.

Napoleon said that the secret of conquest was to have a larger force than your opponent at the point of conflict. Some men have large intellectual forces, but they are slow in bringing them into action. The cause of Mr. Francis' success is the fact that he not only has a magnificent mental armament, but it is always in order and on the spot when it is wanted. He wins victory before his enemy can unlimber his guns.

Mr. Francis is a man of fine appearance and commanding presence, six feet in stature, broad-shouldered and deep-chested. A clear, keen blue eye, a broad and high forehead, a decided chin with a marked indentation suggesting a lovely dimple of infancy, and a square, powerful jaw, make up a striking physiognomy,—a countenance always keen and alert, an eye that never misses anything it wants to see, an outspoken, hearty manner, an expression, ordinarily, of frank cordiality, but with immeasurable reserves that may make it, upon occasion, as grim as war. A man at home in all kinds of company, a notable "mixer," at once winning, persuasive, and masterful,—persuading by ready wit and clear-cut argument, winning by his magnetic manner, and compelling by his will and the power of his personality.

He is about to make the tour of the world, to return the visits paid on his invitation by the nations of the earth to the United States and to the city of St. Louis. What could be a more appropriate sequel to the latest chapter in his career? And what traveler ever started out with such assurance of a hearty welcome throughout his circuit! In every country of the globe, from savagery to the highest civilization, he will meet men who have been his guests, who have shared his hospitality as president of the exposition, who have enjoyed his cordial smile and his hearty hand-shake, and they will give him a welcome such as no American has ever received except General Grant.

III.—GEORGE B. CORTELYOU.

BY LOUIS A. COOLIDGE.

IT is acknowledged at the outset that this is a eulogistic article. Nothing else could be written by one who has been closely associated with Chairman Cortelyou during the trying days of the campaign which has just closed. There could be no finer test of the quality of the man than that to which he has been subjected during the last three months, and that he has stood the test is an achievement worth while.

When Mr. Cortelyou's selection to be chairman of the National Committee was first announced, some of the old party managers were inclined to criticise the President for placing the responsibilities of the campaign upon inexperienced shoulders. It was said by some that the appointment meant that the President was to be his own campaign manager, and that Mr. Cortelyou was simply to act as his representative at headquarters; by others, that we were to have an exhibition of amateur politics, with the natural result. Mr. Cortelyou had not been a week in place before those who had been most free to criticise were equally free to praise. He became the master of the situation quietly but instantly. The leaders whom he chose to be associated with him in the management of the campaign fell easily and willingly into complete harmony with his views, and they worked with him zealously and approvingly until the end.

If I were asked what was Mr. Cortelyou's most marked characteristic, I should say: Complete mastery of self. There was never a moment during the campaign when he seemed in any way discomposed by the developments of the day. It was as if he had foreseen every contingency and had prepared himself in advance to meet it. Nothing could take him by surprise or throw him off his balance. His self-restraint was shown most strikingly in the last days of the campaign, when the Democratic candidate adopted as his own the irresponsible charges of yellow newspapers and muddied the political waters with assertions regarding the President and the chairman of the National Committee which were infamous if true, and which, if not true, were discreditable to those who made them. The offenses charged were so entirely foreign to the character of the two men involved that they aroused hot indignation among their friends and advisers. Chairman Cortelyou was urged strongly by some of those who stood highest in the party to deny the charges and denounce them.

It was a sore temptation for one whose first purpose throughout the campaign had been to carry on a clean fight, but he was wiser than those who pressed him. He counted securely on the native good sense of the American people, and on their confidence in the integrity of the President and himself. And he was right.

There has never been a chairman of a national committee who kept so closely in touch with the innumerable details of the campaign. There was no portion of the field in the States supposed to be doubtful, no matter how small, upon which he did not have his eye, and concerning the conditions in which he was not familiar. He relied chiefly upon his own sources of information, and there was never a time, even when the wildest claims were put out with apparent confidence from Democratic headquarters, and when Democratic newspapers were publishing extraordinary polls, that he was betrayed into a serious doubt as to the result. When the result came, he received it as imperturbably as he had received every other announcement during the campaign, and without delay prepared to adjust himself to the new responsibilities inevitable to success.

Another striking quality of Chairman Cortelyou is his capacity for long-sustained effort. Four years ago, Chairman Hanna spent comparatively little time at headquarters, and assigned the details of correspondence and of active management to others. It can be said of Chairman Cortelyou literally that from the day of his appointment up to the day of election he devoted every waking hour to the active work of the campaign. He would keep at work every morning until 2 or 3 o'clock, and would be at it again as soon as he had breakfasted. He had no form of recreation, accepted no invitations, no matter how attractive, and allowed nothing to divert him, even for a moment, from the exacting work he had in hand.

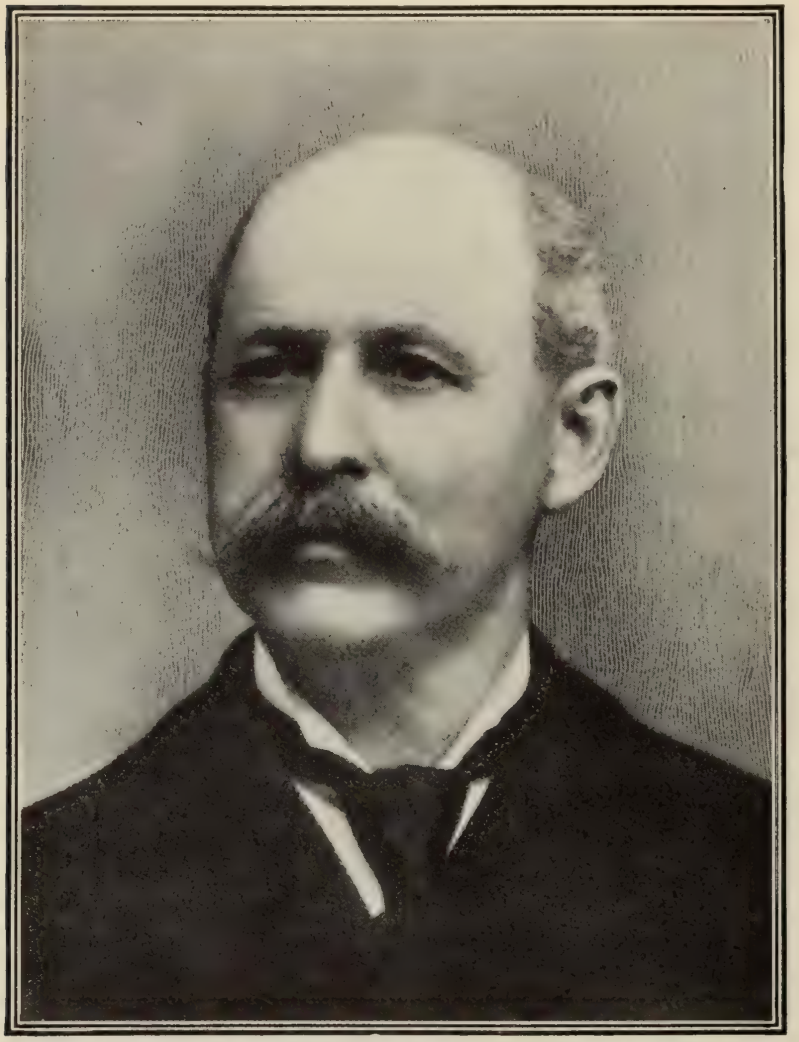
Above all things, Chairman Cortelyou insisted that the campaign should be conducted on a high plane, and that nothing be done by anybody connected with the committee which would not safely bear the light of day. He accomplished, probably, what has never before been accomplished in American politics,—conducted a campaign for the Presidency without making a single pledge or promise to anybody as to the course of the administration either in regard to appointments to office or to carrying out a policy. No



HON. GEORGE B. CORTELYOU, CHAIRMAN OF THE NATIONAL REPUBLICAN COMMITTEE.

letter was written from headquarters by anybody connected with the committee which could not be published without embarrassment; no arrangement was entered into which would have brought discredit to the committee if it had been known. The campaign was so clean and straightforward that the opposition were befuddled by that very circumstance. It was a situation so entirely different from any with which they were familiar that they were constantly suspecting combinations which were never even suggested, and for which there could have been no need. It was Chairman Cortelyou's determination that President Roosevelt's election should come to him without the smirch of a questionable transaction at any stage of the campaign. He succeeded far beyond what he dared to hope, and in doing so he has set a new mark for the conduct of national campaigns hereafter.

Forcefulness, tact, high purpose,—these are the qualities that have made Chairman Cortelyou at forty-two what he is to-day, a recognized leader of the Republican party, a hope and assurance to those who look for honesty, cleanliness, frankness, and fair dealing in our national politics.



HON. WILLIAM L. DOUGLAS, GOVERNOR-ELECT OF MASSACHUSETTS.

IV.—WILLIAM L. DOUGLAS.

BY H. L. WOOD.

AS the magnet draws steel and holds fast thereto, so has Governor-elect William L. Douglas brought to himself the majority vote of the State of Massachusetts. A State whose Republicanism is so pronounced as to be proverbial throughout the United States turned in a day and gave to a Democratic candidate for governor a majority exceeding by nearly one thousand votes that received by a Republican last year. It was a change that stunned the Republicans, who had given credence of such a result neither to W. L. Douglas nor to any other man. It was a breaking of political tradition that had hardly been given place among the possibilities by Republican leaders. There was not that sweep of enthusiasm which would give inkling of so marked a triumph, and the election overturn, in the quiet ballot war, came more as a shock, to the unsuspecting. Significance is added in the realization that the benefit accruing from this overturn all came to the governor-elect. It was the victory of a man, not of a party. For in the same ballot-boxes where reposed the votes that gave Mr. Douglas a plurality of

36,000 was found for Theodore Roosevelt, the Republican Presidential candidate, a plurality of 89,000 votes. This diversity is the remarkable feature of the election, and Mr. Douglas occupies a resultant position that is unique, for it is doubtful if there is another man in the old Bay State to-day who could have won a like triumph.

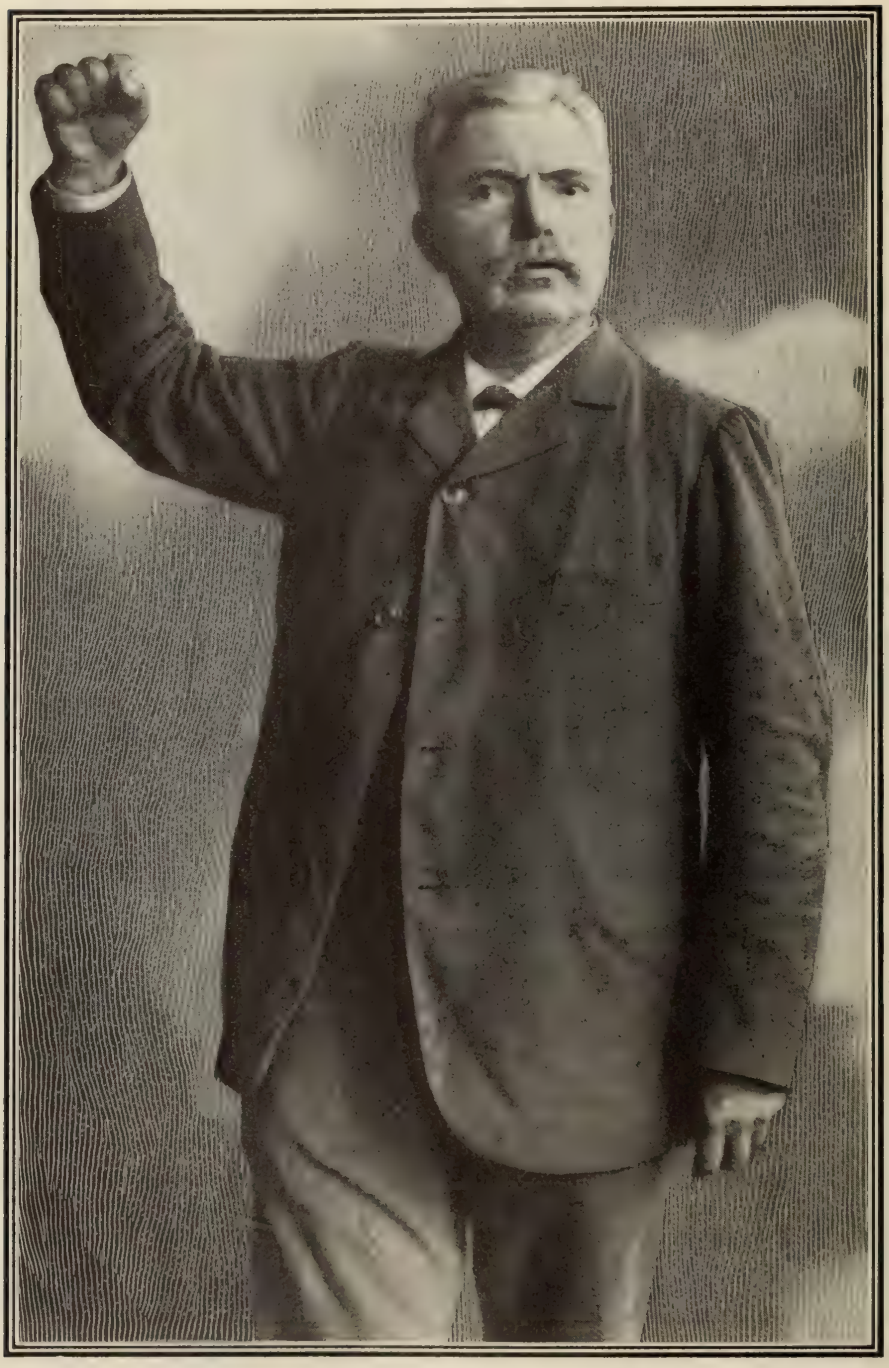
While there were issues in the campaign which worked toward the success of Mr. Douglas, it is to the power of a personality that touched the people and brought from all classes a support that was phenomenal that his election is primarily due. The Canadian reciprocity issue, which Mr. Douglas made his campaign theme, had somewhat to do with his selection. So did the labor agitation against Governor Bates, the Republican candidate, for his veto of the so-called "overtime" bill. But neither of these were sufficient of themselves to bring to Mr. Douglas those thousands of Republican votes which placed him above high-water mark in the result. Rather was it the widespread knowledge of the man himself, and of his life and character. There is in human nature a liking for a "man," used in that sense which is most comprehensive, with a coupling of true qualities of integrity and justice toward all. There is a love of the plain, democratic, and every-day sort of citizen whose life-record has demonstrated these sterling qualities, and in Mr. Douglas the voters of the State found such a candidate.

The birthplace of Mr. Douglas was in historic Plymouth, Mass. It was on August 22, 1845, that he was born, and his early years were spent on one of the small and barren farms of the southern section of that town. When the boy was but five years of age, his father died at sea, and two years later, his mother being unable to support him, he was given into the care of his uncle under an apprenticeship, to learn the trade of shoemaking. This apprenticeship lasted until he was sixteen years of age, and when he graduated from his uncle's little shop he was a full-fledged shoemaker, and was accounted a particularly good one. A year before he left his uncle, it is told that he was able to build a complete pair of brogans such as were worn at that time. During this time, he assisted, when he could, in the support of his mother and the other children of the family, and many a small sum from the apprentice, secured here or there, found its way into the hands of the mother. When sixteen years of age, he went to South Braintree, and was for three years with Ansel Thayer, where he learned to bottom shoes. With a love of adventure that comes to one naturally at that age, he determined to make his way West, and in 1864, with the fever strong upon him, bade good-bye to his friends of the East and started for Colorado. Those were the days of toilsome journeys across the Western plains, and from Nebraska to Denver, a distance of six hundred and fifty miles, the young man trudged beside a prairie schooner, driving the four-ox team. He rounded out his trade by serving a further apprenticeship in Colorado with a custom shoemaker, and then, in company with Albert Studley, of Scituate, Mass., conducted a custom boot and shoe store at Golden City, Colo. Three years of Western life was sufficient for the young man, and returning to his native town of Plymouth, in 1867, he spent the next three years working at his trade.

A characteristic of Mr. Douglas is a determination to progress that balks at no difficulty, and this was exemplified when, having noticed the development of Brockton as a shoe-manufacturing center, he went there in 1870 and secured employment as superintendent of the factory of Porter & Southworth. This position he retained until 1875, when the firm failed, and thereafter he continued for a time with their successors. With a capital of $875, saved from his earnings in the shoe shop, Mr. Douglas began manufacturing shoes on his own account in 1876, commencing in one large room, and from that small start he has built up a business which is the largest of its kind in the world. Nearly three thousand employees are on his payroll.

Above the medium height, with a well-filled frame, Mr. Douglas has a presence that is commanding, yet not forbidding. The face is full and smooth, bearing the passage of time easily. The forehead is high, above the steel-blue eyes, and the head is bald, with close-cut gray hair about the lower part, and the governor-elect wears a full gray mustache. The face, the figure, impress one and beget a second look as he passes on the street. Late years have brought a noticeable stoop to the once erect figure, but his step is as elastic and the virility of the man is as pronounced as that of many who are younger in years.

Mr. Douglas will carry to the State House an ability that is one great essential to every business success, and that has been largely instrumental in the upbuilding of his private interests. It is an ability to read men and to select those best fitted to carry out his wishes, with an interest close to his own in their accomplishment. He has the faculty of getting men who feel an interest in their work that is akin to his. With this ability utilized in the selection of his advisers in the administration of State affairs, his rule as governor of Massachusetts is promising of marked success.



PASTOR CHARLES WAGNER.

[One of the strongest, sweetest, most helpful characters who have visited our shores from abroad for years is Pastor Charles Wagner, the author of the now famous work, "The Simple Life." Pastor Wagner, who has just completed a two months' lecture tour of the United States, on the invitation of President Roosevelt, is an Alsatian, leader of the French Liberal Protestant movement, and author of a number of books which have achieved immense popularity. His "Simple Life" is a plea for more wholesome, less complex, less artificial, existence. A brief sketch of Pastor Wagner's career and an outline of his work appeared in an article in the REVIEW OF REVIEWS for September.]



THE ARRIVAL OF THE FIRST WHITE MAN.

(A scene from the play of "Hiawatha," as presented at Desbarats, on the shore of Lake Huron.)

"HIAWATHA," AS THE OJIBWAYS INTERPRET IT.

BY WILLIAM C. EDGAR.

DESBARATS, Ontario, is a little village on the Canadian Pacific Railway, a short distance from Sault Ste. Marie. Here the Ojibway Indians annually produce their play of "Hiawatha" during the pleasant months of summer.

If one go thither in a critical spirit, he will easily discover ample opportunity for fault-finding, and may return whence he came without having derived very much pleasure from the performance. If it please him to do so, he may note that the fire on the island stage is kindled by means of the ordinary sulphur match of commerce, and that the iron pot swinging above it is too obviously from the village store. As *Hiawatha*, very erect and stalwart, brave in his elaborately beaded garments, with his handsome feather headdress reaching down his sinewy back, asks the pretty and demure *Minnehaha* to be his bride, at the wigwam of the ancient *Arrow Maker*, the eye should be kept closely upon the actors, otherwise, out of the "tail" of it, may be seen the cook of the hotel, in his white apron and cap, doing a wholly irrelevant "turn," in which a chicken, intended for dinner, partici pates, to its ultimate decapitation. Again, the cliff, from the top of which *Pau-Puk-Keewis* hurls defiance to *Hiawatha* and his friends, is often but scantily covered with green shrubs, and betrays by many a flapping bit of black canvas that in its construction the Great Spirit has operated rather too plainly through the hand of the native carpenter.

If, however, the visitor be willing to disregard the tittering whispers of an irreverent audience, and to pass over as inconsequential the numerous imperfections in stage management,—if, instead of making note of all these trivialities, he will look toward the noble background of the stage, with its wide stretch of deep, sunshiny lake terminating in the islands, rocky based and verdure crowned, which gem the bosom of the Georgian Bay, retaining in his ears, to the exclusion of all extraneous sounds, the melancholy refrain of the chorus set up by the tribe as its canoes circle the stage, it will be strange if he does not carry away some haunting memories which will return after many days with singular insistence and sweetness, bringing back with them the odor of the wilderness and fragments of half-remembered chants echoing from wooded hills over still and shining waters.

At best, the charm of this Indian play is elusive and subtle, but it is there for those who seek it, and who, by a little experience, learn just when to be deaf and unseeing, what is best to ignore, and how to avoid sundry obtrusive interruptions to the perfect enjoyment of this ab-

original drama. To do this a little practice is necessary, but in the end it is worth the while.

If one should chance to come to Desbarats, not when the garish light of day exposes all its shortcomings with pitiless exactness, but on a summer's night, with the moon climbing up behind the islands, he would approach the scene in the ideal way. Leaving the station, he would take his way to the straight, narrow river flowing between banks of fragrant rushes into the great lake. Down this stream, canoe carried, he should proceed to the spot where the Indian tepees make a semicircle on the hillside—the old, old camping-place of the Ojibways. After he has sought rest in the snug, clean inn, weary from the day's journey, he may be so fortunate as to hear the Indians, in the grove back of his lodge, singing their own songs in their own way, as they sit before their wigwams in the moonlight. It sometimes happens thus, and with such a lullaby the most unimaginative may easily find himself sinking to sleep with strange visions of the original Americans and their pagan woodland rites passing through his drowsy mind.

In the afternoon, about the ordinary matinee time, wild whoops are heard from the direction of the lakeside, not far from—in fact, much too near—the hotel. This is a signal that the show is about to begin. The audience, usually a small one, straggles up the hill, buys tickets from the white man near the gate, and enters the inclosure. Here an Indian, in full dress, resplendent in skins and feathers, takes the tickets and acts as usher. An extra charge is made for reserved seats, which are rude benches under a shed, protected from the heat of the sun and the sudden summer showers. A desire to contribute as liberally as possible to the exchequer of the company should move one to purchase the higher priced ticket, but having done his duty by the treasurer, he should by all means escape from the inclosure and occupy the farther end of a certain weather-beaten old log which lies just outside. Here he may escape the comments of the audience and enjoy the proceedings in peace. This is undoubtedly "the best seat in the house," with the blue dome of heaven for its ceiling and the pebbles of the beach for its carpet.

Mr. L. O. Armstrong, who has spent his summers for many years on an island close by, is responsible for the production of the play of "Hiawatha." Ten years ago, he was traveling in an open boat along the north shore of Lake Huron, nearly thirty miles from Sault Ste. Marie. As night fell, he came upon a group of islands, and pitched his camp on one of them. When he awoke the next morning, he found the lake covered with canoes, and looking across to the mainland, discovered it to be the camping-ground of a tribe of Indians. He became acquainted with the natives and found them kindly disposed. Later, he built himself a shelter on the island, and invited the Ojibways to visit him. He won their confidence and good will, and in the course of many long and friendly talks, learned that the legend of Hiawatha was not unfamiliar to them. He read parts of Longfellow's poem to his red guests, and they verified and corrected it. He then undertook to obtain the Indian version of the story, and in this, after patient effort and much tact, he finally succeeded. He was surprised to find how close a similarity existed between Longfellow's interpretation and the legendary lore of the Indians themselves.



"MINNEHAHA" AND "HIAWATHA," AS THEY APPEAR IN THE PLAY.

Out of this acquaintance grew the idea of playing "Hiawatha," and its first

presentation was given in 1899, before members of the Longfellow family, who have since testified to their enjoyment of the event. Since then, Mr. Armstrong has succeeded in elaborating the play somewhat, but the Indians are loath to depart from their own notions, and resent innovations of any kind. There are several additional scenes in *Hiawatha's* history which might perhaps be given with excellent dramatic and musical effect, but the actors decline to present them. Particularly and emphatically, they refuse to portray the great famine and the death of *Minnehaha*, nor will they sing her death chant. They maintain that the costumes, dances, and songs of the play as it is now given are correct, and any suggestions to alter them in the slightest particular are disregarded. It is clear that the Indians give their own interpretation of the Hiawatha legend, and they certainly go about it in a serious and conscientious way. In harmony with this spirit, one may take it or leave it, but beyond certain limitations, determined by the Indians themselves, it is impossible to extend or vary the play, although, this year, the demands of the gallery have been met by *Pau-Puk-Keewis* to the extent of interpolating a modern laughing song, translated into Indian, an innovation that is far from commendable.



SHOWANO (A FULL-BLOODED OJIBWAY) AS "HIAWATHA."

The auditorium is a natural amphitheater on the shore; the stage, a small artificial island, about a hundred feet distant, at one end of which stand the lodge and wigwam of *Nokomis*. A few branches of trees are placed at intervals along the back of the stage. To the left, on the mainland, a very good imitation of a cliff has been constructed. This is covered with dark canvas, and is so masked behind pine trees, vines, and shrubs that it appears to be a natural promontory, towering far above the audience, and overhanging at its peak the deep water of the lake.

The scenery surrounding this little stage is the most magnificent of any theater on the continent, its background being the rocky islands of the Georgian Bay. These rise steep and clear-cut from the edge of the shining waters, and are covered with brilliant foliage. Bold-featured and picturesque, these islands, in their strong coloring, stand as if they had been prepared for the use of some mighty prehistoric scene shifter, and are far more artificial in appearance than the wooden cliff which the Indians themselves have made. This beautiful spot has for generations been the camping-ground of the Ojibways, and is, therefore, most appropriate for the purpose they have now put it to. Back of the stand where the spectators sit rises a gentle slope, crowned by a semicircle of tepees. All this, on a fair summer after-

noon, makes an ideal setting for the Indian play.

The cast of characters includes *Hiawatha*, *Minnehaha*, *Pau-Puk-Keewis*, *Chibiabos*, *Iagoo*, *Nokomis*, the *Arrow Maker*, and some of the minor characters in Longfellow's poem. Including the papoose and two small boys, about forty usually take part in the presentation. A conscientious fidelity to the Indian's own conception of the various parts distinguishes the acting, which is obviously untutored and genuine.

The acts include the assembling of the tribes upon the island, the infancy and youth of *Hiawatha*, his wooing, the wedding feast, the treachery, disgrace, and pursuit of *Pau-Puk-Keewis*, the arrival of *Black Robe*, and the final departure of the hero of the play.

Showano, a full-blooded Ojibway, with a really fine idea of the character, presents *Hiawatha*. He is graceful, dignified, and courtly, and possesses a certain charm which is singularly winning,—an Indian of the rare Fenimore Cooper type. Until this year, the part of *Minnehaha* was taken by his wife, who was a most attractive young woman. These two came to know and love each other through the production of the drama, in which they represented the two most important characters. Two years ago, they were married, but last winter *Minnehaha* died, and Showano experienced too profoundly some of the grief of the hero he portrays. The mimic representation of *Hiawatha's* life has realized in this sorrowful incident a very near approach to the story as Longfellow has told it. The modern *Hiawatha* mourns sincerely for the lost *Minnehaha*, and his grief has given to his acting, this year, a melancholy and pathetic quality which is very touching. The present *Minnehaha* is a young sister of Showano's late wife.

Although she is over eighty years old, *Nokomis* is still alert and agile. She does her part with great spirit and evident enjoyment. Good nature beams from her keen old eyes, and her feet can and do still trip a lively measure in the village dances. As she stands at the door of her wigwam, rocking the infant *Hiawatha* in his odd cradle, she sings a very ancient lullaby, used from time immemorial in her own tribe. This is none other than the Indian version of Longfellow's "Ewa-yea! My little owlet!"—

> "Hush, the naked bear will get thee!
> Ewa-yea! My little owlet!
> Who is this that lights the wigwam—
> With his great eyes lights the wigwam?
> Ewa-yea! My little owlet!"



OLD "NOKOMIS" WITH BABE, "HIAWATHA," IN HER ARMS.

The wooing of *Minnehaha* is very prettily and most effectively portrayed. *Hiawatha* announces his intention of seeking a bride among the Dakotas, and, disregarding the protests of *Nokomis* and his people, departs in his canoe. He reaches the mainland, and passes along the trail before the audience to the tepee of the ancient *Arrow Maker*, which stands at the extreme left, near the shore. Within sits the demure *Minnehaha*, and near the entrance the *Arrow Maker*, busy at his trade. The suitor pauses in the little grove on the hillside to send an arrow into a deer, and bearing his newly slain gift upon his shoulder, he appears before the wigwam. The *Arrow Maker* makes him welcome, and *Minnehaha* gives "them drink in bowls of bass wood." After obtaining the consent of the *Arrow Maker*, *Hiawatha* and his



"HIAWATHA" SHOOTING THE DEER WHICH HE LAYS AT THE FEET OF "MINNEHAHA."

bride start homeward in their canoe, making a romantic picture as they speed swiftly over the lake, while the old man stands in the doorway of his lonely home and moralizes on the departure of his pretty daughter with the "youth with flaunting feathers."

When the couple arrive at the village there is a series of wedding festivities, serving to introduce several Indian songs and dances which are very unique. Old *Nokomis* acts as hostess at the wedding feast, and calls upon a shy little dusky maid to sing. She responds with "The Lake Sheen," a quaint and tuneful melody. *Pau-Puk-Keewis* performs his beggar's dance, and *Chibiabos* chants in a melodious voice. Various Indian rites are presented in connection with this scene, which is full of curious and interesting Ojibway customs. *Minnehaha* disappears shortly after the wedding feast, the Indians declining to present any later incidents in her history.

Pau-Puk-Keewis is both the low comedian and the heavy villain of the play. The part was taken this year by a lively and accomplished Iroquois, who enters into it with the greatest zest and shows much dramatic ability. The act which follows *Hiawatha's* wooing depicts the mischief-making proclivities, love of gambling, and trickery of "the handsome *Yenadizze*." Having been discovered cheating, he escapes the vengeance of the village by hiding. While the warriors are away hunting, he returns to taunt and insult the women. *Nokomis* recalls the absent hunters and *Pau-Puk-Keewis* takes flight. Then follows a very thrilling man-hunt, which culminates in a spectacular dive from the top of the cliff into the lake below.

In the next act, *Iagoo* tells the tribe what he has seen during his travels,—of the canoe with wings, out of which came the lightning and thunder, and of the warriors with hair upon their chins and faces painted white. All save *Hiawatha* mock him; but the hero confirms his story, having seen the same wonderful things in a vision. Soon thereafter comes *Black Robe*, the missionary priest, bearing the cross. *Hiawatha* welcomes him, and intercedes in his behalf with the tribe, which finally receives him in friendship. With the coming of the missionary, the forerunner of the white man's civilization, *Hiawatha's* work is finished. In sonorous language and with eloquent gesture, he bids farewell to his people and prepares to take his final departure "to the portals of the sunset."

The play closes with a most effective and beautiful scene,—the passing of the Ojibway messiah,—a picture that will remain long in the memory of the spectator and haunt him with its fascinating melancholy. When *Hiawatha* steps into his birch-bark canoe and begins his death-chant, the sun has declined until its rays make a glittering pathway leading into the islands of the west. As he moves from the shore without the aid of oar or paddle (the boat being carried forward by means of an unseen sunken cable), the wailing voices of the warriors and squaws take up the refrain. The departing chief stands erect, with his face toward the setting sun. His voice is deep, clear, and musical. Holding his paddle aloft, he sings, mournfully:

"Mahnoo ne-nah nin-ga-mah-jah,
Mahnoo ne-nah nin-ga-mah-jah;
Hiawatha, ne, nin-ga-de-jah.
Mahnoo ne-nah nin-ga-mah-jah, neen,
Hiawatha, neen, nin-ga-de-jah."

His boat moves rapidly westward, the tribe and the chief chanting antiphonally. The scene is inexpressibly sad and beautiful beyond words. The eyes of the watchers are fastened upon the stalwart figure in the disappearing canoe, but soon the sun's rays dazzle them and the hero disappears in a glorious blaze of gold. Far, far away, from the unseen distance, from the "Islands of the Blessed," faintly come the last notes of the departed *Hiawatha*, and thus ends the play.

THE REMAKING OF A RURAL COMMONWEALTH.

BY CLARENCE H. POE.

(Editor of *The Progressive Farmer*, Raleigh, N. C.)

THE population of the United States is still chiefly rural. Barely two-fifths of our 76,000,000 inhabitants, according to the Census of 1900, dwell outside our "country districts." The "Man with the Hoe" is still the representative of the most numerous class of our population.

But this class has not wielded power commensurate with its numbers. It has not contributed its full share to the forward movements of the last century. It has not kept pace with the march of modern progress. And plain as the condition is, the cause is equally plain. Isolation and Illiteracy have shackled the country-dweller. His remoteness from railroad and telegraph and printing-press—his physical isolation—has largely shut him out from contact with the material forces which have revolutionized city life, while the inefficiency of his schools, his inadequate education, has kept him in intellectual isolation,—has largely shut him out from contact with the powerful new influences in all branches of science and trade and industry.

Now, however, these conditions are changing. Isolation and Illiteracy, the ancient enemies of rural progress, are going down before well-planned movements for better public schools, better country roads, rural mail delivery, rural telephones, public school libraries, agricultural teaching, etc. To describe these new forces as they appear in one Southern State, and to picture through them the remaking of a rural commonwealth, is the object of this paper.

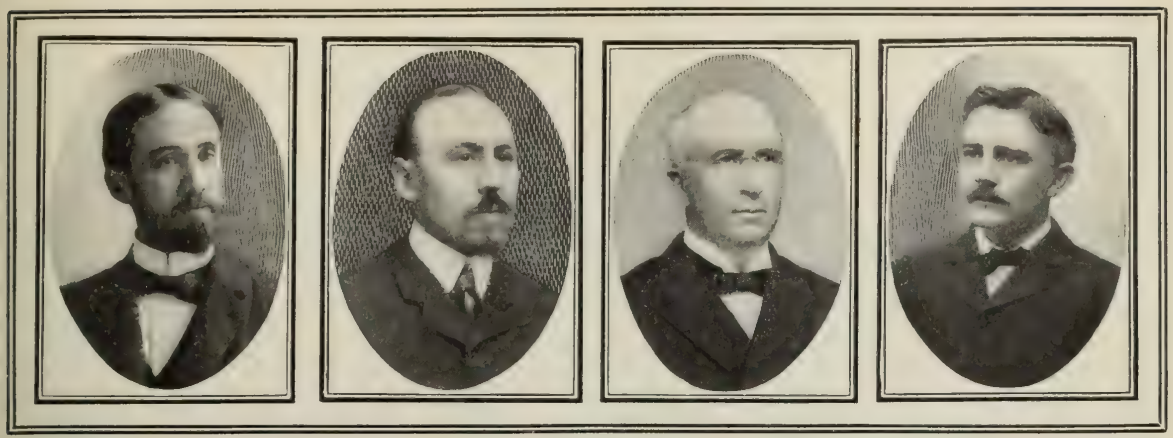


GOV. CHARLES B. AYCOCK, OF NORTH CAROLINA

(The sturdy advocate of improved district schools for whites and blacks in his State.)

THE IMPROVEMENT OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

Let us glance first at the work for better public schools, for the school is the index of a people's progress. Six years ago, a distinguished North Carolinian, now editor of a magazine of international reputation, said, in a public address delivered in this State: "The doctrine that we are too poor to maintain schools has kept us poor. It has driven more men and more wealth from the State and kept more away than any other doctrine has ever cost us—more even than the doctrine of secession." This lesson we have now learned, and all the better because it has been taught by the stern old master whose school is yet as dear as it was in Poor Richard's day. We have found that the inefficiency of our schools is a two-edged sword, which both impels emigration and repels immigration. And while from the days of the Revolution until now there has been handed down from sire to son a deep and abiding dread of taxes, we have at last come to see that the indirect tax levied by ignorance is more burdensome than any direct tax ever levied to maintain schools. The last Legislature found it necessary to issue bonds in order to free the State from debt, but it did not dare to reduce the school tax rate of 19 cents on each $100 worth of property, or to repeal the special appropriation of $200,000 for aiding the weaker common schools. On the contrary, larger amounts for the State's educational work were cheerfully voted. Within the last five years, the average length of school term for both white and black races has been increased more than 40 per cent., while the number of districts vot-



PROFESSOR B. W. KILGORE. (Director of the North Carolina Agricultural Experiment Station.)

DR. CHARLES W. BURKETT. (The leader in agricultural education in North Carolina.)

DR. GEORGE T. WINSTON. (A champion of industrial education in the South.)

HON. JAMES Y. JOYNER. (State superintendent of public instruction.)

ing special local taxes has doubled within the last twelve months.

There is also a constantly growing demand for better schoolhouses. In 1902, three times as many new buildings were erected as in 1901, and last year and this the movement has gone forward by leaps and bounds under the stimulus of the Schoolhouse Loan Fund of $200,000 set apart by the Legislature of 1903. From this fund any rural district may borrow one-half the cost of its new school building,—the loan to bear 4 per cent. interest and to be repaid in ten annual installments. As fast as the money is returned it will be loaned to other districts. At this writing, more than $100,000 of the fund has been called for, and Superintendent Joyner believes that the entire amount will be used before the Legislature reassembles.

Consolidation of school districts is also doing much to promote the improvement of buildings and the lengthening of terms. Two or more weak districts, whose sparse populations and small areas have meant shabby houses and poor teachers, join their forces, erect an attractive building, and employ one or more efficient teachers. A fine illustration of what has been accomplished in this way is furnished by the Pleasant Hill District, in Henderson County, photographs of the old and new buildings accompanying this article. Here three districts were consolidated, a special tax levied, and the new two-thousand-dollar building completed in September, 1903, half the money being borrowed from the Schoolhouse Loan Fund. The following letter, dated October 11, 1904, briefly tells the result: "In the old building, with an enroll-



The old building.



The new building.

THE OLD AND THE NEW PLEASANT HILL PUBLIC SCHOOL BUILDINGS, HENDERSON COUNTY, NORTH CAROLINA.

ment for the district of about one hundred and twenty pupils, there was an average attendance of forty or fifty children for a four months' term, and usually with poorly prepared teachers. In the new building, last year, with the consolidated district, there was an enrollment of about one hundred and sixty-five children, with three good teachers, for a four months' term, and with an average attendance of about ninety children. This year, the school has started off for a six months' term, and has one hundred and eighty children enrolled, and an average attendance for the first month of about one hundred and thirty, some of the children coming three miles to take advantage of the new school. I would state also that this has been so strong an object lesson to other districts that two other similar schools will be finished and dedicated within a few weeks, and several other districts are now calling for elections on the special school tax and will probably build this coming year."

BETTER METHODS OF RURAL EDUCATION.

But the leaders of the North Carolina campaign for better schools have not been unmindful of the fact that there is grave need, not only of an increased quantity of rural education, but also of an improved quality of rural education. In fact, our people have been so long content with a small quantity largely because they have had a poor quality. The curriculum has not been adapted to the needs of country children. "Every book they study," said one of our college presidents, two years ago, "leads to the city; every ambition they receive inspires them to run away from the country; the things they read about are city things; the greatness they dream of is city greatness." To this misfit scheme of instruction the long-prevalent idea that the farmer does not need school training must be largely attributed. But now the spirit of the school is changing. Henceforth it is to lay hold on the life of its pupils. In North Carolina, agriculture and nature study now have a place in the curriculum, and the text-book, "Agriculture for Beginners," written by three professors in the State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, is winning favor wherever it is introduced. For the first time, the farmer boy is to learn from his text-books that education may be applied to work in the fields and orchards as well as to work in the stores and counting-rooms. How much this is to mean in increased agricultural wealth it is impossible to estimate, but probably an even greater gain is to be made in the farmer's changed attitude toward his calling. For great will be the change when he comes to see no longer the dull, unmeaning tasks of yesterday, but life and mystery in every farming operation, and the sublimest forces of nature allied with him in his daily work. It should also be said just here that not only in the public schools is agricultural education receiving attention, but at the A. & M. College a magnificent new agricultural building,—one of the finest and best-equipped college buildings in the whole South,—is now in process of erection.

SCHOOL LIBRARIES.

One other recent educational innovation should have attention before I pass on to other subjects. This is the rural school library plan. The State Literary and Historical Association was barely able to get the measure through the General Assembly of 1901, but, as finally passed, $5,000 was set apart to aid 500 libraries.—$10 to be given to each school whose patrons would

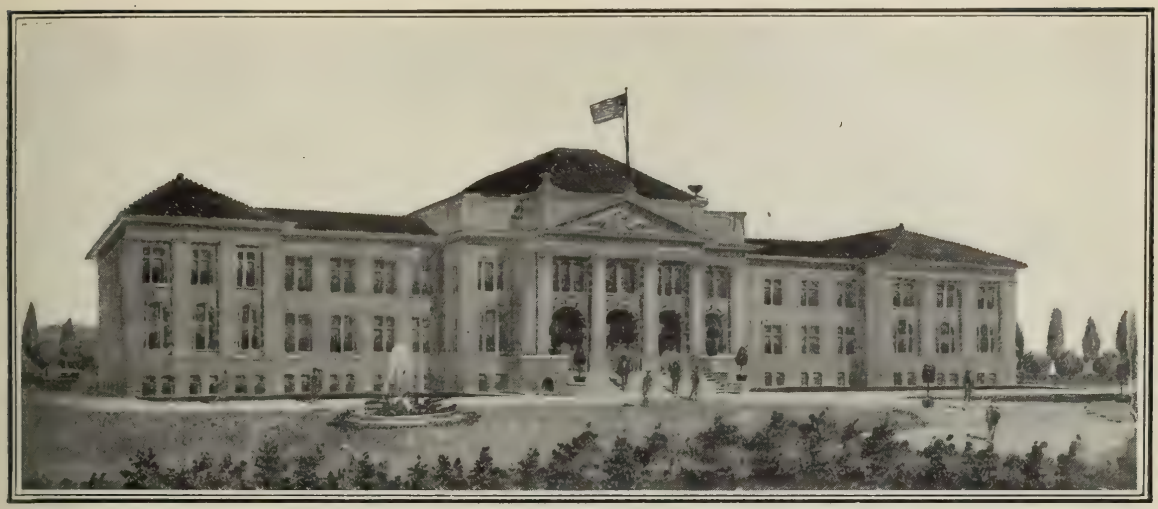


The old "Academy."



The new school building.

THE OLD SCHOOLHOUSE, SNOWHILL, GREENE COUNTY, NORTH CAROLINA, BUILT IN 1850, AND USED UNTIL THE SPRING OF 1901, AND THE NEW SCHOOL BUILDING ERECTED, A FEW MONTHS AGO, AS A RESULT OF THE CONSOLIDATION OF DISTRICTS.



THE NEW AGRICULTURAL BUILDING OF THE AGRICULTURE AND MECHANIC ARTS COLLEGE, WEST RALEIGH, NORTH CAROLINA.

(This building, now in process of erection, will be three stories high, 208 feet long, and splendidly equipped.)

raise at least $10, and appropriate $10 from their school fund, to start a collection of books; provided, however, that not more than $60 of the $5,000 State appropriation should be used for any one of the ninety-seven counties. From the first the idea was surprisingly popular, and when the Legislature met last year, eighteen months after the appropriation became available, more than three-fourths of the counties had reached the money limit fixed by law. Under the act of 1903, $5,000 was set apart to aid 500 new libraries and $2,500 to aid schools wishing to enlarge libraries already established. And public interest continues unabated. Three years ago, probably less than a score of rural public schools had attempted to begin a collection of books; before another year, fully a thousand will have libraries. And in every case they have quickened the interest and widened the horizon of the pupil, and increased the efficiency of the school. Many a child whom the dull drill of the text-books would never have reached has been aroused and inspired by contact with some poet, traveler, historian, or scientist, who speaks through these library volumes.

AN EXHIBIT OF PROGRESS.

The following statement, just issued by the Hon. J. Y. Joyner, State superintendent of public instruction, presents in very vivid fashion the results of the educational awakening in North Carolina:

1900.		1904.
	Length of school term.	
14.6 weeks		17.0 weeks
	Number of local tax districts.	
30		229
	Raised by local taxation.	
$135,000		$330,000
	Public School Fund.	
$702,702		$1,765,362
	Value Public School property.	
$1,153,311		$1,869,890
	Spent for new houses.	
$56,207		$170,420
	Number log houses.	
1,132		508
	Districts without houses.	
953		527
	School population.	
659,629		673,774
	Enrollment.	
400,452		440,264
	Average attendance.	
206,918		261,149
	Salary white teachers.	
$24.99		$28.30
	Number school libraries.	
0		840
	Volumes in libraries.	
0		75,000

THE MOVEMENT FOR GOOD ROADS.

Next to the tax levied by illiteracy, the heaviest tax paid by North Carolina heretofore has been its mud tax,—diminished value for every product of farm, or forest, or quarry because of the bad roads fixed between it and its market; diminished power for every brain and for every skilled hand because of the barriers between them and the great world of action. Now, however, we are literally beginning to mend our ways. And two facts,—first, that well-built roads are costly; second, that they serve more than one generation,—make it plain that the issue of bonds is the most practicable plan of progress. The last Legislature accordingly arranged for road-bond elections in fifteen coun-



TEAMS HAULING LOADS OF COTTON OVER AN IMPROVED ROAD.

ties, the issues ranging from $50,000 to $300,000. We discovered long ago that the nearer land is to market and church and school the greater is its value and the more profitable is its product. A no less notable truth we have since learned,—that in practice nearness is a matter of hours and minutes rather than of miles and furlongs: the farmer is near any place which he can reach cheaply and quickly, while he is far from any place to which transportation is slow and costly. If, therefore, he improves his roads so that he can travel to town with twice as much speed as formerly and transport his products at half the former cost, he gets for land and business all the increase in value that he would get by cutting the distance in half. To all intents and purposes, he moves near town and takes his farm with him. Meaning neither abandoned country homes nor overcrowded city slums, this new and wiser "rural emigration" is profitable to both town and country.

RURAL MAIL DELIVERY AND TELEPHONES.

Closely allied with the matter of highway improvement is the extension of the rural mail delivery service, the most important and successful effort to help the country resident that the national government has ever made. Even now, when the New York man may outdo Puck by putting a girdle about the earth in ten minutes (as Mr. Mackay actually did some months ago), hundreds of thousands of farmers get mail from offices visited only two or three times a week by "star route" carriers. To obtain a reply from a neighbor at the nearest office requires, under the most favorable conditions, at least half a week, and the newspapers are stale before they reach the reader. Moreover, the farmer must often travel several miles over bad roads to get the benefit of even this poor service. But rural free delivery is steadily reducing the number of these communities. At one bound it has set forward many a neighborhood a full score of years. An interview I had some time ago with the carriers on the three Raleigh routes (which had then been in operation a little less than a year) furnishes a striking illustration of what the system is accomplishing. The carrier on Route No. 1 reported that in five months the number of newspapers subscribed for by people along his route had almost doubled. The carrier on Route No. 2 was delivering seventy-five weekly papers and forty-three dailies to people who, a few months before, had been reading only twenty-four weeklies and fourteen dailies. In the territory covered by Route No. 3, there had been an increase of more than 60 per cent. in the number of weeklies read, while the number of farmers taking dailies had grown from one to thirty-three. And the number of rural free delivery routes is steadily growing. Three years ago, there were less than a dozen routes in all North Carolina; before January 1, we shall have nearly or quite one thousand, several entire counties being even now covered by the service.

Hardly less valuable is the rural telephone system. This is yet in its infancy, but it has a great future. Already in one North Carolina county nearly every land-owning farmer has a telephone. Here the country residents were talking about the attack on President McKinley within two hours after Czolgosz fired the fatal shot in Buffalo. They keep in close touch with the markets. They can confer with doctor, or merchant, or neighbor without loss of time and labor. The women and children find farm life much less lonely. Crime has decreased because criminals find it almost impossible to escape capture. And the cost has been trifling. The farmers have a coöperative company; they cut their own poles, string their own wire, and conduct all the business. This is the record of Union County, and what Union has done other counties will do.

FARMERS' CLUBS AND SCIENTIFIC AGRICULTURE.

Moreover, we are now reorganizing the Farmers' Alliance, with its political features eliminated. One of these days we shall have thousands of such farmers' clubs in all parts of the State—neighborhood organizations of the farmers and their families meeting at the schoolhouses once or twice each month. These clubs



A RURAL SCHOOL LIBRARY IN DURHAM COUNTY, NORTH CAROLINA.

(Three years ago, there were not a score of rural school libraries in the State; to-day, there are nearly one thousand.)

will quicken the social life of the communities and will take the lead in all matters looking to neighborhood improvement. They will do much to promote the very movements of which I have been speaking: all will work together for better schools and better schoolhouses, better roads and better mail facilities, better farming methods and a more beautiful country life. Years ago, we had similar organizations in nearly every township, but politics wrecked most of them. We are now building anew, and more durably than before, even if somewhat more slowly.

Some other progressive forces of which I should like to speak I must pass over with only a word or two of comment. Our State Board of Agriculture, our Agricultural Experiment Station, our A. & M. College, and our agricultural papers are doing much to hasten the coming of practicable, profitable, scientific farming. Diversification of crops is taking the place of the ruinous one-crop system of other days. Improved machinery, better methods of cultivation, and wiser feeding and fertilizing practices are winning their way into all sections. The agricultural faculty of the A. & M. College has been greatly strengthened, and the number of students in the agricultural courses has increased 300 per cent. within the last three years. Farmers' institutes, in the summer months, are bringing the agricultural educators, experimenters, and scientists into actual touch with the men behind the plows. The manufacture and sale of liquor in rural districts has been forbidden by State statute, thus insuring greater sobriety and less law-breaking. Finally, the Southern Education Board is accomplishing much good by its system of educational rallies, while the Woman's Society for the Improvement of Country Schoolhouses and Grounds is admirably fulfilling the mission indicated by its title.

THE OLD-TIME FARMER AND HIS MODERN PROTOTYPE.

Let us cast a parting glance at the typical old-time farmer. Two or three months in each year, there being practically nothing to do on the

farm, he sent his children to the little one-room schoolhouse. There the pupils recited mechanically from text-books saturated with city ideas and city ideals—books in which the beauties and wonders of agriculture and nature study found no place. The city allured the more ambitious pupils; the others turned blindly and stolidly to tasks whose deeper meaning was never to be revealed to them. Ancient and costly farming methods remained unchanged, for the "Man with the Hoe" was content with the ways of the fathers. Four or five days in each year, this farmer helped to fill up the larger ruts in the roads, but there was no permanent highway improvement. Season after season bad roads kept him from profitable trips to market; times innumerable they kept his isolated family from needed visits to friends and relatives. Once a week, possibly twice, some one went to the little crossroads post office to get the letters and papers—if perchance there should be any; these trips were not regular or frequent, because each one meant the loss of half a day from work. With such a slow and costly system, that the farmer wrote few letters and took few papers is not surprising. Then, too, if he wished to summon a doctor, speak to a neighbor, or order from his merchant, a slow horseback trip over bad roads was the only available means of communication; the rural telephone was not dreamed of. But the tragedy of this man's life was that he was a drudge, a mechanical "slave to the wheel of labor." He was blind to the beauty of rural life and ignorant of the wonderful natural forces with which he had to deal.

How different the progressive farmer of to-day! Five months in each year his children go to school, and the teaching has given them a new interest in their environment and in their daily work. The old one-room schoolhouse has given way to an attractive modern structure. Instead of an occasional book bought from the itinerant agent or borrowed from a neighbor, the school library puts the choicest of literary treasures at the disposal of the whole family. The old gullied highway is gone and a well-graded road sweeps by the farmer's house. Instead of the weekly paper and the occasional letter brought from the old post office, the rural mail-carrier brings a city daily each morning, and letters and magazines in refreshing abundance. To confer with a neighbor no longer means a ride of an hour or two; one or two minutes at the telephone suffices. Other advantages have followed. With better school methods have come more regular attendance and more enthusiastic pupils; better roads and increased travel have developed a new pride in the appearance of grounds and buildings; with better mail facilities there is more thought as to the quality of the periodical literature. And on this man's farm there is no drudgery. Knowledge has ennobled every task, and to him "every common bush is afire with God." His are the advantages of both town and country. Pan still pipes by the riverside, while the ring of the telephone and the distant shriek of the locomotive mingle with the music of his flute.

Do not understand me to say that the new farmer here portrayed is as yet the typical ruralist. He is not, by any means. The old-time farmer is yet many times as numerous. But the future is with the new farmer. The modern leaven will yet leaven the whole lump.



AGRICULTURAL COLLEGE STUDENTS JUDGING HORSES.

THE HAWAIIAN SUGAR PRODUCT.

BY LEWIS R. FREEMAN.

HAWAII, second only to Cuba and Java in the world's sugar production, has achieved this enviable position in less than twenty years of scientific cane-culture. Sugar was first made there by a Chinaman, on the island of Lanai, in 1802. His crude product was used in the manufacture of rum, then in great demand by the whaling fleets that foregathered at Honolulu. The first mill was put in operation on Kauai thirty years later, the cane having been raised on ground broken by native-drawn plows. The rolls were driven by oxen.

Centrifugals were first employed on the island of Maui in 1851, a steam plant following ten years later. Contract coolie labor was introduced from China at about the same time, but the coolies were sent home at the expiration of their terms of service because of the jealousy their presence aroused among the natives. Succeeding levies of coolies were better received, but the labor problem is still one of the greatest worries of the Hawaiian planter.

Sugar-planting as an industry dates from the signing of the reciprocity treaty with the United States in 1876, by which all raw sugars were admitted free of duty. The 1875 crop of twelve thousand tons was multiplied many times in the next decade, considerable capital—mostly island—was invested, and systematic methods came into general use. Serious depression followed the passage of the McKinley bill, which removed the duty from all foreign raw sugars and placed a bounty upon the home-grown beet product, but an immediate rally followed the practical restoration of the old conditions by the Wilson and the Dingley bills, and a period of prosperity was entered upon for Hawaii, which continued unchecked until, at the beginning of the new century, a fall in prices resulted from a combination of causes.

Annexation, while of immeasurable benefit to the Hawaiian sugar industry in assuring its future under a stable government, dealt it a severe blow in precluding the possibility of further importation of contract labor. Many Japanese, at the termination of their contracts, fared on to California and Washington, while the wage of those remaining has been gradually forced up from the $12.50 per month prevailing in 1898 to $17 and $18. Portuguese and Porto Ricans, at the same ratio of increase, are now receiving $20 and $22. Labor, particularly since irrigation has been the rule, is by far the largest item in the planter's expense account, and the added burden has been more than commonly irksome from the fact that Cuba and Java are growing their sugar with five and six dollar labor.

To offset this handicap is the remarkable thoroughness of Hawaiian methods, notably those of growing. Mills, uniformly as complete and modern in equipment as the best of their foreign prototypes, are supplied from fields of great natural fertility, which irrigation and intensive cultivation have brought to a degree of productiveness not approached by the record yields of other countries. A crop average of ten and one quarter tons of sugar to each of four thousand acres is the record of one plantation on the island of Oahu, whose mill is but a few miles from the city limits of Honolulu. Fifteen and sixteen tons to the acre on the best land of the same plantation, year after year, is an achievement of which many foreign planters still refuse to acknowledge the possibility.

THE POTENCY OF IRRIGATION.

Irrigation has been the most potent single element operating to bring about these great yields and extend the available area of cane land. The twenty thousand acres comprising the land of the plantation in question and its two neighbors, situated on the leeward or dry side of the Oahu, were rated as absolute waste until the discovery that they were underlaid with artesian water, and capable of being irrigated by it, made cane-growing possible.

In 1882, a careful and apparently comprehensive government report gave the sugar crop for the island of Oahu as 3,000 tons for that year, and stated that with economy and scientific manufacture it might ultimately be increased to 3,500. Twenty years later, in 1902, the output of this island's sugar mills was 107,870 tons,—two hundred and eight times the outside limit of increase allowed in the estimate of the government agent.

This astounding increase was due in part to manufacturing improvements. The addition of two roller mills to the original three in use up to 1885, and the substitution of the nine-roller mill for the latter, effected an approximate sav-



IRRIGATED AND UNIRRIGATED SUGAR CANE OF THE SAME AGE.

ing of 20 per cent. in extraction. Improved chopping and shredding apparatus and hot water maceration have also done their part. This year, mechanical crystallization machines, first successfully used in the Java mills, have been installed, and are found to accomplish the work satisfactorily in less than a hundredth of the time formerly required.

But to irrigation the credit of the greatest portion of the increase is due. The heavy producing plantations on the leeward sides of the islands owe their existence to artificially applied water, and those on the windward or rainy sides trace a large swelling of their output to the same agent. Arid lands in Hawaii, as in western America, never having been subjected to the leaching drains of heavy rainfall, are of unusual richness in limes, phosphates, and other soluble elements required in plant growth; hence the success attendant upon the irrigation of such lands is not to be wondered at.

Considerable water is distributed, where the watersheds are of sufficient extent to warrant it, by reservoir and ditch. On Maui, a canal has been dug along the slopes of the great extinct crater, Haleakala, and a heavy flow of water brought twenty-two miles, crossing deep gulches, by trestle and inverted siphon, for distribution over the thirsty cane fields on the opposite side of the island. Kauai is completing a ditch of almost equal capacity, and on the windward side of Oahu several smaller ones are in operation. In some instances, where a good fall has come easy to hand, electrical power generated by the irrigation water has found ready use in mill and pumping plant.

COSTLY PUMPING SYSTEMS.

Unfortunately, where irrigation is most needed,—on the leeward slopes,—precipitation is not sufficient to make the development of surface water possible. Here pumping the artesian flow has been resorted to, and with great success. The pumps are huge steam-driven affairs, of either the centrifugal or multi-valvular type, and are mostly sunk in pairs. The pumping system

of the Ewa plantation, from the fields of which the record yields have been obtained, consists of forty-two wells of an average depth of 650 feet, drawn on by seven pumping stations, representing an aggregate expenditure of $1,750,000. Their capacity is 75,000,000 gallons per day, raised to a height of from 100 to 300 feet above the station levels. One pump alone, an immense Riedler, has a diurnal capacity of 24,000,000 gallons.

This system of irrigation is enormously expensive, and nothing but the immense returns obtained would justify it. Formerly, the pumping engines were fed with New Zealand coal, costing ten dollars a ton, but the recent introduction of California crude oil has effected a considerable saving. The pumping expense increases at a startling ratio with the height of the lift, as the disastrous experience of ambitious planters endeavoring to irrigate by raising their water much in excess of three hundred feet will testify.

The Ewa plantation's expense account of 1901 shows a total acreage expense approximating $300, apparently a ruinous figure until one performs the simple multiplication of $10\frac{1}{4}$, the acre yield in tons, by the $80 each ton brought in the open market.

FREQUENT REPLANTING.

The eighteen months' growth allowed each Hawaiian sugar crop, and the fact that "rattooning" (leaving the field to a second volunteer growth) is seldom carried beyond one season, are both important elements in the large yields. Even on some of the windward plantations, where the crops depend entirely upon rainfall, the acreage production is steadily beyond that of other sugar countries. If a "rattoon" field is not deemed capable of producing thirty tons of cane (the equivalent of from three to four tons of sugar) to the acre, it is torn up and "plant" set out. In other countries, notably in Cuba and Louisiana, growers often allow cane to run for ten and even fifteen years, with a steadily diminishing yield, rather than go to the expense and trouble of setting "plant."

CANE TRANSPORTED TO MILL BY WATER FLUMES.

The great rainfall of the island of Hawaii, the heaviest producer of the group, obviates the



A GROUP OF PORTO RICAN, KOREAN, JAPANESE, AND PORTUGUESE WOMEN, FIELD HANDS ON A SINGLE PLANTATION ON THE ISLAND OF MAUI, HAWAII.



FIELD, MILL, AND HOUSES OF LABORERS ON A KAUAI ISLAND PLANTATION.

necessity of artificial irrigation. Water, however, plays an important part in the use it is put to in "fluming" cane to the mills,—a process which, where possible, does away entirely with the steam railway. The initial cost of a flume is generally much less and never greater than that of a railroad, and the ultimate saving is very great. The item of rolling stock is entirely eliminated, together with the cost of operation and repair. Portable flumes are used as feeders to the permanent ones, after the manner of the movable tracks, and are lighter and more easily handled. The flume requires no skilled labor in its operation, and the efficiency and dispatch with which it delivers the cane put every other system out of the question when a working head of water can be maintained at a reasonable cost.

RAVAGES OF THE LEAF HOPPER.

The total Hawaiian sugar crop of last year amounted to 437,000 tons. This year it would have pressed close to the half-million mark but for the ravages wrought in the cane by the leaf hopper, which will cause it to fall short of last year's output. The leaf hopper was brought to the islands several years ago in an importation of foreign cane, but not until this season has its numbers become sufficiently great to inflict serious damage. Outside of their deleterious effect on the cane, spraying and fumigation as remedial measures are far too expensive to be of practical use, and the great hope of the planters is in the speedy discovery of an active parasite. Until relief is afforded, increased acreages of the yellow Caledonia, a cane nearly immune from the attack of the hopper, will be planted.

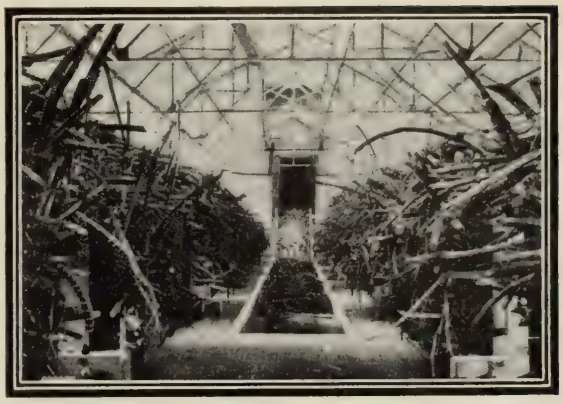
CUBAN COMPETITION.

Two swords have long been suspended above the heads of the Hawaiian planters. One crashed down last year with the passage of Cuban reciprocity without doing serious damage; the fall of the other—the onslaught of the beet-growers—is awaited with anxiety.



BULLOCK-DRAWN WAGONS USED IN HAWAII IN THE EARLIER DAYS OF THE SUGAR-CANE INDUSTRY.

The hoardings of the Cuban planters, saved in anticipation of a whole or partial removal of the American duty, thrown all at once upon the market, caused the expected slump in prices, but the gradual disappearance of this abnormal supply, and the consequent upward trend of this season's sugar, has brought a return of confidence in the future. As a matter of fact, it would appear that the decided advantage that Cuba enjoys in cheap labor and nearness to the market is more than offset in favor of the Hawaiian product by the 75 per cent. of the full duty which the Cuban sugar still has to pay.



A CANE-FEEDER ENTERING INTO A MODERN HAWAIIAN MILL.

THE MENACE FROM THE SUGAR BEET.

As for beet sugar, it is not Hawaii alone, but all the cane-growing countries that are menaced by it, and the subject is too lengthy a one for discussion here. The production and consumption of beet sugar has increased enormously in the last decade. This year it is to the cane output almost as two to one; or to be more exact, 7,000,000 of the world's consumption of 11,000,000 tons of sugar is manufactured from beets.

It is the constantly reiterated intention of the beet-grower to force the cane product out of the market by a war of prices as soon as the time appears ripe for such action on his part. The effect of a war on Hawaii can hardly be forecasted at the present moment, but the perspective in the view of a prominent planter on the subject is probably not much awry. "If the beet-growers ever force us to two-cent sugar," he said to me recently, "our normally stocked and properly managed plantations can meet them and make money. The heavily watered survivors of the 'wild-catting' of the 'nineties' will be forced to suspend at once, and probably for good, as their burdens are too heavy, even under present prices, for them to pay dividends."



LAYING PORTABLE RAILWAY TRACKS FOR THE CARRYING OF SUGAR CANE TO THE MILLS.

WHAT THE MUSICAL SEASON OFFERS NEW YORK.

BY W. J. HENDERSON.

THE musical season, which began in New York with the first week of November and will end with the first week of May, is to be one of the most active and fruitful that the city has known recently. There will be a larger number of orchestral concerts of importance than there has been in some years, while an unusual number of famous virtuosi is to cross the sea. The opera promises nothing of serious value in the way of novelties, but there will be some interesting revivals, and the company will be exceptionally strong in star singers. The first performance of Mr. Conried's series took place on November 21, when Verdi's "Aïda" was rendered, with Emma Eames, returning after two years' absence, in the title *rôle*. Enrico Caruso, the Italian tenor who made such a favorable impression last season, and who is with us this year, came forward on the same night.



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EMMA EAMES AS "AIDA."



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MR. HEINRICH CONRIED.

Mr. Conried is to present several new singers. Among them are Mme. de Macchi, an Italian dramatic soprano of repute; Giraldone, one of the leading baritones of Italy; Knote, a rising young German tenor, and Nuibo, a Spanish tenor. Saleza, the French tenor who was formerly so popular, returns. Among the operas to be revived are "La Giaconda," "Lucrezia Borgia," and "La Sonnambula." Special performances of "Parsifal" will again be offered on Thursdays, and Mme. Nordica, who has rejoined the local company, will make her first appearance as *Kundry*. The season will last fifteen weeks, during which there will be five regular performances each week and several extra ones. The interest of the public in opera continues unabated. The subscription for the coming season was large before Mr. Conried had made any announcements at all.

On the other hand, the advance sales for the special "Parsifal" representations indicate that the factitious excitement about that work has waned. This is doubtless due, in part, to the knowledge that the drama is no longer an exclusive luxury. Henry W. Savage, the English opera manager, has brought out the music drama with English text, and at low prices. His production was entirely creditable, but by no means perfect. The series of performances at the New York Theater was attended by very few persons.

The Philharmonic Society, the leading orchestral organization of the city, has entered upon its sixty-third year. Last season the society tried the experiment of bringing across the ocean several conductors to appear in succession as star directors of its concerts. The public was so well pleased with the new departure that the plan is in operation again this year. The imported conductors are Gustav Kogel, of Frankfurt; Eduard Colonne, of Paris; W. I. Safonoff, of Moscow; Felix Weingartner, of Berlin, and Karl Panzer, of Dresden. Theodore Thomas, of the Chicago Orchestra, will also conduct.

All the visitors except Mr. Thomas and Mr. Panzer were here last season. The society will give the customary eight concerts in the evening, with a matinée preceding each. It is not expected that many new works will be produced. The Philharmonic Society is generally recognized as a conservative element in the musical life of New York, and its mission seems to be to stand for the classics. Modern music, however, finds plenty of room on its programmes.

The New York Symphony Orchestra, conducted by Walter Damrosch, has been reorganized, and is giving a series of concerts in Carnegie Hall. These entertainments will bring forward many interesting novelties. The first of the number, the G minor symphony of Gustav Mahler, one of the young German revolu-



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LILLIAN NORDICA.

(Who sings *Kundry* in "Parsifal" this season.)









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Walter Damrosch, of New York.

Theodore Thomas, of Chicago.

Felix Weingartner, of Berlin.

Eduard Colonne, of Paris.

FOUR OF THE PROMINENT AMERICAN AND FOREIGN CONDUCTORS OF THIS SEASON.



Vladimir de Pachmann.



Josef Hofmann.



Rafael Joseffy.



Mme. Bloomfield-Zeisler.

FOUR EMINENT PIANISTS WHO ARE RETURNING TO THE UNITED STATES THIS SEASON.

tionaries, was heard at the first concert, November 5, and was found to be clever, but not profound. At the same concert, Mr. Damrosch brought out a new overture by Edward Elgar, the only British composer of really high distinction in many years.

The Boston Symphony Orchestra, universally conceded to be the finest instrumental organization in this country, gives ten concerts. Novelties will be frequent, and, as at other orchestral entertainments, eminent soloists will appear. Sam Franko will continue his interesting orchestral concerts of old music, producing previously unknown or unfamiliar works by some of the leading composers of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries.



MARGUERITE HALL.
(A New York singer.)

The People's Symphony Society will go on with its orchestral concerts at nominal prices, seeking the patronage of working people. These concerts are given this year at Carnegie Hall, instead of at Cooper Institute, as heretofore. The Russian Symphony Society will give a series of orchestral entertainments devoted to the works of the Russian masters, especially those of the latest period. Victor Herbert is carrying on a series of popular orchestral concerts on Sunday nights at the Majestic Theater, and Frank Damrosch continues his instructive series of orchestral concerts for young people on Saturday afternoons at Carnegie Hall. There will, moreover, be fifteen Sunday-night orchestral concerts at the Opera House. Without counting those given by soloists who require the accompaniment of an orchestra, or those offered by visiting organizations (other than the Boston Symphony), there will be about one hundred and twenty-five orchestral concerts in Manhattan alone.

In the field of choral music, the leading organizations are the Musical Art Society, the Oratorio Society, and the Choral Union. The first will give its customary two concerts devoted to the music of the early writers of the polyphonic style. The Oratorio Society is to revive the great "German Requiem" of Brahms, to produce Richard Strauss' "Taillefer," and to bring forward, as usual, for the Christmas time, Handel's "Messiah."



DESIDER VECSEY.
(A new violinist prodigy.)

Chamber music, the most chaste and intimate form of the art, will be plentiful. The Kneisel Quartet, of Boston, will give six concerts, for which the subscription is large. Olive Mead, a capable violinist, heads a good quartet of women players whose performances are most commendable. The Kaltenborn, Mannes, and the Dannreuther

quartets will also be in the field, as usual during recent years.

The piano is still the most popular of the solo instruments, and eminent players are to be heard. Eugen d'Albert, who is distinguished as a composer and performer, will return to America after an absence of some years, and will play, not only in orchestral concerts, but in a series of recitals. Josef Hofmann, who created such a sensation here as a child of eleven, is touring the country once more. His recitals are regarded as important features of the season in New York. Rafael Joseffy will be heard occasionally, and one recital has already been given by Fanny Bloomfield-Zeisler, the leading woman pianist of this country. Vladimir de Pachmann, the eccentric Russian player, is again here, and later in the winter the ever-popular Paderewski is to return. There is no question that his recitals will attract great audiences, as they always have done. Ysaye, the celebrated violinist, returns for a tour this winter. It is said that he plays better than he formerly did, and consequently, a great success is predicted for him. Daniel Frohman, the theatrical manager, who has of late years embarked in musical enterprise, is to bring out a juvenile violinist named Vecsey, and who is reported to be a prodigy of wonderful ability.

For the rest, the season will include a large number of song recitals and miscellaneous concerts, which will seek for more attention than even this vigorous and alert public will care to give. Mme. Gadski, Mme. Sembrich, and David Bispham have brilliantly led the procession of song reciters, but the city has several resident singers of taste and intelligence who will be heard. Susan Metcalfe, Marguerite Hall, Francis Rogers, and others will add much to the interest of the winter in the domain of song literature, while some of the local pianists will give entertainments which will be worthy of consideration.

New York does not yet approach the musical activity of Berlin, where about eight hundred concerts are given each season, but it is quite safe to say that this winter more than half that number will be given here, and that for these and the opera the public will spend nearly a million dollars. The musical public in New York, as distinguished from the merely operatic public, which includes every one, is growing in size and developing in taste at such a rate that it will surely not be many years before the capital of the German Empire will find a rival in the metropolis of the new world. The season which is now under way shows a remarkable advance over that of ten years ago in the number and quality of the entertainments offered for patronage.

AN AMERICAN FORESTRY CONGRESS.

BY H. M. SUTER.

TO give further impetus to the movement for a more conservative treatment of the forest resources of the United States, and to stimulate and unite all efforts to perpetuate the forest as a permanent resource of the nation, an American Forest Congress, under the auspices of the American Forestry Association, will meet in Washington, January 2–6, 1905.

The further purpose of this congress is to establish a broader understanding of the forest in its relation to the great industries depending upon it, and to advance the conservative use of forest resources for both the present and the future needs of these industries.

The questions to be considered by the congress are among the most vital economic problems of the day. They will include a thorough discussion of forestry and its effect on the lumber industry; the relation of the public forest lands to irrigation, mining, and grazing; forestry in relation to railroad supplies, and a thorough discussion of national and State forest policy.

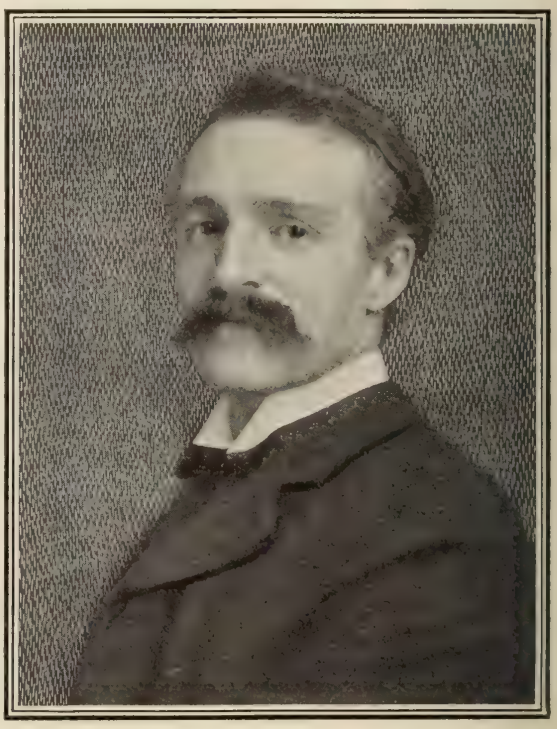
Of these subjects, it is but natural that the relation of forestry to lumbering should be regarded foremost, considering the immense importance of this industry. With its invested capital of $611,000,000 in 1900 (ranking as the fourth industry of the country), with an annual outlay in wages of $100,000,000, and with yearly products valued at $566,000,000, it is certain that the deepest interest will be shown by those engaged in this business in anything that promises to continue the prosperity they now enjoy.

The relation of the public forest lands to irrigation, long of great importance to the West, is doubly so since the passage of the National Irrigation Act, in 1902. This measure provides means for the reclamation of millions of acres

of land now arid. To carry out this great project, there must first be assured the protection of the forests at the head waters of the various streams; hence the interest of irrigationists in this congress. The prosperity of the mining industry in the West in no small measure depends upon a ready supply of timber, close at hand, and at a reasonable price. The railroads are the largest users of wood in the country, and the maintenance of an undiminished supply is vital to their success. The discussion of national and State forest policy at this congress should be of decided value throughout the country, as many persons, admitting the necessity of doing something to preserve our forests, are at a loss as to how to proceed. It is felt that this congress, attracting leading thinkers on forestry from every section of the country, will produce far-reaching results in outlining a vigorous and practical policy.

These are all problems that vitally affect the welfare of the nation, a fact that the leaders in our industrial life fully appreciate, as their promised attendance from every section of the country proves. President Roosevelt, who keenly appreciates the close relation between forestry and irrigation, and who stated in one of his messages to Congress that the forest and water problems are "the most vital of the internal questions of the United States," was among the first to indorse the calling of an American Forest Congress at this time, and has promised to deliver an address at one of its sessions.

The rise of the forest movement in the United States is as interesting as it is valuable. In 1875, a small band of public-spirited men met in Chicago and organized what was known for several years as the American Forestry Congress. Annual meetings were held, and although receiving but little encouragement, these men bravely continued their propaganda for a more conservative handling of the forests of the United States. For some years they were regarded as mild-mannered cranks, and public interest in the subject of forestry was hardly noticeable. But in 1882 additional force was given the movement by the organization, at Cincinnati, of the American Forestry Association. This organization increased in numbers and influence yearly, and through meetings held in various sections of the country, and also by the personal work of its members, became a strong force. To its efforts may be attributed the establishment of the forest reserve policy of the federal government, inaugurated in President Harrison's administration, and continued by every President since, until the forest reserves now number fifty-three, and contain more than 62,000,000 acres, or over 96,000 square miles. Further effect of this forest reserve propaganda is seen in the spread of it to the various States, including New York, Pennsylvania, Michigan, Minnesota, and California. In addition, it has influenced the forming of State and local forest associations throughout the country.



MR. GIFFORD PINCHOT.

(Forester, United States Department of Agriculture, and the recognized leader of the forest movement in the United States.)

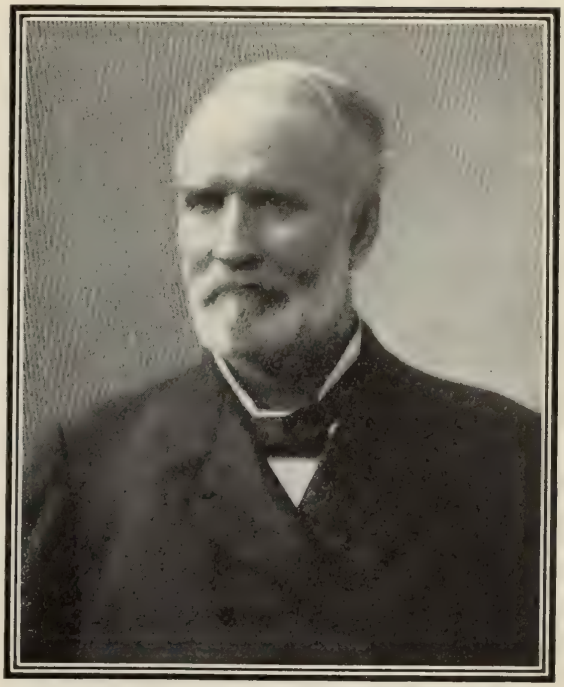
The late J. Sterling Morton, former Secretary of Agriculture, and father of Arbor Day, was president of the American Forestry Association for several years. The Hon. James Wilson, the present Secretary of Agriculture, has been president of the association during the past seven years, and has evinced the deepest interest in its work.

Of recent years, fully as striking as the increase of public interest in forestry has been the rise of the government forest service. It was not until some years after the formation of the American Forestry Congress, in 1875, that the federal government took any official notice of the question of forest-preservation. Some incidental forest investigations were carried on in connection with agricultural work, but no dis-

tinct appropriation was made until 1887. Then the amount was only eight thousand dollars. In 1898, the federal forest service was but an insignificant division of the Department of Agriculture; in 1901, it was advanced to the grade of a bureau, and to-day the Bureau of Forestry is one of the best-organized sections of the government service. In Secretary Wilson, American forestry has had a stanch and far-seeing advocate, who has lost no opportunity to advance it. To his highly intelligent and sincere interest this splendid growth is in a great measure due. In 1898, Mr. Gifford Pinchot, a technically trained forester and a man of high executive ability, was put in charge of the government forest work. He so thoroughly reorganized and extended the service, and has so impressed upon those with whom he has come in contact the absolute necessity of a more conservative handling of our forests, that both Congress and the people have indorsed this work. The result is that to-day the Bureau of Forestry not only renders assistance in handling the government forest lands, but has interested in a large way lumbermen and other private owners of timber lands throughout the country. With these it is working in hearty coöperation, as well as with a number of State governments.

If further evidence be needed to show the general public interest in forestry, the rise of education in forestry is a striking example. In 1898, the first forest school in the United States was established. To-day, the Yale Forest School has sixty students; there is also a forest school at Biltmore, N. C. At Harvard, the University of Michigan, the University of Nebraska, the Michigan Agriculture College, the University of Maine, and the Iowa College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, departments of forestry have been established, and some instruction in forestry is offered at more than forty other institutions of learning in the United States. Many young men of high character are turning to forestry as a profession, showing that it has already come to have a definite place in American life.

The basic principle of forestry is to get the greatest possible use out of the forest. It is opposed to the old idea of lumbering by cutting the forest clean, leaving behind a mass of *débris*, for fire to complete the destruction. It is also opposed to the sentimental notion that the forest should be retained as a thing of beauty and is best treated when left alone. The forester contemplates the forest as a crop, just as the farmer does his wheat and corn, to be harvested when ripe, but in such a way as to get a profitable return and at the same time perpetuate the crop. This is the principle back of the forest



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HON. JAMES WILSON.
(Secretary of Agriculture, and president of the American Forestry Association.)

movement in the United States, and it is to spread this idea, particularly among those persons who have the greatest need of forest products, that this congress is called. It is the greatest single effort yet planned in this country to instill in our people the lesson that certain European nations took to heart several centuries ago in connection with their forests, which they turned from threatened destruction into a national asset, while still older countries failed to heed a like warning of disappearing forests and became arid and fruitless.

It is to teach the people to take home to themselves the part that the forest plays in their daily lives that this and previous forest meetings of a national character have been arranged,—to point out to them that reckless lumbering and the denuding of steep hillsides have much to do with bringing the disastrous floods of recent years, such as the one in the southern Appalachian Mountains, where sixteen million dollars' worth of property was destroyed in two weeks. It is known that forest fires in the United States annually destroy from twenty-five million dollars' to fifty million dollars' worth of timber and other property. The purpose of the forest movement is to avert these tremendous disasters by stamping out the multitude of lesser evils that unite to cause them.

MODERN PICTURE-BOOK CHILDREN.

BY ERNEST KNAUFFT.

HOWEVER much, in our grandfathers' day, the child may have been corralled in the nursery, and the nursery relegated to the top of the house, in our day, on the contrary, the child is *persona grata* throughout the household and the cynosure of all visitors. This social fact is no doubt at the foundation of a certain artistic manifestation evident to-day in all well-regulated nurseries, where hang, framed or unframed, in octavo or folio size, colored prints with the signature of certain artists who in the last few years have inaugurated a popular vogue for children's pictures.

These artists may be separated into two groups,—first, those who address their talents entirely to portraying the modern child at play; and, secondly, those who, as general practitioners in the field of illustrating, occasionally treat of child subjects.

The first group may be headed with the names of Jessie Willcox Smith and Elizabeth Shippen Green, whose work, both as regards subject and technique, is as like as two peas. They draw with bold outline on a large scale, using flat washes of color in poster style, and may almost be said to have invented their technique. Their types are of well-bred children, dressed in the fashion of the hour. In the same category comes Sarah S. Stilwell, her outline less rugged, her love of detail more pronounced, her types not yet molded to certainty, but now refined, now plebeian, as the model of the moment might have been. Charlotte Harding and Fanny Y. Cory Cooney come next. They draw almost entirely in black and white, the former portraying well-bred children to a nicety, the latter excelling in characterizing (we might almost say caricaturing) the mischievous, romping, hatless, shoe-untied boys and the underwear-exposing, hair-unkempt girls of three to six.

But no matter whether color or black and white is employed, no matter from what social stratum they select their types, these young artists have forced the child picture to the very front rank of illustration, and this, too, without recourse to the property-room of fairy tales, without the help of elves, ogres, gnomes, or witches. Home scenes, and not apocryphal tales, engage their pencil.

A single composition by Miss Green may be mentioned as typical of the whole kind.

The drawing is a large one, and represents a child of some five years, sitting all alone, amusing herself at playing chess on an improvised table made of books. The theme has tempted thousands of artists ere this, but we will hazard the conjecture that in every case the artist has



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Illustration (reduced) from "The Child," a calendar by Jessie Willcox Smith and Elizabeth Shippen Green (F. A. Stokes & Co.), from a color drawing by Elizabeth Shippen Green.

drawn the child's face either in front view or in profile, so that the spectator might see the long eyelashes, the rounded cheeks, the Cupid-bow lips and receding chin, characteristics that are the distinctive property of childhood. But how has Miss Green drawn the features? She has not drawn them at all, for the child's head is so turned away from us that the hair, tied on one side by a pink ribbon, falls in luxuriant waves over the temple and cheek, completely hiding the features! And yet nine mothers out of ten passing the shop-window where this print hangs will be arrested by the dainty figure's striking resemblance to her own little girl at home. It

is this closeness to the child-type of to-day,—Russian-bloused, leather-belted, sandal-footed,—that stamps the work of this school of illustrators with the hall-mark of genuineness.

Among the books issued this year is "Childhood," containing poems by Katherine Pyle, with illustrations by Sarah S. Stilwell (Dutton). These illustrations are much like the calendar by the Misses Green and Smith, and the specimen we reproduce exemplifies better than words the charm of the work. The profile of the child nearest us is the quintessence of childish physiognomy; Lobrichon, Boutet de Monvel, or Lefèvre could not have done better. The row of hands, so docile in posture, indicate how the artists of this new school, with very little method, but with very sympathetic observation, and with great originality, give us striking compositions.

As we have said, Miss Stilwell is fond of detail, and the polka-dots and plaids on aprons and frocks, the lace on underclothing, the stitching



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Illustration (reduced) from "The Child," a calendar by Jessie Willcox Smith and Elizabeth Shippen Green (F. A. Stokes & Co.), from a color drawing by Jessie Willcox Smith.

on canvas caps, the weave of woolen sweaters and of straw hats,—all give delightful occupation for the artist's pen-point; and yet, with all this detail, she is wise enough not to aim at getting a Meissonier effect of high finish. Indeed, special effort is made to preserve the effect of sketchiness. It is herein that all these young artists use their best discrimination. They, with good judgment, are careful not to aim too high.

This season, Robert W. Chambers publishes "Riverland" (Harper Bros.), a sequel to "Outdoorland" and "Orchardland." It is a nature-study story that old Gilbert White would surely have bought for the children of Selborne, that it might inculcate in their minds a habit of close observation. He may not have approved of all of Elizabeth Shippen Green's illustrations, as it is not likely she strives very hard for ornithological accuracy, but we of to-day find her children so well-bred and natural that we forgive this lack of accuracy, just as we forgive some of the bad printing in the color plates that makes the cheeks of the children lose their ruddy glow and take on a seaweed-green patina, and gives their lips a purplish tint suggesting the small boy who has been in swimming all morning, for the average of the color pictures has a pleasing effect of orange light intermingling with tortuous twigs and branches which is very Japanesque and decorative.



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Illustration (reduced) from "An Epitaph and a Ghost." Drawing by Alice Barber Stephens.

What we have said of Miss Green's illustrations holds good equally of the color work of Miss Jessie Willcox Smith, and to some extent of the work of Miss Sarah S. Stilwell. Miss Stilwell carries her work a trifle further than do the Misses Green and Smith, but her silhouette and poster effects are not so manifest.

Art education plays an important part in the achievement of these artists. Nearly all of our present illustrators have attended an art school in the early stages of their career. Frequently their stay has been so short that their style has in nowise become academic, but they have at least learned to respect certain requirements that such a preparation inculcates,—certain essentials of proportion, modeling, and composition, for example.

The camera, no doubt, plays no small part in the concoction of these illustrations, and to it we owe more than one characteristic quality. In the first place, the backgrounds are more realistic, less sketchy, than in the old-time illustrations; an apple orchard, a kitchen, a village street, is introduced in the composition with Dürer-like fidelity, whereas a bedspread, a grandfather's clock, a gingham apron, a coral necklace, is so exactly worked out that we see that, as regards accessories, also, the camera has influenced the style of these artists. We use the word "influenced" rather than "helped" to allow us to broaden our charge, for we would not assert that one can always say that, just here, or just there, the camera has been used. Indeed, frequently where the artist has drawn with the camera's assistance a tree, or a plant, or a table, she has thought that, in order to make her composition consistent throughout, she must describe other accessories with photographic fidelity, but free hand; hence the most extreme realism throughout most of the full-page illustrations. It may be also that the influence of Howard Pyle and Boutet de Monvel may be responsible for this love of detail.



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Illustration (reduced) from "Childhood."—From a pen-and-wash drawing by Sarah S. Stilwell, printed in two colors (half-tone).

Our second group includes artists who have reached eminence in child-portrayal but have not confined their activities to illustrating juvenile literature. A by no means complete list of these would include the names of Mrs. Alice Barber Stephens, Mrs. Florence Scovel Shinn, Mrs. Rose Cecil O'Neill Wilson; Maud and Genevieve Cowles, who work in partnership, as do the Misses E. Mars and M. H. Squires; Emilie Benson-Knipe, Mrs. Florence England Nosworthy, Ethel Reed, Charlotte Harding, Reginald Birch, Orson Lowell, Charles Louis Hinton, W. D. Stevens, and W. Glackens.

These artists are not placed in the category with the Misses Smith, Green, and Stilwell because the shibboleth on which they stutter is the poster style. In other respects, many of them may have superior qualities to those young ladies. For example, Mrs. Alice Barber Stephens, who may be called the dean of women illustrators in this country, can, because of her

years of experience, hold more closely to the text of a story than any of the younger school. She does not specialize. She can draw the whole family, from grandpa down to the infant in arms, with perfect sureness of touch. Her early style was painstaking, her work full of realism, but without great freedom. Of recent



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Illustration (reduced) from "The Surrender of Professor Seymour." Drawing by Charlotte Harding.

years, however, her style has taken on some of the broader methods of the younger school, and her somewhat halting pen technique has given way to a swinging outline, board washes and modeling, and flat tints of color.

Another all-round illustrator is Mrs. Rose Cecil O'Neill Wilson, the wife of the novelist, Harry Leon Wilson. She has written a novel entitled "The Loves of Edwy," which she has illustrated. Much of her work has been done for the humorous papers, and her *enfant terrible* is an original creation, very spirited in drawing, and wont to take *outré* poses, and capable of a grimace that is expansive and bold. Her bold effects of light and shade are often as striking as Victor Hugo's or Rembrandt's.

Mrs. Florence Scovel Shinn is fundamentally a caricaturist. Her sketches have the charming effect of spontaneity,—one fancies she never needs to use a model. There is in her work the same suggestion of sudden creation that there was in the sketches of John Leech. Her children are usually the type of unkempt youngsters with ill-fitting garments and pert expressions. She has illustrated "Mrs. Wiggs of the Cabbage Patch," "Lovey Mary," Miss Gilder's "Tomboy" and "The Tomboy at Work," Howells' "Flight of Pony Baker," and Anne Warner's "Susan Clegg" stories.

Charles Louis Hinton is the illustrator of "Emmy Lou," and he gives us a very substantial child, with evident avoirdupois, a type that is very American and of the bourgeoise class. He is able to catch the moods of childhood,—his little tots ponder, wonder, sob, and smile as few other picture-book children do.

Maude and Genevieve Cowles are twin sisters who have had every advantage of art education,



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Illustration (reduced) from "The Truce." Pen drawing by Fanny Y. Cory (Cooney).

and they have traveled much abroad. There are echoes of Botticelli and the Primitives in their compositions, and they show a strong predilection for nature background. They love to place their figures in those quaint old-fashioned gardens that are filled with beds of foxglove and leadwort, and the paths bordered with box.

ELECTRIC VERSUS STEAM LOCOMOTIVES.

IN the midst of the beautiful Mohawk Valley, of New York, between points that Cooper's famous hero, Leatherstocking, took nearly a week to traverse, the giant electric locomotive on the New York Central & Hudson River Railroad last month pulled nine heavy cars at sixty-nine miles an hour, covering the distance in a little more than three minutes. Such has been the progress of a century in transportation.

The possibilities of the electric locomotive in the way of speed, easy travel, and rapid starting and stopping received conclusive and graphic demonstration at the trial of the locomotive built by the General Electric Company and the American Locomotive Company for the New York Central & Hudson River Railroad. This trial was made on November 12, on a fine well-ballasted piece of track extending from Schenectady to Hoffmans, in the presence of a party of electrical experts, railroad men, and journalists, the guests of the electric traction commission of the railroad, and a great crowd of spectators. The members of the invited party, who had the privilege of riding in the cab during one of the bursts of high speed, were surprised and gratified at the ease and comparative lack of noise with which the monster locomotive drew its five-hundred-ton load.



OVERHEAD SPECIAL WORK.

(The overhead wire by which the motive power is supplied at crossings; showing also sub-station and barn.)

The New York Central Railroad has just completed arrangements to electrically equip its service as far as Croton, thirty-four miles out on the main line, and White Plains, twenty-four miles out, on the Harlem division. As soon as the roadbed and third-rail can be made ready (in the fall of 1906, it is expected), the electric service will be installed. It is the intention of the railroad company to substitute, at Croton and White Plains, the electric for the steam locomotive on all the heavy through traffic, the change consuming but a minute or two, which will be made up by the higher speed possible with the new motive power. The suburban local traffic will be handled in individual motor cars, after the manner of the subway trains, the front and rear cars having their own motors. The trial at Schenectady was to fix upon the locomotive for this service, and the railroad officials have expressed themselves as more than satisfied with the result.

A black iron monster, with reversible front and a corridor extending from end to end, and communicating with the cars it draws,—such is the general appearance of the famous electric locomotive. In non-technical language, it consists of a 95-ton engine on four driving-axles, the motive power being produced directly, without intermediate gearing, from a powerful electric motor, developing a capacity of 2,200 horsepower, which can be increased to 3,000. The method is by the third-rail, a section of six miles in the open country west of Schenectady having been equipped especially for this trial by the General Electric Company, which also furnished the power for the tests. This third-rail was protected by a wooden hood, so that no one could reach it unless he tried. At crossings or other places where the third-rail was interrupted, the motive power was supplied by connection with an overhead wire, a trolley from the locomotive meeting it at these points by means of a pneumatic device controlled by the engineer. The frame of the locomotive is of steel, which acts also as part of the magnetic circuit for the motors. In the test at Schenectady, the center of the cab was taken up by a set of recording instruments showing speed, voltage, consumption of current, how curves are taken, and various other qualities of the locomotive. When in use hauling trains, however,

this space will be occupied by a heating apparatus. According to law, there must be two men on the locomotive, —the master engineer and a helper, who will take the place of the old-time fireman. In designing the locomotive, the general features of the steam engine have been kept in mind, and valves, whistles, controllers, bells, and other devices are within easy reach of the engineer. It was the aim of the designers to secure in this machine the best mechanical features of the high-speed steam locomotive combined with the enormous power and simplicity in control made possible by the use of the electric drive. The elimination of gear and bearing losses permits of a very high efficiency; and it is claimed for the new machine that it will pound and roll much less than the steam locomotive, and thus reduce the expense of maintaining the rails and roadbed. By the use of the Sprague-General Electric multiple-unit system of control, two or more locomotives can be coupled together and operated from the leading cab as a single unit.



THE FAMOUS NEW YORK CENTRAL ELECTRIC LOCOMOTIVE AND TRAIN.

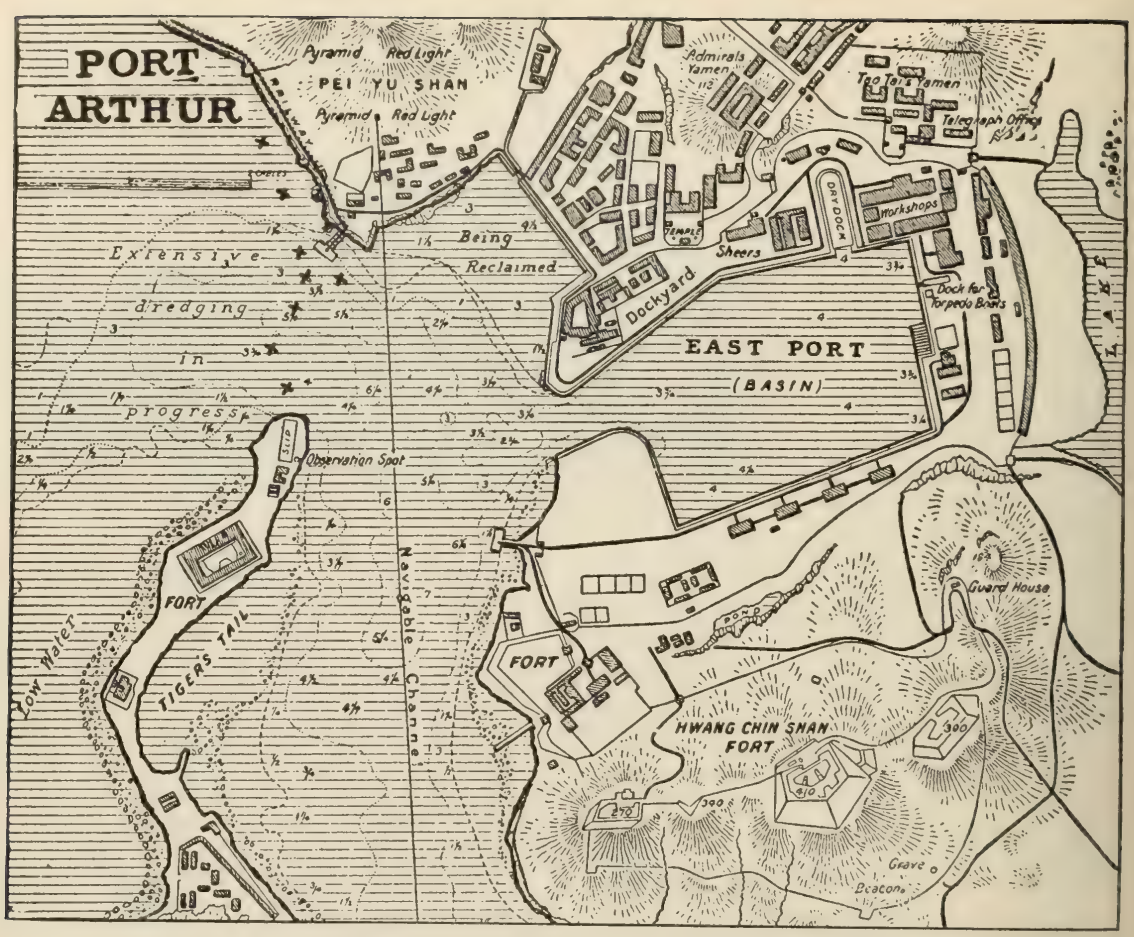
An exciting feature of the trial at Schenectady was the race with the fast mail train, the "New Yorker," a train that makes almost as much speed as the Empire State Express. When the "New Yorker," with seven cars, speeding at a rate of sixty miles an hour, reached the electric locomotive, the latter was going thirty miles an hour. Speed was put on, and in a mile's space the new machine was run even with the "New Yorker." Another turn of the copper handle on the master controller, and the steam train appeared to be moving slowly backward. A few notches more, and, from the electric cab, the steam express was seen to be far in the rear. Sixty-nine miles an hour was the record on the speed-gauge. All this had been done with no smoke or dust, or the suggestion of a cinder, and it cost considerably less than it had taken to drive the steam engine. Besides, in the words of an old-time engine-driver who was present, "You don't have to oil her half as much."



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THE RACE BETWEEN THE "NEW YORKER" (THE FAST MAIL) AND THE ELECTRIC LOCOMOTIVE.

Now that the railroad company has been satisfied as to the efficiency of the new locomotive, forty or fifty machines will be built for the haulage of through passenger traffic. The trains may reach eight hundred and seventy-five tons in weight, to be hauled at a maximum speed of sixty to sixty-five miles an hour. The steam locomotive has not been superseded. But it has encountered a formidable rival.



THE HARBOR OF PORT ARTHUR, SHOWING THE FORTS AND HOW THE ENTRANCE WAS BLOCKED.

(While to the Russians the famous fortress and town are known by the English words Port Arthur, to the Japanese it is Ryo-jun, which is the Japanese pronunciation of the Chinese ideograph. It is generally referred to as Ryo-jun-Ko; Ko meaning harbor.)

WHAT PORT ARTHUR MEANS TO JAPAN.

BY ADACHI KINNOSUKE.

IN 1881, and in the year that followed it, the French Government took a great deal of trouble and interest in a certain modest harbor which they found left peacefully to a Chinese fishing village and sleeping at 38 degrees 47 minutes and 50 seconds north latitude and 121 degrees 15 minutes and 21 seconds east longitude. The harbor was small. Running from east to west, it measured the distance of about two miles, and not quite one mile wide. It was situated at the end of the Liao-tung Peninsula. In those days, few, even among the statesmen of Nippon, saw in that toe of the Liao-tung a dagger-point aimed at the very heart of our country. As if the harbor were not small enough as it is, nature has divided it into two sections, the east and west harbors. As if these were not trials quite enough, the water of the harbor was found to be very shallow. In the east harbor, there is a very small space in which a large vessel could find itself comfortable. According to the examination of a foreign adviser to China, the bottom of the harbor is covered with clayey mud, breaking here and there into sandy bottoms containing a large quantity of shells. The entrance to this harbor was scarcely three hundred yards in width. As you enter it, Golden Hill looks down upon you from the right, and to the left is the Tiger's Tail.

Even in those days, however, it was not diffi-

cult to see how much Heaven had done for this modest harbor. The screen of hill ranges enveloped it completely from the winds of the Pe-chi-li, and from human foes from everywhere. Even to the casual eye, it was evident that this little harbor was a nature-built naval base. China fortified it with German skill and German guns. Even in the days of the Chino-Nippon War, German engineers were saying that it was impregnable. Certainly, it commanded the entrance to the Gulf of Pe-chi-li. If you wished to drive a fang into the throat of Peking, you had only to occupy this base with a comparatively small fleet. And the statesmen of Nippon were not slow in seeing that the master of Port Arthur is the master of the Yellow Sea. In the hands of a hostile and competent power, it is a veritable dagger threatening the very vitals of our land, which is within thirty-odd hours of a hostile fleet in its harbor.

At the close of the Chino-Nippon War, at Shimonoseki, in front of Marquis Ito, representing his Majesty the Emperor of Nippon, Li Hung Chang, representing his country, placed his seal to a document which ceded to us Port Arthur and the southern end of the Liao-tung Peninsula. You know as well as I do that even while the ink was hardly dry upon the famous Shimonoseki treaty, the triple combination of European powers,—of Russia, Germany, and France,—advised us, through a polite joint note and extensive naval demonstrations of the combined fleet of the three powers in the Gulf of Pe-chi-li, to reconsider a certain portion of the Shimonoseki treaty and retrocede to China the Liao-tung Peninsula, with Port Arthur at the end of it. You know as well as I do that when Marquis Ito and his wise friends saw the wisdom of hearkening unto the mailed advice of these three Christian nations, and when he gagged the press and returned to China the Liao-tung Peninsula and Port Arthur, more than one hundred soldiers who had fought in Manchuria in the Chino-Nippon War took it as the blackest stain on our national honor, as an unparalleled humiliation of a nation which had never before been humiliated by a foreign power. They wished to put this on record, and so they wrote their protest with their own blood by committing the hara-kiri, by that ancient right of the samurai which says to the world that they would rather die than see dishonor!

In their dreams, in the eyes of their imagination, the fighting men of Nippon to-day see the ghosts of these men wandering over Port Arthur in company with those of many hundreds of other men who had fallen before Port Arthur in storming it and taking it from the Chinese. These spirits of the dead, in the existence of which we of the far East believe quite as much as the Christians of the West believe in the immortality of the soul, cannot find rest and peace as long as that stronghold is in possession of a power which humiliated us some ten years ago, in the days of national exhaustion, at the end of the Chino-Nippon War. In the eyes of the Nippon soldier in front of Port Arthur to-day, the occupation of the stronghold is more than a tactical victory. He looks upon it as a sacred feast to be placed upon the altar of the heroic dead of his comrades of ten years ago. To him, the occupation of Port Arthur is important from the military sense. Perhaps more important, however, than the strictly military phase of it, the occupation of Port Arthur is to him sentimental, almost religious. To occupy Port Arthur again seems to him like washing the darkest stain from his sun-round flag once for all; as he looks at it, it is to offer unto the wandering and restless spirits of these heroic dead a flower the fragrance of which no heavenly incense can equal.

People in the West are marveling at the reckless way in which our men are throwing themselves against the strong walls and precipices, against barbed wires and quick-firers, at Port Arthur. What is really surprising is the restraint with which our commander at Port Arthur is carrying on the siege operations. The miracle of it all is the supreme mastery and calmness and sobriety with which the flame-like prayer of our men, who have prayed and waited over eight years, is being expressed against the Russians at Port Arthur.

Good people of Tokio, especially that choice and very small (thank Heaven for the rarity and smallness of this company) portion which has been making costly preparations for a feast of celebration upon the fall of Port Arthur, are impatient. I do not see how the people who know anything of Sebastopol or Plevna, anybody who has heard of the weary days which stretched from October 9 of 1854 to September 9 of 1855, and heard of the hundred thousand men Russia lost, could very reasonably be impatient over Port Arthur. At any rate, they who are before Port Arthur under the sun-flag seem to have succeeded in giving history a new chapter.

In front of Tien-Tsin castle, in the black days of 1900, when the reports from out of Peking read for all the world like the front page of a yellow journal, there were gathered together many men, and under many different flags. On that historic march to Peking, the English were gracious enough to say that the Nippon soldiers are the best in the world, except the British;

The French said that they never saw a better set of fighting men than the Nippon soldiers, except those of France; our German friends were loud in proclaiming the fact that Nippon had learned everything in connection with the army from Germany, and decidedly there was no army as good as that of Nippon, except the Germans, who had taught everything to us. With that hearty cheer and that ring of simple sincerity of a man who speaks straight out of the heart, the Americans declared that next to the finest army in the world, which was, of course, the American, none could be as worthy as the Nippon soldiers to be the second.

To-day, around Port Arthur, men from England, from the United States, from France and Germany, war correspondents and military attachés, are saying, with one accord, "There is no doubt about it, General Nogi commands the finest infantry in the world!" And the reason of it all is this—it is simple, too—that the men under other colors except that of the round sun in the center of the white ground are expected to do what is possible for the human to do; something more is expected of the Nippon soldier. What is remarkable is that he does not disappoint his friends. Once upon a time, there was issued a circular letter by the regimental chiefs of our army, to be read by the privates. Here is one of the paragraphs of the circular letter: "Of every one of you the Emperor and your country expects the accomplishment of the impossible." Time and again, and often in the presence of our foreign visitors, the Nippon soldiers have succeeded in accomplishing feats which seemed clear and away beyond human possibility even in the imagination of the spectators, and the doing of an impossible thing by our men, and so many, many times over, too, seems to have carried a certain conviction into the minds of our foreign friends.

When our Russian friends advertised,—in no modest tone, to be sure,—the impregnability of Port Arthur, there were some good people in Tokio who thought that the Russians were dreaming. Events of the following days seemed to have given them a somewhat rude awakening. It is true, then, that the Russians knew a few things of what their engineers could do in heightening the strength of a Heaven-built fortress. Fancy to yourself a slant of over seventy degrees riding away into the skies for many hundred meters, surrounded by a deep moat. Imagine, also, bomb-proof trenches covered with steel plates crowning its crest, surrounding the permanent fort in the center atop of the hill, built of stone and cement, in which are mounted heavy guns. Imagine, once again, that the foot of this fort, just above the moat, is mined, is surrounded with wire entanglements, every iron line of which is charged with electric currents strong enough to fell thousands of men at a touch, and fancy that two to three of just such forts are placed to every one thousand meters of the perimeter of Port Arthur. Behind such fortifications, a few determined women, if they only knew how to handle the guns, would be able to entertain an army of one hundred thousand men of unquestioned courage and thorough training. Said our commanding officer to one of the native correspondents: "In a siege work like this, so far as the defender is concerned, the forts are everything. With them, the forts are their courage; their endurance is the forts; their power is in the forts. Behind them, they can well afford to turn the most heroic of human attacks into a sad joke."

This was the foundation upon which Russia built her dream of a far-Eastern empire. Five years of the best engineering efforts of Russia had been crystallized in this stronghold. With lavish hands, Russian rubles were buried in this soil. Confident in its strength, and not without reason, the Russians have sung, with a touch of sincerity in their voices, of the impregnability of Port Arthur.

We must have Port Arthur,—that much was decided from the beginning,—but when were we to get it? The answer to this question depended upon two things,—first, if General Kuropatkin were to succeed in breaking through our army facing him and create a possibility of his coming to the rescue of Port Arthur; second, the coming of a second Pacific squadron of Russia from the European waters. At Telissu, and later at the Sha River, General Kuropatkin had tried, and tried hard, to come to the rescue of his Port Arthur friends. As long as the admirable Baltic squadron of Russia was enriching the art of the caricaturist on its famous voyage around the world, there seemed to be no special need for the Nippon Government to get into a fever of haste and nervous excitement over the reduction of Port Arthur. So the commanders of the besieging forces hit upon a compromise. The work of reduction progressed, but with the least expenditure of men. To General Nogi, the men under him are dearer than those of his own blood. To be sure, there were occasions when sacrifices could not be avoided. Then the men died without hesitation, although it is not true that the Nippon men look upon life lightly. With the fall of Port Arthur will be closed the first chapter of the Russo-Nippon war. With its possession, we shall have everything for which we took up arms against Russia.

LEADING ARTICLES OF THE MONTH.

IS RUSSIA TO ESTABLISH A UNIVERSAL EMPIRE?

EXALTED optimism and deep despair, as they clash in the columns of the *Novoye Vremya* (the sensational daily of St. Petersburg), convey to the observer a strange impression of Russian conditions. There appeared recently in this journal an article quite remarkable in many ways, written by Lev Lvovich Tolstoy, a son of the renowned Count Leo Tolstoy. We have fallen upon sad times, says young Tolstoy. "Yet I am convinced that they will pass, and that there will come in their wake glorious and happy days of regeneration for Russia." He notes the extreme optimism on the one hand, and the no less extreme pessimism on the other, pervading Russian society, and concludes that those holding the former view are numerically superior. In his almost visionary enthusiasm, he interprets the stolid, patient, and forcibly resigned attitude of the Russian masses as an intelligent patriotism, an interpretation that his own citations scarcely justify. The opinions of the peasants with whom he discussed the war are in substance as follows:

What can we do? We cannot escape from fate. Japan has risen against us, and we must subdue her. Many of our people will perish; but also they will get it. What can we do? We had not had war for a long time, and now it broke out again. We do not want it, but it has come to pass. We do not want to go to the front, yet we must go.

WILL JAPAN BE BEATEN, AS SWEDEN WAS?

Young Tolstoy commends this as a "deep, wise, and righteous attitude," and continues:

The present war in the far East is a great conflict such as has not been seen by Russia since the times of Peter the Great. It is being waged for the possession of the eastern shore of the great European-Asiatic continent, just as in Peter's time wars were waged for the possession of the western shore. As in the struggle with the Swedes, we had first a Narva, and then a Poltava, where the Swede met his destruction; so, in the struggle with the Japanese, the Swedes of Asia, we shall at first meet with reverses, but later there must inevitably come the Poltava, where the Japanese shall perish. Only the feeble-hearted or extremely shortsighted can fail to see the final outcome of this war. It is but sufficient to look at the map. It is but sufficient to think of Russia,—her great territory, her villages, fields, forests, lakes, mountains, and her people,—to become convinced. Russia is invincible,—Russia is unique in her people, geography, climate, spiritual and intellectual might, temperament, peaceableness, capacities, and her destiny. To Russia, notwithstanding her present misfortunes, belongs the earth's future.

The son of the great peace advocate declares he has said to English friends:

You may rest assured that we and not you are to realize your dream of a universal empire. And we shall achieve that naturally by force of circumstances and of destiny. The people that possesses the northern portion of the earth from the Finnish cliffs to the waste of daring Japan is mightier than any other terrestrial nation, and though it is not yet fully grown to show its superiority, it has all the essentials for the achievement of the latter. It casts its shadow over all the neighboring nations, and gradually absorbs them. It has conquered the Crimea, the Caucasus, eastern Siberia, the outlying western territories, and now where Russia is, there will never be aught else. The Tatars already speak Russian among themselves, and the same will happen everywhere. We shall crowd out also you English, both from Egypt and India. Russia is unconquerable.

WHAT RUSSIAN CHARACTER LACKS.

Menschikov, a prominent contributor to the *Novoye Vremya*, makes a critical analysis of Tolstoy's article. He points out the danger of such false views becoming current in Europe, and counsels the Russian press to protest against them, and to state the true opinions of the Russian people. The Russian people as a whole, he affirms, is opposed to aggression, and as to Russia's invincibility, the intelligent classes do not believe in it. Even among the mass of the people, this belief in Russia's superiority and invincibility has been strongly undermined.

Seeing the comfortable and neat Germans; noting that the finest manufactures come from abroad, as well as the best machinery, best plows, the best seed-drills, harrows, scythes, guns, cotton prints, fruits, etc.; seeing that the most skilled mechanics are brought from foreign countries; seeing that our ruling classes learn foreign languages and travel abroad to study, or merely to live there, and return thence as if from a holy shrine, in religious exaltation, the plain people must necessarily conceive of foreign countries as of something better, something more valuable, more beautiful, more stable, more precious. Nowadays we do not find even the shadow of the old derisive contempt for the Frenchman or the German. As to the conquest of the whole world, how can the Russian people dream of driving out England from Egypt when it does not even know that Egypt is occupied by the English? The common sense of the peasant enables him to understand what self-defense means; but as to attacking his neighbors, no agricultural people will come to think of it.

Menschikov then proceeds to show that neither the lower nor the higher classes in Russia dream of universal conquest. Our conservative aristocracy, he says, feels it beyond its power to manage even the present territory. The outlying regions, occupied by Russia through force of necessity, demand great sacrifices. There is a "lack of men," and to such an extent that governor-generals' posts remain vacant for long intervals.

How can we think, then, of universal conquest? Our liberal "intelligentzia" is as far removed from dreams of universal conquest as is our aristocracy. Deprived of political activity, it is also deprived of press organs, and the very instincts of the least political initiative; in its great mass, our "intelligentzia" is held in spiritual bondage by the West. The handful of Slavophils who had dreamed to see Russia at the head of the nations has rapidly degenerated, and has not even a single prominent representative. If our educated classes have at all the right to speak in the name of the nation, they will scarcely permit even the dream of universal dominion. With the tortured consciousness of our vices and our failings, how can we dream of universal supremacy? After lack of courage, the most repulsive quality is boastfulness. A careful examination will show that both vices—cowardice and boastfulness—have the same origin. In both cases, it is a self-delusion, an aberration of judgment. True courage, calm or anxious, needs no phrases; but when people shout "Russia is invincible" it looks very much like the well-known expedient of the ostrich.

It is high time for the Russian people to realize that Russia is not invincible, says Menschikov, and "it would be fatal to deny this terrible possibility." He goes on to prove that Russia's supposed strength because of her great territorial extent is really her weakness, in that it makes it more difficult for her to concentrate her forces in the hour of need. In our old wars, he says, we did not defend our country, but rather our country defended us.

But this same hypnotic faith in our vast territory was also a great evil. The vast territorial limits have inspired even ourselves with an exaggerated sense of security. The abundance of land has wrought harm to the Russian colonizer. Just as in times of peace he was accustomed not to value the land, and having merely delved in one place he moved to another, which deprived us of the possibility of acquiring a high degree of culture, so, in times of war, knowing that we had territory in which to retreat, we did not develop the art of fortifying and defending our country with the stubbornness characteristic of the crowded West. The habit of retreating, and of seeking safety in the dense forests and in the steppes, led to the ruin of the country; at every invasion, the germs of civilization were burned hundreds of times, together with the dwellings of the boyars and the churches. Instead of deciding the war at the frontiers, we carried it into the interior; and western Russia has not to this day recovered from the invasion by Vitold. The policy of retreat, sanctioned by centuries, has created the type of our national war-fare-defense,—the worst of methods, as is admitted by all strategists.

RUSSIA NOT INVINCIBLE.

But aside from territorial vastness, wherein, asks Menschikov, "lie the conditions of our invincibility?"

Count L. L. Tolstoy points to the "spiritual and intellectual might" of the Russian people. Presumably we are superior to our neighbors by force of intellect and feeling. For this reason we deserve to become the masters of the world. Really, if it were not for the well-known sincerity of our author, one might consider his compliments to the Russian people as bitter irony. Exceptional national wisdom is surely a great force, but where is it with us? Is it expressed in the almost universal ignorance of the Russian people at the time when all the neighboring nations, white and yellow, have a more or less assured system of popular education? Ability to read and write is something which, with sufficient demand, could become a common possession in a half-century. With us, it is a luxury a thousand years after St. Cyril. Or is our national wisdom expressed by high morality, by a longing for temperance, popular decorum; in customs of civic dignity, in the perfection of government system? With us, popular morality is considerably lower than with our neighbors. Popular dishonesty, "graft," cruelty, dissipation, drunkenness, lack of respect for human rights,—this coarse cynicism pervades the population to its very heart. If the spiritual might of a people is expressed by its creative power, I ask, Where is it? Our national art is insignificant, and there is hardly any national literature at all. Our culture is entirely borrowed, and is, notwithstanding, the poorest in the world. . . . I am a thorough Russian, and I love my country not less than does Count L. L. Tolstoy, but in the life of my people I see the triumph, not of reason, but of a certain backwardness, of that provincial popular darkness that is a natural sequence of the return to barbarism of a noble race, of spiritual degeneration under the burden of unendurable sacrifices. I do not know whether the national soul has become exhausted in the titanic struggle with the vast territory, with the gloomy forests and deserts, or whether the nation has become weary of external and internal slavery. But I do know that just now this popular wisdom is with us in a state of decay, and that really is the source of our misfortunes. . . . Beggared, ignorant, savage to the extent of indifference to its fate, the people underfed, a prey to monstrous drunkenness, landless, sick,—how can such a people dream, together with Count L. L. Tolstoy, of universal dominion?

EDITOR SUVORIN'S OPINION.

The opposite opinions of Tolstoy and Menschikov created much discussion in the Russian press. Many Russians were at a loss to understand how the same paper could sanction such opposite opinions by allowing their expression in its columns. Numerous letters were written to the editor. Setting himself up as the umpire in the matter, Suvorin says:

The question whether Russia is conquerable has, in our opinion, hardly any direct bearing on the ques-

tion of an energetic campaign on our part against the Japanese. . . . Still, if it were imperative to admit such a connection, we would prefer M. Menschikov's arguments. . . . Suddenly, we have been surprised by our own unpreparedness. Theoretically, Russia is great in strength and resources, yet this strength and these resources, when the storm came, were found misplaced, inadequately utilized, and improperly grouped. Instead of that invincible Russia in which we were taught to believe, our eyes beheld an entirely different Russia, an "unprepared" Russia, and hence, in Manchuria, in February, 1904, a very "conquerable" Russia.

The sensational discussion in the columns of the *Novoye Vremya* is thus characterized by Mir Bozhi (St. Petersburg), representing the opinion of conservative journalism in Russia: "And meanwhile [referring to the troubled times], here in the heart of Russia, there are minute disease germs which unceasingly and with terrible force are undermining the healthy organism,—various Burenins, Menschikovs, Migulins, and Suvorins are diligently and untiringly talking rot."

JAPAN'S NEGATIVE VICTORIES.

THOUGH writing (in the *Fortnightly Review*) before the indecisive battle of the Shaho, "Calchas" regards the real triumphs of the war on land as almost altogether Russian. His title is "The Limits of Japanese Capacity," and he considers those limits very narrow. With their organization, rapid mobilization, and magnificent troops, the Japanese generals ought to have crushed Russia's at first small forces long ago, and by a couple of Sedans put an end to the campaign. The Japanese, says "Calchas," have blundered badly, their generals have made the most outrageous mistakes, being saved only by the fighting of the lower ranks; and the glory of the war, so far as there is any, is with Kuropatkin and Stoessel. The Japanese have done everything that could be done by system without brilliant brains, but they have done nothing more.

They show astonishing proficiency in every matter of detail to which deliberate dexterity can be applied. But there is some fundamental want with respect to depth, conception, and largeness of execution. What we miss, in a word, is the sense of that decisive insight for essentials, that constructive imagination, associated in the West with great personality,—with leadership, whether in the art of war or in the art of peace. Everything suggests that Japanese faculty, while upon a very high average level, does not show any signs as yet of rivaling the West in range. It probably is incapable of sinking to the depth of Russian incompetence exposed in many directions. But also, in the present writer's belief, Russian personality of the highest type,—there is, doubtless, not much of it,—will prove to be head and shoulders above Japanese leadership.

The underestimate of Russia's power which succeeded the original overestimation is ridiculous, and has been falsified by Kuropatkin's campaign. With their superior chances, the Japanese should have defeated the Russians and destroyed their armies; they did the first and failed in the second. They borrowed Germany's method without her strategical brains. The Russian army has proved itself as indestructible as it did at Borodino; and, so far from being demoralized by defeat, is "slowly but steadily improving in efficiency after nine months of defeat."

THE REAL HEROES OF THE WAR.

"Calchas" has no mercy for the Japanese leaders. There are only four heroes of the war —Kuropatkin, Stoessel, Khilkoff, and the men who repaired the Port Arthur battleships. Like Oyama and Kuroki, Togo has blundered. Like the French sailors of the eighteenth century who tried above all things to save their material, he has lost by being afraid of taking a risk. The average of Russian brains has not been high. But Russia has produced military and organizing genius of a higher type than has been shown by Japan. And these facts, and the tenacity of the Czar's troops, have given Russia a moral victory, and will save her from decisive defeat.

Opinion of the German General Staff.

A very critical view of the Japanese as tacticians is expressed in the quarterly issued by the general staff of the German army, a publication dealing in the scientific manner characteristic of the Germans with questions of strategy and the art of war generally. The writer who discusses the Manchurian campaign in this official quarterly reaches the conclusion that the Japanese generals do not deserve the admiration and eulogies that have been lavished upon them in the West, and that their soldiers and officers have been credited with greater virtue and heroism than they have actually displayed. To begin with, the writer charges the Japanese with excessive caution. He says:

In order to achieve real success, the Japanese were bound to act with the utmost rapidity. It was necessary for them to employ all their powers to deprive the enemy of the possibility of increasing his army to a strength equal to their own. Only this might have

shaken his determination to continue the conflict indefinitely. Now, there was but one way of preventing the Russians from gathering an army equal numerically to that of Japan at the front, and that was to maintain a persistent and tireless advance during the first stage of the war, when the Russians had a small force scattered over a vast territory.

The Japanese, the expert continues, were perfectly able to do this. They knew exactly the number and disposition of their enemy's troops at the outset, and should have taken advantage of his weakness. They should have effected their landing in Manchuria proper, in the immediate vicinity of the army of occupation. The operations undertaken in Korea, for the purpose of making that country subject to Japan, were from this point of view a palpable error. They involved not only a loss of time, but also a needless extension of the line of military activity. It is evident, continues the German military organ, that the Japanese generals attached paramount importance to safety of landing, and preferred a slow and cautious advance to quick successes; but all the great commanders of the past aimed at such successes through daring and enterprise.

The lack of these qualities in the Japanese is responsible for the neglect of all their opportunities to strike decisive blows. When, at the end of July, nearly six months after the outbreak of hostilities, they finally came in contact with the main Russian force, they found confronting them, no longer a few scattered divisions, but a mighty host which they could not defeat in spite of desperate six-day efforts. From Liao-Yang the Russian army retreated, not only in perfect order and in good *morale*, but without heavy loss, comparatively speaking. Their dead and wounded did not exceed 10 per cent. of the participants in the great battle, whereas history records battles in which the losses were 25, 30, and even 50 per cent. of those engaged. In view of these facts, the organ of the German staff concludes, much of the talk about the unexampled valor of the Japanese is as loose and groundless as the enthusiastic praise of their alleged military genius. At any rate, they have not inflicted any staggering losses upon the Russians, and their want of boldness and dash has enabled the enemy to fill all gaps and gradually attain numerical equality.

RUSSIA'S ATTITUDE TOWARD MEDIATION BY AMERICA.

"ROOSEVELT and Mediation" is the title of an editorial in the *Novoye Vremya* (St. Petersburg) of October 20. It refers to a cable from Washington to the effect that "the time is approaching when the neutral powers will be in a position to act as mediators," and that "President Roosevelt has been ready since the beginning of the war to volunteer his cooperation in stopping hostilities between Russia and Japan, but awaited the moment when the initiation of the United States in the *rôle* of a mediator would be acceptable to both parties." From this the *Novoye Vremya* concludes that the United States Government seems to feel that the moment has now arrived when mediation will prove acceptable to both Russia and Japan. On this point, the editor, Suvorin, says:

> There is no doubt that Japan would have welcomed, long ago, diplomatic intervention, to relieve her of the intolerable burdens of war, and that President Roosevelt is, at any rate, in a position to know well the intentions of the Japanese Government.

As regards Russia, this journal feels called upon to enlighten the world, as follows:

> Russia is now experiencing for the first time in her history what republican governments knew long ago. Her foreign policy, which had seldom before been affected by questions of internal administration, and to which was due in part the consistency of the diplomacy based on the peculiarity of a monarchical government, is now confronted by a different problem. Mr. Roosevelt must know that the whole anti-Russian campaign carried on for the last year in the foreign press has hinged on the principal idea that, owing to the weakness of internal organization of the Russian monarchy, Russia will not be able to cope with Japan.

This campaign, according to the *Novoye Vremya*, has influenced to some extent the feelings and ideas current in Russian society with regard to the war, and to this must be ascribed the favorable leaning toward peace and mediation in certain circles. Other things, however, must not be forgotten, says Mr. Suvorin.

> If we wish to get the true import of such leanings, we must remember that we have two factions advocating peace,—first, the extreme reactionaries, who wish, in their old way, to hide their heads under their wings and to reëstablish a hollow peace for their own tranquillity; and, second, the radicals, who think that the war has weakened the government enough, and who hope that a disgraceful peace will entirely discredit it. There is a third element of calm and progressive Russians,—namely, the majority, who admit that the war has shown many points of weakness, but who stand for absolute victory over the Japanese, so that whatever reforms shall subsequently be inaugurated shall prove the outcome of the natural evolution of the Russian monarchy and not be due to pressure from without,

POINTS FOR A PEACE CONFERENCE.

PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT'S proposal for a new Hague conference is the subject of an article by Sir John Macdonell in the *Nineteenth Century* for November. In the opinion of this writer, the United States is in a peculiarly favorable condition for convoking such a conference, and he welcomes the proposition, though he does not believe that the conference can meet while war is being waged.

THE PROBLEM OF CONTRABAND.

Questions of neutrality and contraband would have to be decided. It is a mistake to suppose that in this war there have been exceptional grounds of offense to neutrals (the North Sea incident being excepted). Cases like that of the *Knight Commander* are common in all wars. The conference would, therefore, have to legislate on these points :

Belligerents' interests have been always studied. It is high time that those of neutrals were equally regarded. It would be foolish to hope that at any one conference a complete code of neutrality could be framed ; in view of the diversity of opinion as to important points, the time has not come for framing any complete statement on the subject. But some questions which it is probably dangerous to leave open might be settled. To many, the interest in the conference arises from the hope that the claims of neutrals will for the first time be fairly and fully recognized.

THE RIGHT OF SEARCH.

Restriction of the right of search is needed, as conditions have changed, and it is doubtful whether powerful neutrals will submit to their whole industrial machinery being stopped in order that a ring may be kept clear for the combatants.

It is well worthy of consideration whether a plan might not be devised by which shipowners who do not wish to carry contraband,—and those who will have nothing to do with such business are perhaps not the majority,—could obtain practical immunity from search. Among the schemes which have been suggested are these : The issuing at the port of shipment of a certificate by the consul of a belligerent, which would be deemed conclusive as to the nature of the cargo ; immunity, at all events, for mail steamers provided with such a certificate ; immunity of mail-bags from examination,—an immunity which would rarely be seriously injurious to the belligerent ; international agreements not to exercise the right of search except within certain areas in waters adjacent to ports of belligerents.

COALING OF BELLIGERENT SHIPS.

The right of belligerent ships to coal and provision in neutral ports should also be legally defined.

Much is to be said for the opinion that a vessel taking refuge in a neutral port, to escape pursuit or by reason of being disabled so as to continue her voyage, should remain interned until the end of the war. That agrees with the practice observed in land warfare. It was recently followed in Chinese ports. It has much to recommend it ; and it seems in a fair way to obtain general acceptance.

Another problem urgently demanding settlement is the use of wireless telegraphy by neutrals in the vicinity of the theater of war. Unfortunately, says Sir John, there is no reason to anticipate a limitation of armaments.

CHURCH AND STATE IN ITALY.

GIUSEPPE MOLTENI writes of "The Crisis of the Catholic Movement in Italy," in the *Nuova Antologia*, prefacing the discussion proper by a concise summary of the contributory events of the past thirty years, especially the various phases of activity of the Opera dei Congressi, the association expressing Catholic polity. This, from a purely defensive organization for destructive criticism of the new order of things, "by reason of introduction of new blood, already reconciled to the modern Italian state, and patriotically proud of its position, as well as the infiltration of modern economic thought," later developed into a union of thousands of associations, directed by a bureaucratic hierarchy, and conducting, besides research and publication, a great system of rural banks, mutual aid societies, and loan associations.

The association contained three parties,—the orthodox conservatives, such as Paganuzzi and Scotton ; the audacious, democratic, radical youth, demanding a revival of Italian Catholicism on new lines, and incarnated in Romolo Murri ; and the moderates, largely in sympathy with the youth, but proceeding by more cautious and slower measures, and viewing with alarm certain ill-considered agitation, too much resembling "black socialism." Such are Meda, Crispolti, Toniolo, Medolago, Mauri, and Rezzara, the first heralds of the revival of Italian Catholicism. These gained at least moral, if not numerical, supremacy, and through them the

young Christian Democrats, already attempting autonomy, were finally folded in the Opera. Leo XIII. understood their force and promise, and "as a pledge that their sacrifice of independent action was not in vain, Giovanni Grosoli, dear to their hearts, and a man of broad vision and modern ideas," was called to the presidency of the Opera.

Is the present crisis that afflicts Catholic action in Italy a sign of weakness and decadence? Signor Molteni thinks he can answer, No. He notes the "comforting phenomenon of a continuous infiltration of advanced thought," and regards as sure the "ultimate triumph of youthful force over weak senility." He summarily dismisses the idea that the crisis has been intentionally brought on by those in high places bent on destroying Christian Democracy. The recent measures of the Vatican, he thinks, show no substantial change from the attitude of Leo XIII.

Except for social propaganda, the Opera has lost its national character, each diocese governing itself, and practical local autonomy being set up. Thus, some associations will cease activity, and others increase. This will depend largely on the bishops. Independence from the hierarchy will accentuate the religious side of the Opera's activity. Diocesan committees will become simply assemblies of good Catholics who will "aid the bishops in their pastoral duties, in curbing immorality and blasphemy, enouraging worship, and rousing slumbering faith."

That the Opera loses its character of national political association, Signor Molteni believes is a blessing, as thus vanishes the greatest obstacle to political action by Catholics.

GAIN IN POLITICAL FREEDOM FOR CATHOLICS.

In the new situation, Catholics are free, outside of their official and characteristic organization, to develop a true, individual political activity through union with diverse political groups. Already the youths and the Christian Democrats have, in various associations, taken such action, not without conservative censure. Any pretext of interference is swept away, however, when the Christian Democrats recognize that nothing hinders them from zealous work in the Opera for religious and social ends, and at the same time joining with other elements for other objects of civil life. The formation of the *Unione nazionale elettorale* (National Electoral Union) is the first incident showing that the Catholics welcome this enlarged elasticity of action.

WHY ITALIAN AGRICULTURAL COLONIES FAIL.

THE recommendation recently made by the Italian commercial agent at Washington to the Italian Emigration Commission that colonization societies be formed in order to check the massing of Italians in American cities and aid their transformation into landed proprietors has caused the former ambassador to this country, Baron Severio Fava, to break silence as to previous efforts in this direction, and the causes of their failure. The *Nuova Antologia* (Rome) presents his revelations and views in an article entitled "Italian Agricultural Colonies in North America."

Baron Fava says that voluminous records in the embassy at Washington will show that he called attention to the need and proposed similar remedies as far back as 1883. He deemed it necessary to establish a bureau for the protection of emigrants arriving in America, with a labor bureau attached. He intended to establish this by means of a fund of eight thousand dollars, offered by the banker Cantoni, with the use of certain premises; a legacy left by Mr. Massa, twelve hundred dollars allotted by Minister Crispi, and the formation of a society whose members should give gratuitous services and monthly dues. The leaders of the New York Italian colony, however, failed to give the promised aid, in spite of their having met twice with the ambassador to agree on terms. The ambassador, therefore, presented his wishes to the then Secretary of the Treasury, Carlisle, and gained his hearty assistance. He gave the free use of a large hall on Ellis Island. When all details had been arranged, the bureau was placed in charge of Cavaliere Egisto Rossi, under the immediate direction of the ambassador. It cost the Italian Government $6,000 a year, even with the Massa legacy. It protected the emigrant from all kinds of extortion and exploitation, and guided him through the difficulties of first experience in a strange land. The labor bureau was not founded because the Italian Government refused the necessary funds, and did not even authorize the acceptance of twelve hundred dollars yearly, offered by the American banker, Mr. Corbin, for this purpose.

The success of the Italian bureau of protection had aroused other countries, and Austria-Hungary asked permission to establish a similar

bureau, but was refused. Other demands were made, and when the Ellis Island buildings were destroyed by fire the regulation was made that foreign bureaus might be established on Ellis Island, but not in the federal buildings, as the Italian office had been for six years.

After mentioning the great success of the Irish, German, Scandinavian, and Swiss labor bureaus in placing emigrants on land by taking advantage of the homestead laws, Baron Fava considers the question of whether Italian emigrants will lend themselves to such operations. The first condition must be that the emigrants go to America intending to remain. How many Italians have such intention, he asks. They are so sure to return to their native soil when they have accumulated a little that Americans call them "birds of passage." Under such conditions, what Italian-American or American capitalists would undertake to form Italian colonies? The Italians of the "colony" at Vineland, N. J., started a quarter of a century ago by Cavaliere Secchi di Casale, founder of the *Eco d'Italia*, do not possess an inch of soil. The so-called colony at Asti, Cal., founded with bonds of small denomination mostly acquired by Italian-Swiss, had to be transformed into a capitalists' enterprise because the peasants refused to become partners and preferred receiving wages to becoming landowners. Finally, the colony at Lodi, Cal., has been too recently founded by Mr. Ghigliera to predict results, especially as the peasants have required the stipulation that they may seek work elsewhere during the six months of slack work in vine culture.

PROSPECT OF FUTURE COLONIZATION SOCIETIES.

Certainly, there are among the Italian-Americans many who might subscribe funds to colonization societies, properly so called, but who of them, after having gained a competence by hard work, is going to risk loss by founding societies based on the work of peasants who refuse peremptorily to discount the purchase of land with agricultural labor, but demand, instead, immediate pay?

As for societies founded with exclusively American capital, facts speak louder than theories. He recounts the history of "Sunny Side," the cotton plantation of Mr. Corbin, on which he attempted to establish an ideal Italian colony, aided by the ambassador and Don Emanuele Ruspole, then syndic of Rome. The plan included a subdivided tract, with houses and complete outfits furnished, artesian wells, school, library, church and savings-bank, narrow-gauge railway and cotton press. After twenty years, the colonists were to become proprietors of their plots, and the plantation buildings were to be common property of the whole colony. Fifty or sixty families were brought from Italy at the expense of Mr. Corbin. They went to work and were paid the wages agreed. All promised well. Trustworthy persons were sent by both Mr. Corbin and the ambassador to satisfy all just demands. Very soon, for no valid reason, after getting their pay, the colonists began to disband gradually, drawn by the fatal allurement of quick profit to the great cities.

In the present state of things, Baron Fava thinks, it will not be easy to found real colonization societies in this country, with either Italian or American capital. He thinks it possible that Brazil and Argentina, with climate, language, and customs more in harmony with those of Italy, might offer more encouragement of success for the proposed colonization societies.

THE PRESENT RENASCENCE OF POLAND.

POLAND, says a writer in the *Quarterly Review*, is in the midst of a moral and intellectual renascence which keeps the severed kingdom united and fosters the spirit of independence.

THE CZAR'S REFORMS.

The reviewer describes the burden of alien rule in Russia and Prussia. In Austria, the Poles are relatively free. Russian rule has of late been slightly ameliorated, owing to the personal action of the Czar, to whom the reviewer pays more than one tribute. No man is now punished for changing his religion, and Nicholas II. (it was reported) lately issued a ukase permitting religious instruction to be given in the Polish language.

The rule in Warsaw is still bad, owing to the activity of General Chertkoff, who has flooded the city with spies. Even the Czar's good intentions are thus brought to naught.

The Czar, some years back, gave permission for a statue to the great national poet, Mickiewicz, to be erected in Warsaw. By order of the police, every street was lined with Cossacks, ready to shoot or cut down the multitudes who came to see it unveiled, should any demonstration take place. After a short speech, the ceremony was performed in the presence of more than

twenty thousand people. Not a cry of any sort was uttered; the whole assembly was hushed into deathlike stillness. But we may be sure that they resented the outrage with all the passion of their passionate nature, and that the effect of what the Czar meant as an act of kindness was completely obliterated.

POLISH PROGRESS IN PRUSSIA.

In Prussia, the Poles are oppressed without avail. They have increased in numbers 12 per cent., as against a German increase of 3.7. As the Germans buy up landed property in the country they are ousted by the Poles in the towns, and the number of small estates held by Poles is increasing largely. The following instance is given of the petty tyranny of Berlin:

Letters directed in English or in French reach their destination at once; but if the address contains a single word in Polish,—*e.g.*, Poznan for Posen,—almost a week's delay must ensue; it has to be translated. Certificates of baptism are refused unless the child's name is given in German. A man who cries out in a tavern "Poland forever!" is fined for "grossly indecent behavior."

POLITICAL PARTIES IN POLAND.

Poland cares nothing for these things. In Galicia, Austrian Poland, the new generation of nobles and people is national to the backbone. Poland's unity is proved by the fact that in all three divisions there are the same parties. The Conservatives ask for a minimum of freedom, in return for which they promise loyalty to their foreign rulers. The National Democrats also demand a minimum, but they "will be loyal only in so far as it serves the interests of Poland," and they refuse absolutely to surrender the hope of final independence. This party is accused of being unduly national, and of refusing to coöperate with the other races of Slavs which demand liberty. The latest Polish party is that of Dr. Lutoslawski, an interview with whom appeared in the November number of this REVIEW. The party of the Philaretes was founded and is led by the gifted though eccentric Dr. Lutoslawski, known in the philosophical world by his numerous works, written in many languages, including English, as a Platonist of a special type.

The essential character of Polish society is, according to him, free union and harmonious coöperation through mutual love. With hatred he would have nothing to do; he would conquer both Germans and Russians by winning their love toward the Poles, their superiors in virtue. His Philaretes form, though not in the usual sense, a secret society—a sort of Polish religion within the Catholic pale. Men and women, calling themselves "Brothers and Sisters," after a public confession of all their lives, must swear to give up gambling, drinking, smoking, and all immorality. It is only thus, he says, that Poland can be regenerated; but the virtues which he teaches will make her so great that her foes of the present hour will fall at her feet; without striking a blow, she will regain the independence due to a people of saints. Much in his teaching smacks of the Messianic doctrine of Towianski, who exerted so great an influence over Mickiewicz in his later years. Lutoslawski's adherents are mostly young students of an extraordinary turn of mind, as may well be supposed. As to their number, it cannot be computed, on account of the reticence observed; but there are certainly many more than those who openly profess that they belong to the party. Many branches of it are supposed to exist both in Russian and in Prussian Poland. He affirms,—the present writer has heard him,—that he gets his thoughts and inspirations directly from God. His followers, as a consequence, believe in him blindly; as a consequence, too, other persons think him a heretic or a madman. But he, too, strange as are the means which he advocates, has for his aim and end the independence of Poland. On that point all parties are agreed.

THE SOCIALISTIC MOVEMENT IN RUSSIA.

A DRAMATIC incident occurred at the last International Socialistic Congress, at Amsterdam. When war was discussed, Plekhanov, the Russian Social Democrat, exchanged warm salute with Katayama, the representative of the Japanese proletariat, amid the great applause of the congress. Writing in the *Revue Bleue*, Paul Louis declares that this was an indication of the breadth and progress of Russian socialism. It was a Russian Socialist leader of the revolutionary terrorists, Rubanovitch, who was at the head of the general political committee of the congress. It is extremely difficult for Western peoples, says M. Louis, to understand contemporary Russia and what is going on in the minds of the Russian people. "It would seem that a thick wall, or an impenetrable curtain, separates the rest of the world from the one hundred and thirty millions of Muscovites." All we know is when some group of discontents become violent, when some high functionary like a von Plehve or an Alexander II. is assassinated. We now know, however, from the reverses and catastrophes in Manchuria and Korea, that the Muscovite bureaucracy is not equal to its task, and that "the civil and military administration behind a brilliant front conceals mortal wounds."

A new spirit is arising in Russia, says this writer. Socialism is a very new phenomenon in the land of the Czar. Up to twenty years



PRINCE PETER KROPOTKIN.
(Russian geographer, author, social reformer.)

ago, socialism did not exist, because there was no industrial life. Beginning with the intellectuals who studied Fourier, Saint-Simon, Hegel, Marx, Proudhon, and others, Russian socialism soon developed a Kropotkin and a Bakounin. From 1878 to 1882, Russian socialism adopted the terrorist method. General Trépof, Prince Kropotkin, and finally the Czar Alexander himself, were the victims. This terrorism brought about the extreme reactionary reign of the Czar Alexander III., with the brutal oppressions of Aksakof, Katkof, and Pobiedonostseff.

THE BEGINNINGS OF INDUSTRIALISM.

The proletarian socialism of Russia, like that of all other countries, began with the beginnings of industrialism. In the early eighties, manufacturing began to assume significant proportions in the empire, first in Poland. Mining and textile manufactures were soon prospering in Warsaw, St. Petersburg, Moscow, and Nijni Novgorod. The cotton-manufacturing city of Lódz, the Polish Manchester, grew in thirty years from a town of ten thousand to one of half a million inhabitants. Soon European and American competition began to be felt, and before long two million Russian workmen who had been brought up on the soil found themselves crowded in factories, with no fitness for their task or the conditions under which it must be performed.

Socialistic propaganda soon began to penetrate into every section of the empire. Literature from Paris, London, Geneva, and Rome aroused the people, and to-day there is an exceedingly strong Russian socialistic sentiment. There is, strange as it may seem, a socialistic party in Russia, which, although it publishes no statistics, of its members or its budget, has already held two congresses. It demands the establishment of a democratic republic, the election of a popular assembly, administrative decentralization, a large autonomy for the communes, the proclamation of liberty of conscience, of the press, and of popular meetings, liberty also to strike, equality for all citizens, the election of judges, compulsory education, the establishment of direct and progressive taxation, an eight-hour day, and old-age insurance. By 1890, these Social Democrats had nine important groups in as many sections of the empire, including the capital, Moscow, Kiev, Odessa, and Kharkov. The revolutionary Socialistic party, which was represented at the International Congress, at Paris, in 1900, is a union of Russian revolutionary Socialists of the agrarian league of the old Social Democratic party of Kiev and other organizations. It held its first congress in 1898.

THE POWERFUL PRO-SEMITIC BUND.

The third section of Russian socialism is the Bund, which represents especially the Jewish proletariat, so numerous and miserable in Lithuania and Poland and all southern Russia. This is the only section which gives official figures of its adherents. It numbers 32,000, with an income of about $25,000 annually. It is strongly organized in such centers as Vilna, Grodno, Minsk, Warsaw, Lódz, and Riga, particularly to resist the anti-Semitic agitation and to cooperate with Catholic and Orthodox workmen for the common good. It maintains an incessant propaganda in the name and principles of Marxism. Its hand is seen in every strike, in every public manifestation. It sent out more than one hundred thousand appeals in two years for the celebration of the 1st of May as International Socialist Day. It has held five congresses, contributed to the propaganda against war, suffered four thousand arrests in fifteen months, and established a number of underground printing offices. It publishes two journals in Hebrew, and four other in Russian and Polish. All these socialistic organizations, numbering from eighty to one hundred thousand adherents, are flourishing, although all workmen societies are severely punished by the law in Russia.

A TRIBUTE TO SIR WILLIAM HARCOURT.

THE *Contemporary Review* opens with an appreciation of the late Sir William Harcourt from the pen of Mr. Herbert Paul. In the course of his characterization of the great Liberal chieftain, Mr. Paul says :

There was nothing small about him. Mentally and morally, as well as physically, he was built upon a large scale. A good big party fight he loved as he loved few other things on earth. Small personal issues did not interest or attract him. If he had been told anything to the discredit of a political opponent, he would have put it down to the discredit of the informer. The people he offended were the people who did not know him, and took him, as the French say, at the foot of the letter. Those who did know him even slightly were assured that he was not only devoid of malice, but incapable of deliberately inflicting pain.

AN ARISTOCRAT.

Sir William never forgot that he was an aristocrat, and "practised the old-fashioned vice of family pride." But he despised the rush for social distinction. He made great pecuniary sacrifices for the sake of politics.

With all his failings, and few men were more human, Sir William Harcourt was essentially a statesman. He was never so far absorbed in one subject that he could not see its bearing upon the interests of the British Empire as a whole. He was not a Little Irelander, or a Little South African. He looked at the South African problem and the Irish problem as parts of one great question which British statesmanship had to work out. With him, it was not "Will Ulster fight?" and "Will Ulster be right?" but "What is England's duty to Ireland?" "Why is Ireland the one discontented country in the dominions of the British crown?" It was not "Have the mine-owners of the Transvaal a grievance against President Krüger?" It was, "What should be the conduct of Great Britain in dealing with small independent states to which British subjects resort for purposes of gain?" . . . An aristocrat by temperament, he had the democratic fiber which contact with great masses of men strengthens in every robust mind. Democratic in one sense he was not. No home secretary was ever firmer in maintaining law. For this purpose, he did not shrink in the days of the dynamite scare from opening letters at the post-office, and coercion for Ireland had no stronger advocate until he was convinced that it had failed. But his finance was democratic, and it was the economic and constitutional side of politics for which he chiefly cared. Peace, economy, free trade, and the maintenance of the Protestant religion were the pillars of his political church. He would have agreed with Gambetta that priestcraft was the enemy, and against clerical pretensions he was always ready to lift up his voice or take up his pen. If he was not a great imperialist, he was a great Englishman. His foibles, as well as his virtues, were insular. He did not care about anything that could not be expressed in plain English. His invective was like the blows of a sledge-hammer.

THE EVOLUTION OF ZIONISM.

IN a study under this title, in the *Revue Bleue*, a Hebrew writer, Nahum Slousch, traces the development of the Zionistic idea, which, he says, "has survived eighteen centuries of persecution, of continual wanderings, of massacres and horrible humiliations, of a deep-rooted faith in the always imminent realization of an ideal Messiah, of an absolutely sure return to a Jewish fatherland." The Oriental Hebrew, says Mr. Slousch, has always been a dreamer, and there have been a few, and only a few, Jewish dreamers in the Occident. The chief among these were Salvador, in France ; Hesse, in Germany ; Luzzato, in Italy, and Disraeli, in England. The modern Jew, emancipated and assimilated, has renounced his historic ideal ; . . . liberty is his Messiah, the rights of man his ideal, and science his faith. Nevertheless, he continues, it is impossible, in considering the future of Judaism, to ignore the great masses of Oriental Judaism, that population of eight millions in Slavonic and Oriental countries, "united in firm bonds by a life of persecutions, of misery, of common belief and common hope."

The Zionistic idea, says this writer, long before it had a political significance, floated in the very air of Judaism all over the world. The societies of philo-Zionists sprang up, but it was not until 1884 that the Kadimah, the Zionist academic corporation, was founded in Vienna by Birnbaum, who, a little later, published in German a journal of propaganda, entitled *Autoemancipation*, in which the term "Zionism" was applied for the first time to the then embryo movement. A group of students in Berlin published the *Revue Zion*, while another group collected at Paris and published the *Kadimah* in the French language. In the meanwhile, the campaign of anti-Semitism was begun in Austria, and just at this moment, a psychological moment, a man appeared—"a modern man, with but little in common with the great masses of Jews, a stranger to their misery, a stranger to their aspirations." Dr. Theodor Herzl came to the movement because of his humanitarian feeling, and because of his horror and fear of an anti-Semitic campaign. Dr. Herzl's career was outlined in the article by Mr. Rosenthal which ap-

peared in the REVIEW OF REVIEWS for August last. The writer of this article traces the progress of the Zionistic movement as shown in the different congresses, the first of which was held in August, 1897, at Basle. The other conventions were held as follows: the third, at Basle, in 1899; the fourth, at London, in 1900; the fifth, at Basle, in 1901; the sixth, at Basle, in 1903. The proposition which came up and was discussed at the last congress to transfer the Jewish state from Palestine to some English possession in Africa, perhaps Uganda, encountered the warmest opposition, and this writer does not believe that such a proposition could secure the approval of any sufficient number of Jewish people to make it practicable. The Turkish Government will probably never consent to the alienation of any portion of Palestine.

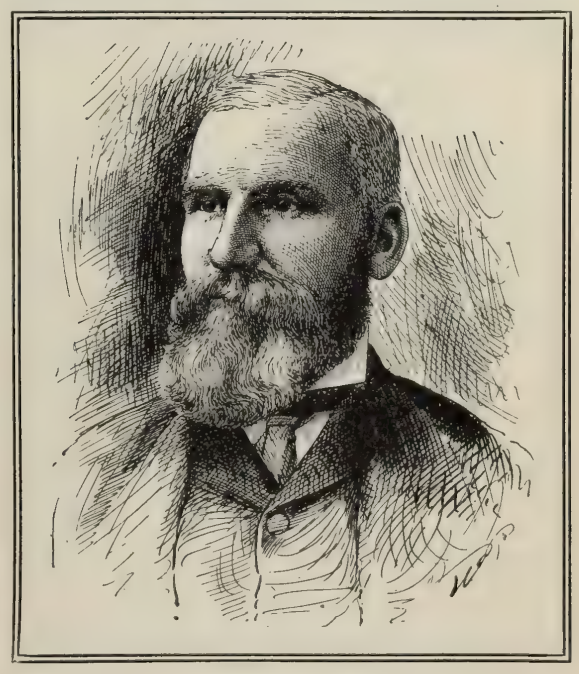
THE GOVERNMENT TELEGRAPH IN AUSTRALIA.

IN all that has been written about innovations in Australian political and social institutions, comparatively little has been said in this country regarding the Australian telegraph system, which is owned by the people and managed as a part of the postal system of the country. Some attention was attracted to this branch of the government service at the time of the inauguration of the Australian Commonwealth. When the federal constitution was framed, it was agreed as a matter of course that the telegraph lines, which had formerly belonged to the colonies, now the states of the federation, should go to the Commonwealth instead of remaining the property of the states. The new postal act adopted at that time was intended to establish uniform rates throughout the Commonwealth, and, in general, to unify the administration of the system. Consequently, the whole question of cost, management, and charges was thoroughly debated in the Australian Parliament before the measure became a law. The facts brought out in that debate form the basis of an interesting article contributed to the *North American Review* for November by the Hon. Hugh H. Lusk.

The telegraph lines now owned and operated by the federal government for the people of Australia have a length of fully forty-eight thousand miles, while the length of the wires is considerably more than one hundred thousand miles,—actually a greater mileage than that of any European country, with the exception of Russia, Germany, and France. In proportion to the number of inhabitants, it is probably nearly six times as great as that of any other country in the world, with the single exception of its near neighbor, New Zealand. There are upward of three thousand telegraph stations kept open for the convenience of a population which does not exceed four millions; and the revenue derived from messages is shown to be sufficient to defray the cost of operating and maintaining the lines, as well as defraying the interest charges on the cost of construction at the annual rate of 3 per cent.

CHEAPNESS OF THE SERVICE.

Now let us examine the rates which are enforced under the terms of the act, and which apparently suffice to maintain the great system at its full efficiency. For town and suburban messages,—suburban meaning a practical radius of ten miles beyond the city limits,—the rate fixed is twelve cents for a message not exceeding sixteen words, which includes the address and the signature. For messages to any point within the same state from which they are sent, the charge is fixed at eighteen cents for the same number of words. For messages to any other state within



HON. SIDNEY SMITH.

(Postmaster-general of the Australian Commonwealth and head of the government telegraph system.)

the Commonwealth, the charge for a message of similar length is twenty-four cents. In all cases, the charge for extra words beyond the sixteen is the uniform rate of two cents a word. Delivery is made within the radius of one mile from the receiving office, and for this there is no extra charge. These rates, Mr. Lusk asserts, are lower for the service rendered and the distance traversed than the existing rates in any other country except New Zealand; but they are fully justified by the experience of the three principal states of the Commonwealth—New South Wales, Victoria, and Queensland. Comparing these rates with those maintained in the United States, it should be remembered that Australia as a whole is a country of the same area as the United States, and that the distances actually traversed are very much greater than those between points of telegraphic communication in America. Mr. Lusk, therefore, seems to be justified in his statement that the charge of twenty-four cents for a sixteen-word message in Australia is much less than one-half of what is charged in America. Again, considering the great area of the five states occupying the mainland, three of which are together more than two and one-half times as large as Texas, and a fourth four-fifths of the size of Texas, we see that the state rate of eighteen cents for a sixteen-word message is equally cheap as compared with American rates, while, as Mr. Lusk asserts, the city and suburban rate of twelve cents has no parallel in American experience.

ECONOMY OF ADMINISTRATION.

In reply to the question, "How is it done?" the postmaster-general of the Commonwealth, in the course of the parliamentary debate, stated that the cheapness of the system was due to its public ownership and to the economies naturally attending the system. In the matter of cost of construction, it will be generally admitted that the credit of a whole people is better than the credit of any part of it, and that, therefore, loans required by nations with a stable government and a reasonable character for honesty can be obtained on more favorable terms than loans on private credit. Thus, the eighteen million dollars of borrowed money spent by the officers of the colonial governments of Australia on the construction of telegraph lines costs to-day, in interest, only a small fraction beyond 3 per cent. Furthermore, even if it be admitted that the actual cost of producing the necessary supply of electricity would be as little in private hands as it could be made in a government department, it is still claimed in Australia that the working expenses of the service, including salaries and office expenses, are much less under public ownership. This is because the telegraph and telephone service in Australia are both incorporated with the post-office, and require few, if any, separate offices. Nearly every one of the three thousand telegraph stations in the country is in the district post-office. In the United States, there is a post-office for every thousand persons, but a telegraph station for every three thousand, while in the newer, poorer, and far less thickly settled country of Australia, there are fully six thousand post-offices to meet the requirements of four millions of people, or one to every six hundred and sixty-six people; and more than three thousand of these are also telegraph stations, being one to about thirteen hundred persons.

THE TELEGRAPH USED BY THE PEOPLE.

But Mr. Lusk shows that this economy of management is not the only reason why the Australian telegraph has succeeded. He shows that it is appreciated and made use of by the people at large to an extent that is unknown where charges are higher and conveniences are less. Among the European nations, Great Britain, having a concentrated population within a small area, makes most use of the telegraph,—two messages a year for every inhabitant. In the United States, where the population is more scattered and more difficult to reach, the people send about one message a year for every inhabitant. In Australia, where the population is more widely scattered than in America, two and one-half messages a year pass over the telegraph wires for every inhabitant. New Zealand, however, has outdone her larger neighbor. There, the government supplies a post-office for every five hundred people and a telegraph station for every eight hundred, and with somewhat lower rates than in Australia. The people send four telegrams a year for each inhabitant, and the revenue from the telegraph is said to be even more satisfactory than in Australia.

The postmaster-general sums up the advantages of the government system of telegraphs in the assertion that the system does for the people of Australia precisely what the great trusts are doing in various industrial lines. By operating on a great scale, it is saving on the cost of working, and is thus able to give the public a better article at a lower price. Thus, the public is induced to use the convenience afforded on a scale so large as to make it pay. In a new country, of wide extent and thinly populated, like Australia, the facilities for speedy and reliable communication could not be supplied except at enormous cost, and the government seems to be the only agency prepared to undertake this function.

GLASGOW'S MUNICIPAL STREET CARS.

THE pioneer experiment in municipal ownership of street-car service in Great Britain, which was entered upon some ten years ago by the city of Glasgow, has attracted the attention of economists the world over. It is true that three municipalities in Great Britain operated their own tramways before Glasgow did, but in each case the reason was that no private company could be got to do the work. Glasgow, on the other hand, took over the tramways because the people of the city were not satisfied with the methods of the operating companies and were determined to take the management into their own hands. In an article which he contributes to the November *Arena*, Prof. Frank Parsons shows that one by one the cities and towns of the United Kingdom have followed the Glasgow lead until about fifty municipalities in England and Scotland are already operating their tram lines, while Belfast, in Ireland, has within the past month decided to purchase the tramways in the city from the company which owns and operates the lines. The last large English city to undertake the municipalization of the trams was Birmingham. Professor Parsons further shows that the average fare in Glasgow now is less than two cents per passenger, and that 30 per cent. of the passengers ride on the one-cent fare, the lowest transportation rates in the United Kingdom, or possibly in the world. In spite of these small fares, Glasgow has already paid off about a quarter of the capital cost of the railways. In thirty years, it is estimated that the capital will be cleared away, the tramways will be freed of debt, and the fares can be reduced to operating cost plus depreciation. The city has its own car shops, and all but eighty of the six hundred and eighty-two cars in stock were built and equipped in these shops, which are provided with the most up-to-date machine tools.

NO ADVERTISING SIGNS.

A question that is now very much to the front in connection with the new subway in New York,—that of advertising signs,—is touched on in the course of Mr. Parsons' account of the Glasgow experiment. In Glasgow, when the city took the tramways, it was found that some fifty thousand dollars a year could be realized by the city if it would sell advertising space in the street cars. Notwithstanding this fact, all the advertisements were at once abolished. Professor Parsons asked the general manager why this had been done, and the reply was that it was for æsthetic reasons. This answer greatly delighted Professor Parsons. "Think of a question of putting beautiful cars and the effect upon the artistic development of the people above a matter of fifty thousand dollars a year to be had at the stroke of the pen!"

HOW MUNICIPALIZATION CAME ABOUT.

Professor Parsons gives a brief outline of the movement for municipal ownership in Glasgow which is interesting in the light of the experiences of some of our American cities. It appears that the city built her own tramways, the first lines having been constructed in 1871. These, and extensions made subsequently, were



DOUBLE-DECKED TROLLEY CAR OF THE GLASGOW MUNICIPAL SYSTEM.

leased to the operating company on a lease conditional to expire June 30, 1894. Some time before the expiration of the lease, the conduct of the service by the company had become very unsatisfactory to the general body of the citizens. The company still relied entirely upon horse traction. Their cars were old, and many of them were in a dilapidated condition. The drivers and conductors were poorly paid and had to work long hours. As they were not supplied with uniforms, and were frequently very poorly clad, their appearance on the cars was not a credit to the city. One of the conditions insisted upon by the city for its consent to the renewal of the lease was that the conditions of labor be improved, that uniforms should be furnished by the company, and especially that the men should not be worked more than sixty hours per week. The company refused to agree to these conditions, declaring that the system could not be successfully operated under them.

The question of municipalization was then

brought before the people in the form of a test question at the municipal elections of 1890 and 1891. The result was that on November 12, 1891, the city decided to work the tramways as a municipal department. Although the city was compelled to secure horses, cars, and entirely new office equipment for the tram lines, because the operating company put in a service of omnibuses, and negotiations for the sale of the old equipment had been broken off, the citizens preferred the cars after the city began to run them, and the attempted opposition of the old company resulted in a heavy loss.

IMPROVEMENT OF LABOR CONDITIONS.

As soon as the management was taken over by the city, the hours of labor were shortened from eleven and twelve hours to ten, and later the working hours were reduced to nine hours a day and fifty-four per week, while the wages of the men were raised considerably above the wages paid by the private companies. The average increase was 16 per cent., and a considerable number of the men received an advance of 25 per cent. The selection of the employees was entirely in the hands of the general manager, who was responsible to the city for the conduct of the department. The city simply fixes the wages and the general conditions of the service, and leaves the engagement and dismissal of the staff to the general manager.

ADVANTAGES OF PUBLIC OWNERSHIP AND CONTROL.

In concluding his account of Glasgow's great experiment, Professor Parsons admits that certain of our American cities have better service under the system of corporation control than Glasgow has under municipal ownership. But this, he says, should not blind us to the fact that our cities have something to learn from Glasgow. He does not argue that because Glasgow has two-cent fares, therefore our railways can be operated profitably with such rates. Street-railway wages are higher here than in any city in Europe, and our cities are not so compact as Glasgow. He declares that public ownership would have an effect in our cities similar in kind to the effect it has had in Glasgow. If the change to public ownership in Glasgow brought lower fares and better service than existed under private ownership in Glasgow, is it not fair to believe that the change to public ownership here would give us lower fares and better service than we now have? The service, Professor Parsons admits, is not so good in some respects in Glasgow as in Boston, but it is the best, on the whole, to be found in Great Britain, and is far better than the service given by the private corporations in Great Britain or in any other country in the United Kingdom. Public ownership of the street-car lines, as Professor Parsons views it, would bring about lower fares, higher wages, shorter hours, better service, and larger traffic. Furthermore, all the profits and benefits of the railway system will go to the public instead of to a few individuals. Private enterprise seeks to get as much and give as little as possible, while public enterprise aims to give as much and make as little as possible. This, at least, seems to be Glasgow's experience.

THE SWEDISH SOUTH POLAR EXPEDITION.

DR. OTTO NORDENSKJÖLD, the director of the Swedish South Polar expedition, describes, in the *Deutsche Revue*, some of his experiences in the antarctic region. This was one of the three expeditions sent in friendly rivalry from Europe, in the year 1901, to explore that region. The work was so divided among the three that each one had the task of investigating the roads leading south from one of the three great oceans. Dr. Nordenskjöld was sent with the ship *Antarctic* to the countries south of South America and the Atlantic Ocean. He proceeded with this ship nearly to the Polar Circle, but finding no suitable place for wintering, he turned north again, making his headquarters on Snow Hill Island, 64½° southern latitude, in company with three scientists and two sailors. He says:

We built our house and observatory at the place where we had landed, and for twenty months we made our observations here,—generally every hour, day and night,—on the phenomena surrounding us. The notes we took were most interesting. The winter climate is exceedingly stormy and intensely cold, hardly a comfortable one for human habitation, but yielding important discoveries scientifically. This entire region is rich in petrified forms. We found strata with numerous impressions of leaves, showing that even the most desolate spots of the earth were covered with luxuriant forests as late as the tertiary period. There are traces of all the higher animals of that period. Giant penguins were living on the shore, and I found some bones of a still larger animal.

During this time, the *Antarctic*, with the remainder of the staff and the crew, was exploring the region between South America and South Georgia. Dr. Nordenskjöld never saw her again, for she was wrecked in the ice the following

winter, and the twenty men, abandoning her, had to proceed to Snow Hill station over the ice, by sleds. The whole party was finally rescued by an Argentinian vessel, on November 8, 1902.

Dr. Nordenskjöld sums up the results of the expedition in the following paragraph :

The boundary of the antarctic zone has been reached in several new places, and it now appears more clearly through the mists of imagination. It can hardly be doubted that by far the largest portion of this region is covered with ice and snow, and we have now some idea of the nature of this ice, which was formerly known only by the curious icebergs drifting away from it. These are entirely different in form from the arctic icebergs. Wherever the climate of this region has been studied, it is noted for its cold and exceedingly stormy winters and its relatively still colder summers, being in this respect altogether dissimilar from that of the arctic zone. It is interesting to note that the territory assigned to our expedition is the coldest of all relative to its location. It appears to us, contrary to the general assumption, that there is a cold zone south of the Atlantic Ocean. The climate is so rough here that hardly any plant or animal life is found on the land, while the animal world living in the sea or finding its food there is all the more varied. It will be exceedingly interesting to study this animal world in the collections brought home, which will doubtless throw new light on many questions relating to the distribution of living creatures on the surface of the earth. For conditions were not always the same as now. At one time, the climate here was warm, and large tracts of land were covered with forests, in which a varied animal world was doubtless living. It has been assumed for a long time that the South Polar continent played a *rôle* in the distribution of living creatures on the southern hemisphere, and that here many types of plants and animals perhaps passed through the first stages of their development. Now we are beginning to get material for the study of these questions.



DR. OTTO NORDENSKJÖLD.

(Who has recently returned from perhaps the most successful antarctic exploration expedition ever conducted.)

THE ARGENTINE GAUCHO AND HIS WAYS.

A TRAVELER'S description of the strange hybrid race of southern and central South America known as the Gaucho is given by John D. Leckie in the *Canadian Magazine*. The Gaucho, says this writer, may be of any race or color from pure Indian to pure white, but he generally possesses a strain of both white and Indian blood. In his character, he partakes more of his Indian than of his white ancestry, perhaps because, in the majority of cases, the Indian is his maternal side, and those aboriginal traits which are not inherited are instilled into him from the earliest age by maternal tuition. Certainly, if you scratch the Gaucho you will find the aboriginal Indian. Mr. Leckie declares that the nearest approach to the Gaucho type to be found in Europe is that of the wandering gypsies.

There are many unfavorable points in the Gaucho character, but this writer asserts that he has some few good ones.

Like the Arab of the desert, the Gaucho is characterized by his innate courtesy, hospitality, and fidelity to his master or leader. This is a trait which seems characteristic of all peoples who live in a semi-feudal state, and was very noticeable as late as last century among our own Highlanders, though in this age of manhood suffrage, trade-unions, and strikes the bonds of sympathy which formerly attached master and servant have been in a great measure loosened.

The Gaucho is a great horseman. He almost lives in the saddle ; his horse is his most treasured possession, and even the poorest of them has one, and often two or three.

There is no moral or physical excellence, in their eyes, equal to that of being a first-rate horseman, and no man could aspire to be a leader of the Gauchos who was not an unexceptionally skilled equestrian. . . . To ride an unbroken and half-wild horse is looked upon as a very ordinary feat. He will not only jump off a horse at full gallop, but will consider himself unskillful if he does not alight on his feet without falling,—a feat which may seem impossible to an English horseman. I certainly have never heard of a Gaucho having

been killed by a fall from his horse, an accident not unfrequent among foreigners.

NOT A HIGH MORAL CHARACTER.

The Gaucho sets a very low value on human life, and with him homicides are of frequent occurrence, most of these arising out of personal quarrels. All the Argentine and Paraguayan Gauchos are of this unsavory kind. The Correntinos (natives of the province of Corrientes) enjoy an unenviable reputation for bloodthirstiness, nor is this reputation by any means undeserved, "as I can attest by personal experience."



THE ARGENTINE GAUCHO.
(With his useful garment, the poncho.)

It has been my lot to live for some months among the Correntinos, and people of a lower grade of moral character I have never met anywhere, although I have traveled considerably,—nor are their numerous defects relieved by a single good point I can think of. The Argentine army is largely composed of Correntinos, and they make good soldiers.

The Gaucho attire is rather picturesque. The typical Gaucho has a nether garment known as a "bombacha," wide and baggy, like that worn by a French Zouave, or the divided skirts sometimes worn by lady cyclists.

But his most essential garment is the "poncho," which is generally of wool if the wearer can afford it, though the poorer classes have to content themselves with cotton. The poncho resembles a blanket with a hole in the middle, through which the wearer thrusts his head, and is used as an overcoat by day and a blanket by night. It is a most convenient garment for a traveler, and can be adjusted to suit any change of weather. Thus, in cold or wet weather, it is worn so as to envelop the entire body; if the temperature becomes somewhat milder, it is thrown over the shoulder and around the neck, somewhat after the manner of a Scotch plaid; and if the thermometer mounts still higher, it is the work of a moment to throw it off altogether. The poncho, indeed, is an economizer of time, money, and labor.

The Gaucho is gradually disappearing, and before another two generations, Mr. Leckie believes, he will be as extinct as the buffalo.

HOUSING AND ARCHITECTURE IN BUENOS AYRES.

THE development of architecture in South American countries has been along lines which are new and (in the Argentine) which furnish excellent examples of what a strong cosmopolitan architecture can be. In Buenos Ayres, says the Spanish illustrated monthly *Hojas Selectas* (Barcelona), architecture has had a very vast field in which to develop at its pleasure and to demonstrate that "architectural beauty does not consist in the capricious combination of decorative elements arbitrarily taken from anywhere, but is the result of originality in conception, novelty in form, ability in the arrangement and use of materials, and successful harmonizing of the architectural plan with the utilitarian and social object which a building is to serve."

The writer of this article mentions the most distinctive of the public buildings in the Argentine capital. These are the "Cathedral, majestic but simple in construction, the style of which imitates that of the Parthenon at Athens; the Governmental Palace, of handsome proportions; the Opera House, severe in style; the Mortgage Bank, the Bank of the Provinces, and, lastly, the Girls' Graduate School, crowned with a graceful cupola which gives it the aspect of a cathedral." The native architects of Buenos Ayres, and those who when they emigrated to the city knew how to adapt themselves to Spanish-American local conditions, have given proof that they understand the true conception of architecture, continues the article in the *Hojas Selectas*. "As an inevitable result of ethnological conditions, each country has a style of architecture peculiar to itself, which, without rising to the heights of absolute originality, reflects, nevertheless, the character, customs, and nature of the inhabitants."

It is not strange, therefore, that in South America, and especially in the most populous city of the South American countries, vigorous traces of European influence may be noticed in the architecture, although they are modified by adaptation to local conditions. Thus, in the buildings of Buenos Ayres, neither French taste, nor Spanish, nor German, nor Italian predominates, but a complex taste which owes something to all of these. This is due to the cosmopolitan character of what was originally a viceregal village and is to-day the rich Argentine metropolis, which pours the activity of thousands of inhabitants through its

wide and splendid streets, lined with palaces, and which opens to all the currents of civilization the great river, formerly marshy and inaccessible to the most fragile vessels, by the bank of which there has arisen as if by magic a magnificent harbor filled with masts and smokestacks.

The competitive prize which the municipal council of Buenos Ayres, following the example of Antwerp, Berlin, and Barcelona, grants to the best building among all those erected each year will certainly encourage the tendency to establish good architectural taste. But the municipality of Buenos Ayres has not been content to stimulate architecture in the city solely along imposing and ornamental lines represented by the public buildings and the residences of magnates. It has also not forgotten those citizens who are humble in position or disinherited by fortune. On the 6th of last July, Representative Ignacio D. Irigoyen introduced a projected law for the building of houses for workingmen in the capital of the Argentine Republic. According to this project, the municipal council of Buenos Ayres is to be empowered to issue certificates of municipal debt to the amount of $20,000,000, at 6 per cent., in four series of five millions each, placed on the market at intervals of three months, the amount to be used in erecting homes.

The houses will consist of three or four rooms, and will have separate entrances. The proceeds of the subscription will be applied to the purchase of land and to the erection of the buildings in groups. When such a group of houses is built, it will be placed under the administration of a board of directors appointed by the municipal council, which will give the working classes the opportunity of owning said houses by a system of monthly payments until the cost of construction is defrayed, the making of profit not being contemplated. The houses are not to be sublet in whole or in part, but are to be used exclusively by the workingman and his family. When any householder owes six monthly payments, he will lose all rights acquired, unless he guarantees to pay up before a year has elapsed. Ordinary repairs will be made by the directors; those not coming under the head of ordinary preservation and maintenance will be made by the householder.



TYPICAL PRIVATE HOUSE IN THE WEALTHY RESIDENCE QUARTER OF BUENOS AYRES.

The city of Buenos Ayres recognizes the fact that the home is, so to speak, "the mark of city growth, and that not only its external but its internal aspect is to be considered. In future, therefore, it will not allow the construction of new houses that do not provide for the entire separation from one another of the families that reside in them."

MR. BOUGHTON AND HIS DUTCH PICTURES.

THE work of Mr. George Henry Boughton, the English artist, is familiarly known in the United States, where the painter's youth was passed, and where several of his most famous paintings are now owned. In the extra Christmas number of the *Art Journal*, which is devoted to Mr. Boughton's achievements, Mr. A. L. Baldry places great emphasis on the Dutch inspiration under which the artist has done his work. (It will be remembered that Mr. Boughton's boyhood was passed in the Dutch-founded city of Albany, N. Y.)

No one shows better what a spell Holland can throw over the painter who is responsive to the strange charm of the country and loves its curious and unusual beauties. Mr. Boughton's wanderings in the Low Countries have not been those of the ordinary tourist; he has not gone there to see the sights, or to plod systematically round in the beaten track. Instead, he has betaken himself to those forgotten corners where the bustle of modern life is unknown and the calm of past centuries broods over people and things. It is in the out-of-the-way places that he has sought his inspiration, and what he has found there he has turned to delightful account.

It is possible that his love of Holland is connected to some extent with his study of American history, and that sentiment has had almost as much to do with it as his enjoyment of the rare picturesqueness of the places he has visited during his Dutch excursions. A man as well acquainted as he is with the New England

traditions would naturally have a special interest in a country from which came so considerable a proportion of the founders of the United States.

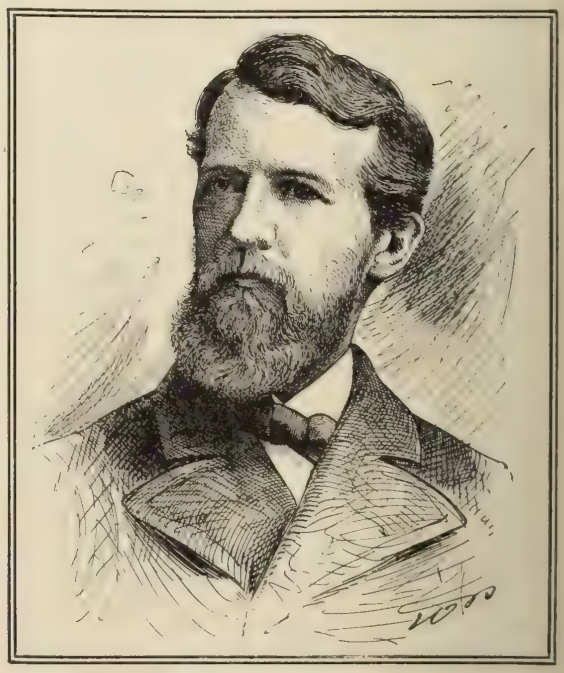
Whatever may have been the cause of his interest in Holland, there is no question about the importance of the influence that it has had upon his artistic career. It has led him to produce a long series of pictures which are not only admirable in their display of his particular gifts, but are also most acceptable additions to the sum total of really memorable modern art.

The "dead cities" of the Zuyder Zee have provided him with some of the happiest of his subjects, for in them the Holland of other days can be seen almost unchanged. Such pictures as "Weeders of the Pavement," "A Dutch Ferry," and "An Exchange of Compliments" show him at the highest level of his accomplishment and with all the qualities of his art under perfect control. They have the fullest measure of his gentle sobriety of manner, and yet they are amply vigorous and firm in execution.

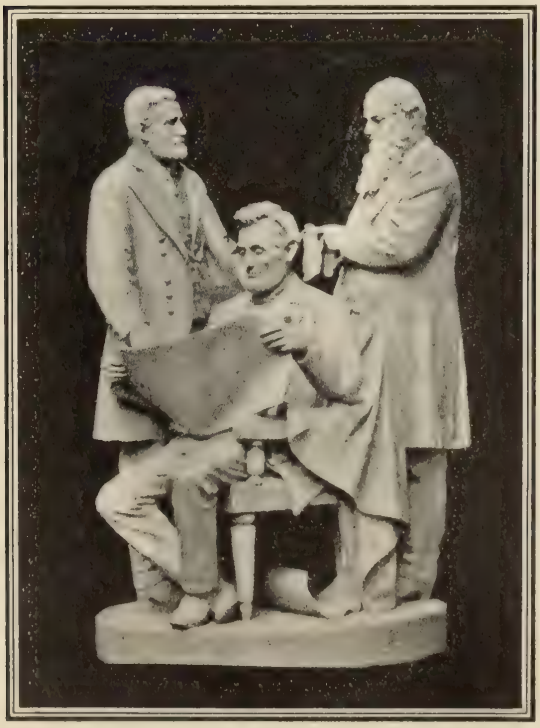
JOHN ROGERS: SCULPTOR OF AMERICAN DEMOCRACY.

AN era in American sculpture is marked by the career of the late John Rogers, designer of the famous "groups" which bear his name, and which were known, a few years ago, from one end of the country to the other. Writing in the *Architectural Record* for November, Mr. Charles H. Israels makes the assertion that the popular enthusiasm roused by this sculptor has not been equaled by a single one of the hundreds of more talented and virile American artists who have succeeded him.

This enthusiasm may not have been based upon any sound æsthetic principles; but it needs no apology. His homely works, given to the public at a time when an appeal to national sentiment found prompt response, went straight to the heart of the American people. They did not require the explanation of guide-books or critics to be understood. They did not hark back to the classics. Their subjects were to be found in the daily life of the average man, and notwithstanding their many shortcomings in technique, artistic conception, and methods of treatment, they stood out boldly as the first popular appeal that sculpture had made to the American people.



THE LATE JOHN ROGERS.



"THE COUNCIL OF WAR."

(One of the most famous of Rogers' groups.)

Rogers began to practise modeling about fifty years ago, when the tendencies in American sculpture were all ultra-classic,—when Washington had to be dressed as a Roman Senator and Chief Justice Marshall arrayed in a toga. But neither in America nor in the galleries of Europe, where he passed a year in preparation for his life-work, was Rogers influenced in the slightest degree by these classic tendencies. In-

deed, all his work was a protest against that school of art. In the early days of the Civil War, he produced "The Slave Auction," and this was followed by "The Council of War," "News from the Front," "The Returned Volunteer," and other works suggested by the war. In later years, domestic themes were treated in many of the "groups."

In concluding his estimate of this representative sculptor of our democracy, Mr. Israels says:

During his later years, John Rogers was but a name to the American people. He had no permanent place in the newer American art. When he died, on the 27th of last July, his death hardly caused a ripple, but he served his day and generation well. It is unfortunately the custom of the American sculptor of to-day to forget John Rogers when he names the list of men who have given life to plastic art in the United States, and who have made possible the sculptural decorations of St. Louis and Chicago. But notwithstanding this lack of appreciation on the part of his successors, Rogers' name is firmly fixed in his nation's history. He was the first American to show his countrymen that sculpture was a living art; that it could properly express the things that are as well as the things that were; that a subject was not too humble to be treated by the artist because it entered into the daily life of his own people. Rogers plainly blazed the way for stronger, better-trained, but less original men, and with it all he had no mean share in feeding the fires of patriotism through the four long years of civil war.

His recognition was instantaneous. Rogers was the people's sculptor. He told the story of his time in clay just as sincerely as the men of Barbizon told theirs in color. His public was crude and his efforts are not to be compared with theirs, but within his limitations he served his purpose with as much sincerity and with equal effect. Our national art and our national sentiment both owe a debt to John Rogers.

THE OLDEST STATUE IN THE WORLD.



THE STATUE OF KING DADDU.

(Found near Bagdad.)

THE finding of the statue of an unknown king, Daddu, or David, in the ruins of the temple at Bismya, not far from Bagdad, is described by Edgar James Banks, of the University of Chicago, in the *American Journal of Semitic Languages and Literatures* (the new form of *Hebraica*). This statue, the editors of this journal announce, is probably the oldest in the world. The shoulder of the statue was first noticed, about eight feet below the surface. Upon digging it out, a headless statue was found, weighing some two hundred pounds. Carefully concealing the find from the superstitious natives, Mr. Banks and his assistants washed the statue at night under cover of their tent, in camp. Soon three lines of "a beautifully distinct inscription in the most archaic characters" appeared written across the right upper arm. "There were but three short lines,—little more than three words; but later, when I was able to translate them, they told us all that we most wished to know." About three weeks later, the head was found.

A workman who was employed not thirty meters from the spot where the statue was found was clearing away the dirt near a wall, when a large round piece of dirty marble rolled out. We picked it up and cleared away the dirt. Slowly the eyes, the nose, and the ears of the head of a statue appeared. I hurriedly took it to my tent and placed it upon the neck of the headless statue. It fitted; the statue was complete. From beneath the thick coating of dirt the marble face seemed to light up with a wonderful smile of gratitude, for the long sleep of thousands of years in the grave was at an end, and the long-lost head was restored; or perhaps the smile was but the reflection of our own feelings.

THE COMPLETED STATUE.

Mr. Banks gives this description of the completed statue, which he pronounces to be "by far the most perfect and graceful statue yet found in Babylonia."

The statue, including the low pedestal upon which it stands, is 78 centimeters high and 81 around the bottom of the skirt. The upper part of the body is entirely naked; the lower part is clothed in an embroidered skirt of six folds held up by a band and fastened behind. The back and shoulders are gracefully formed, the arms at the elbows are free from the body, and the hands are clasped before the waist. The well-shaped head is without hair, and the face is beardless; the eyes and eyebrows are now hollows in which ivory or precious stones were set.

The inscription of the three lines has been worked out as follows:

E-šar	(Temple) Eshar.
Lugal Dad-du	King Daddu.
Lugal Ud-nun-ki	King of Udnun.

The first tells us the name of the temple of ancient Bismya, a temple quite new to Assyriologists. The second gives the name of the king represented by the statue; it may be pronounced Dad-du or Da-udu (David?), a name hitherto unknown. The third line contains the ancient name of Bismya, Ud-nun, which is mentioned, together with other Babylonian cities, in the Code of Hammurabi. The two elements of the name are joined together, but its frequent repetition upon tablets, seal cylinders, and vases makes the reading certain. When did this unknown king, Daddu—if that be his name—live? And when did his newly discovered city, Ud-nun, flourish? Further excavations at Bismya will answer the question. For the present, it must suffice to say, declares Mr. Banks, that the archaic character of the writing, the depth at which the statue was discovered,—far below the ruins of Naram-Sin's time,—the entire absence of the name both of the king and of the city in the earliest records from Nippur and Telloh, and a study of other inscriptions found at Bismya, all point to "an antiquity exceeding that of any other known king of Babylonia."

THE THROES OF COMPOSITION.

DR. JOHNSON'S assertion that "A man can write just as well at one time as at another, if he will only set his mind to it," does not seem to be the common experience of writers. The exceptions—those who write a certain amount daily, and do not give way to imagining that they are not in good writing form—do not produce work of the first order of merit. In the *Cornhill Magazine* for November there is a chatty paper on the "Throes of Composition," by Michael MacDonagh.

Trollope, when he heard the idea preached that a writer should wait for inspiration, was "hardly able to repress his scorn. To me, it would not be more absurd if the shoemaker were to wait for inspiration, or the tallow-chandler for the divine moment of melting." He believed in cobbler's wax on his chair much more than in inspiration; and daily wrote, stop-watch beside him, for a given number of hours, at the exact rate of two hundred and fifty words every quarter of an hour. Even at sea, in the intervals of seasickness, he would do this. Sir Walter Scott said "he had never known a man of genius who could be perfectly regular in his habits; while he had known many blockheads who were models of order and method." Trollope, as Mr. MacDonagh says, was neither.

Southey was another clockwork type of writer, and, again, not a genius. Sheridan found a glass of port invaluable for bringing forth reluctant ideas. Fielding "got up steam" with brandy and water; Wilkie Collins' "Woman in White" owed much to doses of champagne and brandy. Johnson compiled his dictionary with the aid of tea. Charles Lamb found that beer or wine "lighted up his fading fancy, enriched his humor, and impelled the struggling thought or beautiful image into day." Perhaps the only great poet who was intemperate was Burns. Darwin's literary stimulant was snuff, but the commonest aid to literary inspiration is undoubtedly tobacco. Milton, though a water-drinker and a vegetarian, was a smoker. "Charles Kingsley often worked himself into a white heat of composition over the book upon which he was engaged, until, too excited to write any more, he would calm himself down with a pipe and a walk in his garden." Buckle, the historian, never grudged money for two things—tobacco and books. Tennyson, too, was an inveterate smoker.

Absolute silence is essential to most writers in the throes of composition, though few are so nervously fastidious as Carlyle. When he had built his sound-proof room in Cheyne Row, it turned out "by far the noisiest in the house," "a kind of infernal miracle!" George Eliot could not endure the sound of Lewes' pen-

scratching; whereas Goldsmith did his best work while starving in a wretched room in Green Arbour Court. Jane Austen, also, wrote in the common family sitting-room, and Mrs. Oliphant was no better off. Charlotte Brontë would interrupt her writing to peel potatoes, and then go on again.

Truly, as the writer says, "an intellect which will work independently of time and place and circumstance is a priceless possession to professional writers." But it is clearly a possession given to very few of them, and to still fewer whose works seem destined to remain permanently to enrich our literature.

PUEBLO INDIAN SONGS.

SEVERAL of the songs sung by the women of the Indian pueblo, Laguna, in New Mexico, while grinding their corn, have been transcribed and translated for the *Craftsman* (Syracuse, N. Y.). Miss Natalie Curtis contributes an interesting account of a visit to these Indian women, with an appreciation of their folk-music. We quote from her article:

Suddenly a voice rose high and clear, and at the same time I caught the rhythmic scraping sound of the grinding-stone. Some woman near at hand was grinding corn and singing at her work. It is the custom of the Pueblo Indians to grind the corn between two great stones. One is a slab which is set into the grinding-trough at a slight angle. The other, cube-like, is rubbed by the grinder up and down over the corn upon the understone, with much the same motion that we use in rubbing clothes upon a washboard. The grinding-troughs, two, and sometimes three, in number, are set into the floor of the house. They are simply square frames to hold the understone, with gutters on each side of the stone and at the base, for the scooping up of the corn, and a receptacle for the ground particles.

As the women grind, with rhythmic swing, they sing. And the sweet, unusual melodies, with the high scraping accompaniment of the grinding, make a music as phantom-strange to unaccustomed ears as are, to the eye, the lilac mountain-peaks and tinted desert wastes of New Mexico.

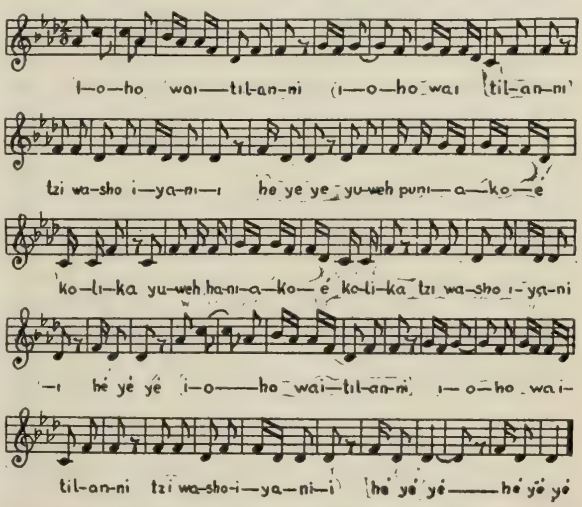
The voice sang on and I turned to seek it. I made my way through the little street with its terraces of roofs. The song seemed to come from the upper section of a square white house. Led by the sound, I climbed a ladder to the roof of the first story, which was at once the floor and balcony of the second. At my coming, the song ceased, and instead I heard a rapid whisper: "Aico! Aico!" (American, American). I paused at the open door of this upper chamber that led upon the roof. Outside, all was blue sky. Within were coolness, emptiness, bare whitewashed walls. Two Pueblo women knelt at the grinding-troughs, the younger grinding the corn to finest powder, the elder sifting the ground meal through a sieve. They laughed shyly as I entered and sat down with them.

Who was the singer? At the question, the elder pointed to the girl at the grinding-trough. The maiden flashed a smile as I asked her to repeat the song. Silently she bent over her work. A few swift sweeps of the grinding-stone and then, as though born of the rhythm, the clear voice rose once more.

This was the explanation of the first song (the music of which is given below) which was given to Miss Curtis by the elder of the women:

"It is about the water in the rocks. After rain, the water stands in the rocks, and it is good fresh water—medicine water. And in the song we say: 'Look to the southwest, look to the southeast! The clouds are coming toward the spring; the clouds will bring the water!' You see, we usually get our rains from the southwest and the southeast. That is the meaning of the song; but it is hard to tell in English."

The woman said that the songs were very old, and that the words used in them were words no longer employed in conversation.



"CORN-GRINDING" SONG OF THE PUEBLO INDIAN WOMEN.

TRANSLATION:

I-o-ho, medicine water,
I-o-ho, medicine water,
What life now!
Yonder southwest,
Yonder southeast,
What life now!
I-o-ho, medicine water,
I-o-ho, medicine water,
What life now!

As an aid to the understanding of this song, Miss Curtis reminds us of the fact that the need of all Pueblo Indians is rain. The "medicine water" is caught in the hollows of rocks, and is regarded as peculiarly healthful and life-giving.

"IMPROVING" THE STYLE OF THE BIBLE.

THERE are writers—and others—who hold that the language of the old version of the Bible, "not being the language of the street and of the newspaper to-day, is unintelligible and repellent to our modern babes and sucklings; so that ministers and Sunday-school teachers must translate it laboriously into commonplace words in order to make clear that the Book is inspired." Mr. J. H. Gardiner contributes to the *Atlantic Monthly* an article in which he breaks a lance with these "improvers" of the style of our English Bible. They obtain literal accuracy of wording, he says, at the expense, often, of emotional and religious appeal. Much good for scholarship and theological exactness has been accomplished by the revised versions of the Scriptures. This Mr. Gardiner freely admits. In fact, he declares that there have been many changes in the popularly accepted significance of words since King James' Version of the Bible appeared, and that these changes have been sufficient to make many of the old words unintelligible now. In many cases, the words which to the scholar of the sixteenth century were true renderings of the Hebrew and the Greek are to-day somewhat archaic, or have been found to be even inaccurate. He cites the expressions "thou" or "ye" for "you," "swine" for "pigs," and "sore afraid." These are no longer in familiar use, he points out, and have a somewhat different meaning for us than they did for Tindale and his immediate successors. Occupation, education, and situation have modified our understanding of terms, in testimony of which this writer quotes the experience of the teacher who, in reading the "Wreck of the Hesperus" to her class, in Minnesota, discovered that to most of the young people the word "schooner" meant only a vessel to hold beer. In so far as the Authorized Version obscures the Oriental setting of the New Testament and conceals the homely simplicity of Christ's intercourse with his disciples, in just so far, says Mr. Gardiner, it needs correction.

MUSICAL ATTRIBUTES OF STYLE.

On the other count, however, when paraphrase or retranslation shows such "unskillfulness in the use of language as characterizes the Twentieth Century New Testament or The Renderings of the Biblical World, the actual loss of meaning is greater than the gain." In addition to the fact that translation requires a thorough and sensitive knowledge of two languages, there is a further and more serious charge to be made against the new versions. What Mr. Gardiner wishes to consider in this connection, he declares, is

> rather the diminished power of expression that one notices in reading even the best of modern translations and paraphrases; and in the second place, the special source of power which lies in the sensuous form of style, over and above the meaning of the words.

The great hold that the King James Version of the English Bible has upon English-speaking peoples, Mr. Gardiner points out, is due, of course, primarily to long familiarity; but this close and affectionate acquaintance is in itself partly due to the musical attributes of the style. He points to the slight hold which the French Bible, which is inferior in just these respects, has gained on the French people in contrast with the strong and deep hold of the German and English versions, each of them masterpieces of style, as a partial confirmation of this view. In secular matters, he says, further, the special power of style to move the feelings, known as eloquence, is recognized without question.

> Only in matters which fall under the sway of scholarship is it commonly neglected. In no case is it susceptible of any thorough analysis and definition, for it is bound up with the deeper emotions and feelings of mankind, which cannot be reasoned about.

NO ABSTRACT TERMS NEEDED.

The understanding of many truths can at best be only shadowed forth; they cannot be mathematically outlined. This shadowing forth can be done only by that inspired use of language which we call eloquence. The translator of the Bible will have little to do with abstract reasonings, for there are none such in the Bible. His language, therefore, needs few of the abstract and general words in which philosophers and theologians delight. "But in proportion as abstract words of a precise denotation are less important, the connotation of concrete words and the expressive power of rhythm become a larger and pressing necessity." The expression of the deepest feeling, Mr. Gardiner points out, must be through the medium of words which include all emotional associations and implications—most of which elude the makers of dictionaries. An illustration of the way in which some of the best-known New Testament texts have suffered by the substitution of the colorless modern abstract terms for the vivid, graphic, searching, emotional expressions is given by Mr. Gardiner in quoting a verse from I. Corinthians, xiii., in the Revised Version, in comparison with the rendering of the same verse in the Twentieth Century New Testament. In the former, it is:

"Love suffereth long, and is kind; love envieth not; love vaunteth not itself, is not puffed up, doth not behave itself unseemly." In the latter, it is: "Love is long-suffering and kind. Love is never envious, never boastful, never conceited, never behaves unbecomingly."

Along with the enrichment of the language through the constant acquisition of new abstract words, says Mr. Gardiner, and the consequent gain in the range and precision of thought, there has gone a considerable increase in the number of words which are used vaguely.

Our modern use of language, therefore, tends not only to be less concrete, but also to be vaguer and duller than that of our fathers. This danger obviously makes more difficult the task of modern revisers of the Bible. Unless their scholarship is mated to a keen sense of the expressiveness of words, their revisions will lose both in color and in precision; and even where a writer himself uses these commoner abstract words with entire precision, he cannot always forestall laziness of attention in his readers.

It is not only in the connotation of words and phrases, however, that the power to express deep and noble feelings must be sought. It lies also, Mr. Gardiner points out, in the "rhythm and other partly sensuous attributes of style." This is somewhat akin to the power of music.

Since the symbols of style are in the first place symbols for the sounds of the human voice, style shares to some degree this power of music to body forth by direct appeal to the ear these feelings which must always elude articulate expression through the meaning of the words. How far this power of music and of the musical sound of language lies in the qualities and successions of the sound, and how far in the beat of the rhythm, one cannot say, even if it were necessary for our present purpose to know. All that we need recognize here is that the sensuous forms of style are in themselves an expression of some part of man's consciousness.

"REVISIONS, BARE, ROUGH, AND JOLTING."

The power of language to express religious feeling, he continues, "is inseparably bound up with rich coloring of tone and strong pulsation of the rhythm." In this connection, he refers to the strong hold upon the affections of English-speaking peoples exercised by the liturgy. All these strong qualities of sound are found in the Authorized Version of the Bible, chiefly owing to the labors of Tindale, the first translator. All the translators down to the time of the Revised Version recognized the value of this sound tone. In fact, they made constant slight improvements. In illustration of this point, Mr. Gardiner recalls the fact that it was the revisers of 1611 who, "in their instinct for the expressive power of pure sound," greatly improved the climax of St. Paul's declaration of immortality. This they did by inserting the two sonorous O's in the verse "O Death, where is thy sting? O grave, where is thy victory?" It is in the neglect of these possibilities of expression, says Mr. Gardiner, that one sees the second weakness of most modern revisions. Since the sixteenth century, the English language has been enriched chiefly in the abstract and general words which have been adapted, mostly from the Latin and Greek, to express the constantly enlarging range of scientific and philosophical thought, and we write naturally nowadays in these abstract terms, out of which the figurative force has long since faded. Besides the fact that writing is "drier and cooler" to-day, students of the Bible must nowadays "carry too heavy a burden of learning of the consideration of each single word to give to their style the strong flow which alone can create rhythm."

Unfortunately, in too many cases they seem to have lost, not only the command for these subtler capacities of style, but even the respect for them; so that, despising them as matters of mere literary sweetness and charm, they leave their revisions bare, rough, and jolting. But bare and jolting language cannot express deep feeling; and unless modern translators and revisers of the Bible recognize that much of its meaning can be brought to expression only through these impalpable overtones of style, their labors, though perhaps necessary, can be only partial and ephemeral in result.

When we go back to the real value of the Bible, he continues, we shall see how important are these considerations.

The book has not survived through so many generations of men merely because it contains a national literature of extreme interest or because it is a fascinating mine for archæologists. It is treasured because it communicates great truths and arouses in men the deepest and most ennobling emotions. If it be set before us in words which have none of the stimulating power of connotation, and therefore no capacity to set the imagination soaring, it may set forth the views of theologians about the truth, but it cannot give glimpses of those truths which pass human understanding. And if the rhythm of its language be flattened out and the rich coloring of its tones be laboriously dulled, it loses its power to suffuse the workaday fields of life with deep and noble emotion. If modern scholars are to improve on the established versions, they must not forget the fact that the definable meaning of words is only a part, and not necessarily the chief part, of the power of language to body forth the great truths which stir men's souls.

We have heard much, says Mr. Gardiner, in conclusion, of new versions of the Bible which shall freshen its message and restore the vivifying power of its great truths. We must insist, however, that "in so far as any modern version tends to substitute abstract and general words for concrete, that version tends to lose its power of communicating an essential and invaluable part of the message which the Bible has to bring to us."

THE ALLEGED DECLINE OF THE MINISTRY.

FOR a decade past it has been said that there is a marked decrease in the number of students preparing for the Church, and an even more marked falling off in the quality of the men. Mr. Everett T. Tomlinson contributes to the *World's Work* for December an article giving the results of a thorough investigation on this subject among college presidents, ministers, business men, and students. This writer first points out the fact (basing his deductions on the report of the United States Commission of Education for 1902) that there has been a steady decrease in the number of theological students since 1870. There has also been a remarkable shifting of the source of supply. The contributions of students from Eastern States and colleges have materially decreased. Yale, for example, which has always been forward in its contributions to the pulpit, graduated 123 ministers out of a total of 567 graduates from 1850 to 1855. In the five years beginning 1890, there were but 49 ministers out of a total of 1,183 graduates; that is, from 1850 to 1895, Yale's total number of graduates doubled, but in the same period the Yale graduates who entered the ministry were 60 per cent. less. The same proportion holds true of other New England colleges. The South and the West, on the other hand, show increased enrollment.

WHAT THE COLLEGES SAY.

Most of the college presidents whose opinions were asked by Mr. Tomlinson reported a decided deterioration in the quality of theological students at their institutions. Bright students, natural leaders, strong men were not unknown, but apparently they were the exceptions, and the exceptions were much more apparent than among students preparing for journalism, teaching, law, medicine, or business. One of the college presidents, whose position in the educational world is very near the foremost, wrote:

> The present deficiency is much more marked in the quality than in the quantity of ministerial supply. In fact, the failing numbers do not particularly alarm me. The dearth of men thoroughly competent to do the work of our churches of the first and second rank does. I think the undue proportion of third and fourth class men is largely due to our beneficiary system, to which we cling. We bribe men poor in intellect and efficiency to enter the ministry by our scholarships and special aids.

Another almost equally eminent authority declared:

> The average quality of divinity students has, in my opinion, been deteriorating for at least two generations, because the ministry as a profession has lost ground in comparison with both the old professions and the new. I see no remedy for this state of things until the ministry is given the same liberty and independence which the other professions enjoy, and is better paid.

The third president, himself a minister, holds the opinion that the chief cause of deterioration "is the relative decrease in the power and scope of the Church in modern life." The churches of Boston, New York, Chicago, are not decisive factors in the life of those cities. Hence, a young man who wants to mold the city's life may be drawn—usually is drawn—to some other calling.

In reply to the question as to the cause of this condition, put by Mr. Tomlinson, President Eliot, of Harvard, replied:

> Young men from well-to-do families can ordinarily choose their profession. Nothing drives them into the ministry, and they are not altruistic enough to adopt it of their own accord, just because it is depressed, though its ideals are of the highest.

Secretary Phelps, of Yale, found other reasons:

> The supposed narrowness of the ministry is an obstacle. It is commonly believed that men entering the ministry have to give their assent to a much greater number of theological statements than are demanded by most denominations. Many parents discourage their boys from entering the ministry because they do not feel that it affords so great an opportunity for distinction as do other positions. Even looking at the ministry from the very lowest standpoint possible, that of opportunity to distinguish one's self, I am confident that there is no position where the chances are greater. It is natural for boys to enter the business or profession of their father. Consequently, law and banking and mercantile affairs draw most of the strong men. The most important reason of all is that there is a lack of vital religion in most of the homes of the type to which you refer. There is generally morality, and, to a certain extent, observance of Sunday and religious service, but a deep family religious life is not often found today in the homes of our most prominent people.

OPINIONS OF BUSINESS MEN.

The writer of the article classifies the explanations given by thirty prominent business men, representing all the prominent denominations, as follows:

1. The comparative and compulsory poverty of the ministry.
2. Much of a minister's time and strength are taken from the primary work for which he is supposed to stand and frittered away in a multitude of petty details.
3. The office swamps the man. The type developed by the calling is ordinarily negative, almost feminine, rather than positive and virile. As one man expressed it: He felt toward his pastor as he did toward his grandmother. She was a fine old lady, and he was

more than willing to do all in his power for her comfort, but he would no more think of consulting her in the perplexities of his daily life than he would his minister.

4. The opportunities of the pulpit are not so great to-day as are those of many other callings even in the line of direct power for good.

Of twenty successful ministers whose opinions were asked, seven declared that they would choose the ministry if they had to make a life-choice. Three were undecided ; nine replied no, positively, but one said that if he could escape being "ordained" he would be glad to take up the work, and every man of the twenty declared "preaching" in itself to be the highest pleasure of his life. Condensed and classified explanations of these twenty ministers for the deterioration are as follows :

1. The lack of freedom. The minister is looked upon too much as one who is hired or employed.
2. The short and shortening period of service. The reasonable certainty that after he is forty years of age his services will be less in demand, and the dead-line of fifty no imaginary bogie.
3. The difficulty of maintaining a home on the meager salaries given.
4. The continual shifting of his home and field.
5. His subjection to the pettiness of the attacks and demands of petty people.
6. The present "beneficiary system," which degraded the entire body.

There is no real "dearth," Mr. Tomlinson concludes, of students for the ministry. There is a slight setback for the present time, and in some quarters there is a deterioration in the quality of students. There is also a marked change in the sources of supply. The chief causes keeping young men from the ministry are "the poverty of the calling, the fear of the lack of intellectual and moral freedom, the conviction that the petty outweighs the larger in the work, and the suspicion of the present 'beneficiary system' which casts a blight over all. 'Heresy,' or the fear of its smirch, is the greatest obstacle."

Concluding with some hopeful signs, this writer says :

The deepest interest of the communities now is in questions that might be termed spiritual rather than religious, certainly not theological. Theology as a "science" has given place to Christianity as a life. The Church as an organization has a weaker hold, while at the same time there is a greater interest in all vital questions and affairs. As a consequence, what our forefathers heard as a distinctive "call to the ministry" is now finding expression in other and widely varied forms of service. There is a blotting out of the former false distinction between "secular" and "sacred." Whatever men may think as to certain men or peoples, all history is now believed to be "sacred," and every day and every honest work as "holy." This fact has led many earnest young men who in former years might have believed themselves to be "called" to the work of the ministry now to believe that they can make their lives count for as much, perhaps more, if they give themselves to other lines of work that at one time were termed "secular." Many of these so-called causes that keep young men out of the ministry to-day represent a distinct gain in the life of the world. It is better that a thousand men should be elevated an inch than that one man be raised a thousand inches above his fellows.

THE CONGRESS OF "FREE THOUGHT" AT ROME.

THE first Congress of Free Thought was held at Brussels in 1880, and was attended by one hundred and sixty delegates, of whom eight were Americans. The recent congress was held in the great hall of the Collegio Romano, Rome, formerly belonging to the Jesuit congregation, and numbered twenty-five hundred delegates, among whom was the Chicago lecturer, Mangasarian. The programme of subjects to be discussed included dogma and science, the State and the Church, education, public charities, and the institution of lay missions. Of course, the tendency of opinion in this congress was quite revolutionary, and to a large degree negative and destructive. Gis Leno, in *Italia Moderna* (Rome), says that the whole gathering presented a scene of absolute confusion.

It is evident that most of the great problems which claim the attention of thinkers came under the examination of the congress ; but the want of order, of organization, and of method necessarily transformed the congress into a crowd of buzzing talkers carried away by useless excitement. Not a delegate among all that multitude of pilgrims but had in his pocket, ready at hand, the text of a motion, of a measure, of an amendment, which was intended to solve all the problems, religious, economic, and social, which excite mankind to-day. Certainly, there was something touching in that fever for reformation. All those men, all those women, were people of faith. The atmosphere they breathed was a religious atmosphere. I am not speaking ironically. Each one in the whole crowd was advancing his own dogmas, which he tried to formulate, in order to give to the world one religion more. And each was there for the purpose of establishing this religion, without, however, coming to an understanding in what terms the expression Free Thought was to be defined.

Ernest Haeckel spoke of the conception of the world as based upon a theory of monism,

and declared that, "according to the last conclusions of modern science, the idea of God could only be maintained in the sense that God was the unknowable and hypothetical principle of being." He declared himself opposed to the Papacy, as being "in contradiction to the pure and primitive form of Christianity," and he called for "the abolition of clerical celibacy, of confession, of indulgences, and of the publication of miracles." Hector Denis labored to propound "the metaphysical principles which formed the subjective basis of Free Thought." Conway tried to present the difference between the subjective and the objective logic of Free Thought. Neuwenhuis spoke in a more practical line, and proclaimed himself positively the enemy of parliamentarism in every form. Professor Sergi, chairman of the committee on education, demanded the complete secularization of the school. "The whole thing was a mere Babel, and I could fill ten pages before being able to give an idea of the feverish fadism and conflict of opinion which reigned throughout the congress. The writer thinks that the most practical result of the congress was the passing of a resolution inviting all nations of the earth to erect a monument to Peace,—perhaps in Switzerland, as being a neutral country, in the center of Europe. But he concludes by saying: "No, this Congress of Free Thought was no congress in the real sense of the word."

Senator Tancredi Canonico, while admitting that the congress was not an affair of much significance, nevertheless has a few words to say in the *Rassegna Nazionale* (Florence) on "the war which it openly declares against the religious principle."

The congress proposed to exclude religion from public life, to substitute secular for religious missions and a system of morals based on science for religious morals; to emancipate humanity from the slavery of primitive myths which originated in the night of ignorance and were inspired by the fear of natural phenomena; to free human thought from the domination of religious phantasms, from the dread of what follows death, from the worship of fetiches, from degrading prostration before beings which exist only in fancy; to establish truth by means of science, which knows nothing excepting what it can see and observe and does not occupy itself in solving false and chimerical problems; to establish the reign of justice and equality, and to bring in the reign of universal peace and love.

The Senator points out the inconsistency of this programme. "What right," he asks, "have Free Thinkers to declare false and to controvert those things about which as men of science they acknowledge they know nothing, and to which they wish to pay no attention?" In a sense, this Free Thought is opposed to agnosticism.

"LLOYD'S," AND WHAT IT MEANS.

THE expression "Lloyd's says" is so frequently made in connection with marine questions and personalities that it is interesting to note the origin and meaning of the term, which is set forth in an interview with Sir Henry Hozier, in a recent number of *Commercial Intelligence*, of London. Sir Henry is secretary of Lloyd's, and in this interview he details the history of the establishment. Lloyd's began in a very small way. It is now, however, to the world of shipping what the house of Rothschild is to the world of banking. It really dates from the latter part of Queen Elizabeth's reign, and had its origin in a small coffee-house in Tower Street, kept by one Edward Lloyd.

He was an enterprising man, and through his business contact with seafaring men and merchants enlisted in foreign trade, foresaw the importance of improving shipping and the method of marine insurance. He was the founder of the system of maritime and commercial intelligence which has been developed into its present effectiveness. Before the time of Edward Lloyd, maritime insurance in England was conducted by the Lombards, some Italians who founded Lombard Street, but after Lloyd embarked in the business, Britons conducted marine insurance in London. The subjects of marine insurance are the ship, the cargo, and the freight, all of which may belong to different parties. In time of war, there is what is termed the maritime risk,—danger from accident, collision, and stranding,—which is distinctly separate from the risk of capture and seizure by an enemy. This class of marine insurance had its inception in the conditions arising during the seven-year French-English war of 1757 to 1763. Lloyd's moved to Pope's Head Alley in 1770, and in 1774 removed to the present quarters in the Royal Exchange. In 1871, Lloyd's was incorporated by act of Parliament. This act defined the objects of the society to be: (1) The carrying on of the business of marine insurance by members of the society; (2) the protection of the interests of members of the society in respect of shipping, cargoes, and freights; (3) the collection, publication, and diffusion of intelligence and information with respect to shipping.

The corporation and committee of Lloyd's and the secretary of Lloyd's have practically nothing to do with marine insurance in the way of taking risks or paying losses. They only afford marine insurance brokers who wish to effect insurances a place of meeting with those who undertake the risks. This is something quite different from the common understanding of the term.

EFFECTS OF PHYSICAL CONDITIONS ON DEVELOPMENT.

THE peculiarities in the color and form of animal organisms which serve to adapt them to their environment and to give them a better chance for life in spite of unfavorable conditions that may confront them present some of the most interesting features in the study of nature.

On the Kerguelen Islands, which are unusually exposed to storms, all the insects, including one species of butterfly and several kinds of flies and beetles, are wingless, a variation from the usual plan which protects them from being carried out to sea by the winds.

Very often the colors of animals are similar to the colors of their surroundings, animals living in jungles being mottled, those of the arctic regions white, and aquatic organisms, living at the surface of the water, being transparent, like crystals.

Among the insects especially, this tendency to match the surroundings is carried to an extreme, and often results in the most fantastic shapes and markings, so that an insect sometimes resembles a leaf in color and shape, even to an irregularity in the outline of the wing, to give the appearance of a leaf that has been gnawed by a worm; or an insect may imitate the appearance of a stem, so that its natural enemies easily overlook it, as in the case of the walking-stick.

Within the last few years there has been great interest in experiments made on butterflies by a number of biologists which have brought to light some curious facts concerning the conditions that affect the colors, and the pattern of the markings on the wings, of certain butterflies. A *résumé* of the most notable of these experiments is given by Dr. M. von Linden in the last number of the *Biologisches Centralblatt* (Leipsic), with an explanation of their bearing on questions concerning the dynamics of development.

The butterfly selected for the experiments was *vanessa*, whose various species are widely distributed, being found in almost all latitudes, and exhibiting a great variety of colors and markings.

Vanessa levana prossa appears in two forms—a summer generation and a winter generation—in which the colors are strikingly different. By subjecting the chrysalis of the summer butterfly to cold, the butterfly developed the colors and markings of the winter generation, and the chrysalis of the winter butterfly gave a butterfly with the colors of the summer generation when kept at summer heat. Heat seemed to have a direct effect upon the development of the red pigment in the wings.

One butterfly developed under the influence of heat assumed the colors of a southern species native to Sardinia and Corsica, and another kept in the cold during the pupal stage showed the colors of a Lapland species. The changes in color and in the pattern of the wing markings under the influence of heat and cold were always within the limits of climatic variations as observed in butterflies of different latitudes, but sensibility to heat and cold was often unequal even in members of the same brood.

TRANSFORMATIONS CAUSED BY CHANGES IN THE FOOD OF BUTTERFLIES.

Another experiment was made to find the effects of feeding larvæ different kinds of leaves. The larva of *Ocneria dispar* feeds upon the leaves of the oak, but by feeding it another kind of leaf a very striking albino was produced, but the experiments had to be carried through a number of generations. The first generation of such butterflies consisted of small yellow specimens instead of the normal brown ones. The next generation was still smaller and white, although on this diet the butterflies died without producing any succeeding generation. But if each alternate generation were given its natural food, then very small butterflies were produced in which the males were all white, with a few gray markings, and the females were all one color. If the descendants of these were given their normal food-plant, they gradually regained the typical colors and markings.

In another experiment, one generation was fed on nut leaves, the next on esparcet, and the next on oak leaves, with the result that the final butterfly had wings with a mixture of the colors of those developed by feeding them with each of the food-plants.

Other experiments showed that larvæ kept under the influence of monochromatic light developed into butterflies with marked variations from the normal colorings, while those raised in an atmosphere of pure oxygen showed color changes similar to the changes produced by the influence of heat. The largest butterflies developed under blue light, and among certain invertebrates and lower vertebrates the blue and violet rays of the spectrum caused more rapid development.

Apparently, species may vary on account of their reaction to external influences. Climate, food, and activity may produce changes in metabolism which influence the mode of development.

IS THERE, THEN, REALLY A "YELLOW PERIL" AFTER ALL?

BY far the greater part of the magazine and newspaper discussion of the so-called "Yellow Peril," at least that portion contributed by Japanese sympathizers, is to the effect that there is no such thing; that Japan could not if she would, and would not if she could, organize and arm the Asiatic peoples for a descent upon the West. The writer in the *Taiyo* (Tokio), however, Mr. Jihei Hashiguchi, believes that, after all, "what the Russians and the pro-Russian press vaguely comprehend is not altogether without foundation." There will be a "peril" for the Russians if the Japanese triumph, he declares, let the "peril" be white, yellow, or any other color. This writer believes that conquest is in the Mongolian blood, and "whereas the Mongolians of the thirteenth century terrorized the Europeans with barbarous methods, they, headed by the Japanese, will repeat today those acts with civilized methods." Antagonism between Mongolians and Caucasians, he believes, is too deeply rooted to be ever completely eliminated. The sympathy of the American people for the Japanese, he says, further, is the sympathy of the chivalrous spectator for a brave, small fighter.

But, when this small and weak grows up to be big and strong, this sympathy will change to jealousy, then to hatred. And when the Japanese grow up to be so great and strong that they can defeat any one nation on the face of the globe, it is very likely that the American people at least will get tired of Japan and the Japanese, and even occasionally evince from their hearts hatred of their former loved ones. The hereditary racial differences will be brought home for consideration. The American people will finally recover from the fascination of the wonderful Japs. Then what shall the Japs do? or what will they do? Will they renounce all their power and humiliate themselves for the sake of regaining the Americans' love? Most certainly not. No! On the contrary, they will say to the Americans, "Go away back and sit down, while I will show you how to juggle."

Mr. Hashiguchi believes that there is nothing but a bold assumption in the statement that Asiatic races are at the mercy of Europeans. Some time soon, he declares, the Orient will have its turn to shine. When the Orientals find that their sinews have waxed stronger under the careful nursing of Japan "they will oblige Japan to lead them in invading the dominions of the Caucasian races for the double purposes of military and civil conquests."

The experiences of the forefathers, who at one time or another thought they were the only dominant races of the world, are recorded in the characteristics of the present Asiatics. When Japan's victory in the present struggle becomes a certainty, it will inspire her sister nations to uprise against the psychological domination by the Europeans to which they were so long subjected. The Chinese, though seemingly incapable of progress, are not wood, nor stones, but men. When they awake from their long slumber, they will regain the prestige of their forefathers. The Koreans, the Siamese, the Hindus, and the Filipinos, who are at present considered to be negligible quantities, when combined under the hegemony of the Japanese will become formidable allies of the latter. Should all these rise and urge Japan to lead them against the European races, Japan could but satisfy their desire.

Four million troops can be raised in China, and these, trained and led by Japanese officers, will make an army sufficient by itself to defeat the combined forces of Europe. More than this:

For civil purposes, the Japanese statesmen will be in this respect all the better qualified to administer the state affairs of Europe as well as those of Asia. The tyranny of the rulers under which the Poles, the Finns, and other small races in Europe are suffering will be a thing of the past. The political dishonesty to which the people of the Western states are subjected will be wiped out, and the world will be brought nearer to a state of perfection, for the benefit of all classes of people.

WILL THERE BE A "YELLOW BLESSING?"

Another writer in the same magazine, Gicho Sakurai, writes on the same general subject under the title "The Yellow Blessing." He believes that, for various reasons, which he lays down in detail, what the Russians call the "Yellow Peril" will be really a blessing for the world. In brief, the argument is to the effect that—first, the present war has proven that Asiatic races are not morally and physically inferior to Europeans; second, that they are not inferior to the West in matters of lofty moral ideas and humanitarian conception; third, that it is their vocation to spread the humanitarian principles more widely than they have ever been spread before; fourth, that the Japanese soldier is really fighting for constitutional government and against despotism; fifth, that Japanese triumph will mean a triumph for religious freedom as against Russian religious bigotry; sixth, that one of the causes of Japan's victory is the education which is given in Japan without any distinction of caste or creed; seventh, that this war is holding up before other Asiatic races a good example of what education and liberal ideas can do; eighth, that, with the termination of the war, Oriental nations will be in a position to improve their condition along the ways of peace; ninth, that a Japanese triumph will be of immense advantage to the commerce of the Orient; and, tenth, that the Russian people will themselves be benefited by a Japanese victory.

BRIEFER NOTES ON TOPICS IN THE PERIODICALS.

SUBJECTS TREATED IN THE POPULAR AMERICAN MONTHLIES.

Great Masters of Painting.—Two of the December magazines give space to studies of several of the most distinguished of Italian painters. Mr. Kenyon Cox, writing in *Scribner's*, treats of a few of the works of Veronese, and treats of them as pictures having no more specifically decorative purpose than that common to all great works of art,—a somewhat novel point of departure, since Veronese is commonly thought of as a decorator and nothing else. In concluding his survey of the achievements of this great representative of the Venetian school, Mr. Cox declares that for a thorough and adequate knowledge of every part of his profession it would be impossible to name his equal,—that he was, in fact, the completest master of the art of painting that ever lived. Reproductions of some of the most famous paintings of Veronese accompany Mr. Cox's article. In *McClure's*, Mr. John La Farge introduces a series of papers on the allegory-painters, with brief criticisms of Correggio, Botticelli, and Poussin. (The last-named painter, although a Frenchman by birth, had been greatly influenced by Italian ideals.) Correggio's "Mystic Marriage of St. Catherine," Botticelli's "Spring," and Poussin's "Shepherds of Arcadia" are chosen for reproduction as illustrations to go with Mr. La Farge's instructive and entertaining paper.

Pictures in the Holiday Magazines.—So much has been done by the leading illustrated magazines in the last year or two in the direction of color printing that the striking examples of that process in the current issues, successful as many of them are, do not in themselves lend so much distinction to the so-called "Christmas numbers" as would have been the case a few years back. Most of the well-known magazine illustrators are represented in the current numbers, and along with these we note a number of less familiar names. In *Harper's*, the work of Mr. Howard Pyle still bears the palm, his exquisite illustrations for Mark Twain's "Saint Joan of Arc" constituting the most striking feature of the magazine from the artistic point of view. In *Scribner's*, there is a striking piece of color work by Maxfield Parrish—a frontispiece illustrating a poem by William Lucius Graves. The work of this artist also appears in the *Metropolitan Magazine*, where we also find drawings in color by Jules Guerin, Louis Rhead, John Cecil Clay, and Charles Livingston Bull. *Scribner's* presents a beautiful series of illustrations in color for "Scenes from the Old Ballads," by Beatrice Stevens; and in the same magazine we find a remarkable study in color of a mother and child by the evening fire, done by Sarah Stilwell. Mr. Walter Appleton Clark's drawings in tint, to illustrate Christmas scenes in an old French village, also form an important feature of the December *Scribner's*. The *Century* this month presents no color pieces by the old illustrators, but it gives interpretations of "Three Preludes of Chopin," by Sigismond Ivanowski. These are in tint. In the same magazine, Christian Brinton writes on "Alfons Mucha and the New Mysticism," giving examples of Mucha's lithographs. In *Harper's*, besides the illustrations in color by Howard Pyle, the characteristic work of William T. Smedley and Albert Sterner is turned to good advantage in the illustration of stories; while Elizabeth Shippen Green makes an attractive contribution in the form of three pictures accompanying the very domestic tale of "The Thousand Quilt," by Annie Hamilton Donnell. In *McClure's*, we have the characteristic child pictures of "F. Y. Cory," to which allusion is made elsewhere in this number of the REVIEW OF REVIEWS in the article on "Modern Picture-Book Children." There are also in this number of *McClure's* some interesting Canadian pictures by F. E. Schoonover; and some "Notes from a Trainer's Book," edited by Samuel Hopkins Adams, are cleverly illustrated by Oliver Herford. Very much of the best illustration in the Christmas numbers is in black and white (especially in the *Century*). But so much of the work of this kind has appeared each month in our American magazines, and so little of the current month's output has a direct relation to the holiday season, that perhaps it is unnecessary to particularize further.

The Men Who Govern Us.—Last month, legislatures were elected in many States which will begin their sessions early in January, 1905, and proceed to enact laws which will have a far more direct bearing on the daily life and welfare of the citizen than any laws that the national Congress can enact. This fact gives pertinence to the article by Samuel P. Orth in the December *Atlantic* on "Our State Legislatures." Mr. Orth has made a special study of the personnel of four legislatures,—in the States of Vermont, Ohio, Indiana, and Missouri. His conclusions are by no means pessimistic. The faults of our legislatures he believes to be far from incurable. The people have the remedy in their own hands. We have never seriously tried to make scientific legislation possible in this country. The mere minimizing of legislation by biennial sessions does not meet the real evil. Mr. Orth is right in insisting that legislation is a vital function and one that cannot be neglected. "Popular demand is the ultimate source of good law; popular indifference is the immediate source of bad law."

Social and Industrial Topics.—Mrs. Charlotte Perkins Gilman, writing in the December *Cosmopolitan*, attacks the problem of preserving the American home in our great cities under modern social conditions. Of the "apartment hotel" as it exists to-day in New York, Mrs. Gilman has only one complaint to make,—its disregard of children and their needs in the family economy. The dismissal of the kitchen from the scheme of living-rooms in these hotels makes possible a home of unequaled beauty and refinement,—

Under the title, "The Rise of the Tailors," Mr. Ray Stannard Baker presents, in *McClure's* for December, a connected history of the wars of the garment workers on New York's great "East Side." He concludes that unionism is not only a benefit to workers and employers alike, but in our complex civilization an absolute necessity. In his view, the unionizing of the garment workers means the Americanization of the East Side. He holds, on the other hand, that the limitations of the principle of unionism must be recognized. — In the current *World's Work*, Mr. Henry W. Lanier gives an interesting exposition of the principles and methods which have built up the enormous business of "industrial insurance," so called, within a comparatively short time. Two great companies practically control the insurance of children in our great cities. Mr. Lanier's article, entitled "Billions in Ten-Cent Insurance," is a revelation of the importance of this institution in the daily life of "the other half."—"The Millionaire's Peril" is the title of a suggestive paper by Dr. Henry A. Stimson in the December *Atlantic*.

THE SPIRIT OF THE FOREIGN REVIEWS.

The Progress of the Postal Card.—The *World's Work and Play* (London) has a paper by Charles G. Ammon on "The Triumph of the Postcard." He recalls that the idea of the postcard, as it is called in England, was "made in Germany." Its originator was Dr. Von Stephan, the German postmaster-general, who advanced the project in 1865. It was then rejected, but the Austrian post-office took it up, and issued the first postcard in Vienna, on October 1, 1866. In three months, nearly three million cards were sold. The North German Confederation adopted it in July, 1870. Great Britain followed in October, 1870. The same year saw it introduced in Switzerland. The following year it appeared in Belgium and Holland, and in Denmark, Sweden, Norway, and Canada. Russia, France, and Ceylon took it up in 1872; 1873 saw the postcard acclimatized in Chile, the United States, Servia, Roumania, and Spain, and Italy welcomed it in 1874. Japan and Guatemala followed in 1875, and Greece in 1876. The picture postcard was first printed by a photographer of Passau, who chemically sensitized an ordinary postcard and printed thereon a view of his native town. In Germany, it is said that one thousand million are sold annually.

Egypt's Population.—An article on "British Rule in Egypt," in the *Quarterly Review*, gives the following particulars as to population: "Egypt was densely populated in ancient times. In the reign of Augustus, there were 18,000,000 inhabitants; at the time of the Arab conquest, half that number; at the date of the expedition of Napoleon, 2,460,000; at the first official census, in 1846, 4,463,000; at that of 1882, 6,806,000. The census of 1897 shows a population of 9,734,000, or an increase at the rate of about 3 per cent. per annum during the period of British occupation. In the same period, under the tyranny of the Mahdi and the Khalifa, Sir Rudolf Slatin estimates that three-quarters of the population of the Sudan perished. There remained but 1,870,500 inhabitants in a territory of 1,000,000 square miles; and the progress of the country will long suffer for want of hands."

The Rural England of To-Day.—Mr. C. F. G. Masterman thus describes, in the *Independent Review*, the social change which has taken place in England under the influence of newly gotten wealth: "The country-house, instead of being a center of local interest, is now an appendage of the capital,—a tiny piece of London transferred in the late summer and autumn to a more salubrious air and the adjacency of the coverts. Rural England appears as slowly passing into gardens and shooting-grounds, with intervening tracts of sparse grasslands, committed to the rearing of cattle and of pheasants, instead of men. Fifty years ago, one class of reformer could still, without absurdity, find the solution of social discontent in a revived feudalism, and a Carlyle or a Ruskin urge vehemently the gentlemen of England to take up the burden of government committed to a landed aristocracy. What observer of the England of to-day would have the hardihood to proclaim a similar message?"

The Jap as Emigrant.—Mr. Wilson Crewdson writes in the *Nineteenth Century* for November on "Japanese Emigrants." The number of Japanese resident abroad has increased largely during the last fifteen years. In 1889, it was only 18,688, but in 1900 the figure had risen to 123,971. Three-quarters of these are in the United States or in United States colonies, after which come Great Britain and colonies, Korea, and Russia.

Will the Panama Canal Pay?—The current *Quarterly Review* opens with an article on "The Panama Canal and Maritime Commerce," in which the reviewer is anything but sanguine. He declares that many of the estimates on which expectations of profit are based are incorrect. It is doubtful whether the canal will attract the big sailing ships which at present go around Cape Horn, as there is a practically windless zone on both sides of the Isthmus and the use of the canal will entail heavy towage fees. The canal will be a great service to trade between the east and west coasts of the United States, but "it is not by any means certain that it will do any good at all to British maritime commerce."

London's Water-Supply.—Mr. W. M. J. Williams concludes an article in the *Fortnightly* full of financial statistics by declaring that the problem of London's water-supply will have soon to be considered *de novo*, both as regards quantity and quality. It will be necessary to go farther afield for water. The consideration of the award to the water companies kept this question out of sight. If a new water-supply were projected for London, nobody would go for it to the Thames or the Lea. When the details of the transfer and other immediate questions have been settled by the Metropolitan Water Board, the whole question will have to be reopened on a vast scale.

The Art of Table-Talk.—Writing on this subject in the *Nineteenth Century* for November, Mrs. Frederic Harrison says: "The French have some dinner-table

conventions which to us would seem strange. At any small gathering of eight or ten persons, the talk is always supposed to be general; the individual who should try to begin a *tête-à-tête* conversation with the person sitting next at table would soon find out his mistake. Conversation—general conversation—is part of the repast, like the bread, the salt, or the wine, and is common to all. What admirable talk you will hear at the table of the smallest bourgeoisie,—bright, sparkling, full of mother wit and good sense; and the delight in a happy saying runs around the table and stimulates afresh. This in spite of the presence of the children, who are not always well-behaved, and the evident cares of bread which possess the hostess. The French love to speak well, and rightly consider their language to be a most beautiful and flexible instrument for social purposes. They take pains, therefore, to pronounce the words well, and to play on them with grace and dexterity. You may often hear, after such an entertainment as I have described, '*Ce n'est pas bien parler*,' in criticism of an awkward, ugly phrase."

Japan's Right to Korea.—The editor of the *Eastern World* (Yokohama) can understand why Japan has been finally compelled to establish a virtual protectorate over Korea. The Japanese interests, he says, have suffered for nearly a century under the "anarchy of Korean absolutism; and Korean incapacity has invited the hand of a master, whether it was that of Russia or of Japan." The fiction of Korean independence, he continues, has been a useful one, but it has never prevented the Japanese from taking every measure they thought necessary to insure their preponderance in the peninsula. It has been the real intention of Japan all along, this editor says, further, to appropriate Korea for herself. He believes that the best thing that can happen to Korea will be for her to come under Japanese suzerainty. That this has been the intention of the Japanese Government is evident, this editor believes, from the telegram addressed, in March of the present year, to Ambassador Kurino, at St. Petersburg, by Baron Komura. "Japan possesses paramount political as well as commercial and industrial influence in Korea, which, having regard to her own security, she cannot consent to surrender to *or share with any other power*. (The italics are our own.)"

Is International Law "Iniquitous?"—In reviewing a brochure on international law by M. Cimbali, professor in the University of Sasari, the *Revue du Droit Publique et de la Science Politique* (Paris) declares that the author is too severe in condemning international law as "a science iniquitous and evil-working." M. Cimbali contends that not only have all the modern states arisen to their present positions through histories full of oppression, wrong, and barbarism, but that they maintain their political equilibrium to-day by oppression of the weak. The *Revue* contends that, while the right of conquest can never actually conform to the idea of justice, yet the relations of states are constantly improving and becoming more altruistic, and international law is gradually developing into a code which is based to a large extent on right and justice.

Is France Declining Economically?—A writer in the *Quinzaine*, Georges Blondel, declares that French statesmen and merchants are not sufficiently well posted, or interested, even, in the present-day commercial evolution. The republic, he asserts, is not holding its own even in those things which have been regarded as her exclusive products. France receives many thousands of toys every year from abroad, four-fifths of them from Germany, representing a value of from three to four million francs ($600,000 to $800,000). During the past twenty years, the value of importations from the United States increased from two hundred and fifty to four hundred and eighty million francs. "Frenchmen," said M. Blondel, addressing his countrymen, "in general, we do not know how to avail ourselves of publicity. We do not understand the value of advertising."

Naval Warfare in Its Economic Bearings.—Naval warfare is an economic warfare, and it has always been so to a great extent, asserts Baron Maltzahn, in the *Deutsche Rundschau*. When they lost the control of the sea, says this writer, the Portuguese, the Spaniards, and the Dutch lost their industrial prosperity. Colbert, the great French minister, endeavored to extend industry abroad at the same time that he increased the French marine. English naval supremacy, he thinks, is largely due to the insular position of Great Britain.

A Russian Criticism of Russian Journalism.—A writer in the *Obrazovanié* (Moscow), M. Bielokonsky, severely criticises the vulgarity and inappropriateness of the cartoons and caricatures appearing in the Russian popular journals, which, he declares, testify to the "monstrous ignorance of their authors, and the intellectual poverty of the people who permit themselves to be imposed upon by these productions." War, which makes heroes also, according to Iablonowsky, makes boasters of people of vivid and foolish imagination. Of these, Niemirowitch-Dantchenko (who may be the Russian war correspondent at the front often quoted in newspaper dispatches) is perhaps the chief. According to these writers, it is always the brave Cossack who, by one stroke of the lance, impales three Japanese soldiers, and performs other wonderful and fantastic exploits. According to these, also, the Japanese are a cruel and savage race, who ill-treat the Russian dead and wounded. All this, says the Russian writer quoted, is not only vain, but wrong. General Kuropatkin, he points out, has expressed the greatest of respect for his valiant enemy, and has also treated with them regarding prisoners. "Why, then, would the Russian commander-in-chief condescend to converse in this way with men who surpass the Bashi-Bazouks in cruelty, who profane the dead and mutilate the wounded?"

An Ecuadorian Poet in French.—The editor of the department "American Readings" in *España Moderna* (Madrid) begins his comment by noting what a powerful instrument for diffusing world-literature is the French language. France translates much, and the translations are of great assistance to the immense majority of men to whom Russian, Swedish, German, English, and other tongues offer difficulties. In truth, France cultivates this means of influence over other nations by continually seeking new literary material which excites public curiosity, at the same time taking care that French is kept an obligatory part of education in foreign countries, and founding French schools in even the most remote lands. It is understandable, then, that authors desire anxiously to

get their works into French. As for Spanish works, the editor acknowledges that the majority of the civilized world cannot understand them. In France, Spanish is known by few outside of professorial chairs, except in the south, and though it is more generally known in Germany and Russia, Spanish books cannot circulate as freely as French books. It is therefore an act of literary wisdom to put Spanish books into French, and if the translator is a compatriot of the author, it is eminently patriotic as well. Such is the work that Victor M. Rendón, minister of Ecuador to France and Spain, has written in French, the title of which, translated, is "Olmedo, American Statesman and Poet, Singer of Bolivar." It is an extensive biography of the Ecuadorian hero, and includes, as well, much information about his country needed in Spain as well as in France. The reviewer thinks the translator has rendered a great service in translating so well the major part of the poems of Olmedo, which are cited, and which should make fully appreciated the talent of the great singer of South American independence. If others would follow his example, the notable writers of South America would no longer be unknown in France. The volume is illustrated with photographic reproductions of scenes in Guayaquil, a portrait of Olmedo, and a picture of the statue by Falguière raised to the hero.

Russia's Red-cross Heroines.—In the *Fortnightly*, Mr. Angus Hamilton pays the following tribute to the Russian women at the front: "The hard-working, earnest, practical little women, ignorant but industrious, who devote their time to the welfare of the Russian soldiers, make a beautiful picture. They are fearless. They endure the same fatigues as the soldiers, and, as recent events have proved, they sacrifice very willingly their lives to save their charges. I do not think that any war has produced more touching examples of fidelity to duty than those offered by these badly dressed, plain-faced, sweet-natured nurses, as they trudge through the rains, through the heat, and the dust and the snows of Manchuria. These women quite delight in their calling, and in spite of the reverses, or perhaps because of the reverses, they muster in large numbers to the roll-call when their services are demanded. I have made inquiries about the condition regulating their service with the troops, and certainly, on the score of remuneration or generous treatment, there is nothing attractive in the work. They appear to give the best of their lives to nursing the soldiers, and out there in Manchuria the pillow of many a dying man has been rendered more comfortable by little gracious attentions from some one of these sisters."

Psychology of the War.—A writer who signs himself General-Major D. Reisner von Lichtenstern contributes to *Die Woche* (Berlin) a study of "The War Psychology of the Far East." He believes that the developments in Manchuria have been in accordance with the psychology of the two peoples at war. The Russian tactics, especially, have been in accordance with the character of the Russian people. The Russian tactics are backward because Russian culture is backward. The Russian generals do not maneuver, or at least do not conduct warfare in the modern way. They are seen at the head of their troops. They depend on the bayonet charge rather than on good shooting, and evidently count on muscle and weight. They maintain the old tradition of officers leading their men in charges. The Japanese, on the other hand, are saturated with the modern idea of individual efficiency; moreover, they fight for an idea, and not merely because they are told to fight.

Romance of a Gypsy Poetess.—Gina Ranjicic, the gypsy poetess, is the subject of a sketch in the Scandinavian magazine *Varia* (Stockholm), by Sigurd P. Sigurdh. This woman, in her youth as remarkable for beauty as for intellectual attainments, was discovered in 1890 by Dr. Heinrich von Wlislocki, the well-known authority on gypsy life and customs, who had heard of her from a Servian consular employee. These two together visited her, and found her, at that period of her life, a wrinkled old woman from whose face every trace of beauty had long since vanished. Had she been born under other circumstances, and had not her beauty been her curse, the world, we are told, would now have been mourning one of the sweetest poetesses of all time. For this gypsy woman was the author of some two hundred and fifty poems—passionate, stirring, and melodious. All, however, are set in a minor key, for the Muse, it seems, deserted her wholly in those moments when her heart might have sung of joy and gladness. Her life had been full of adventure. How old she was, she did not herself know. At the age of twelve, or thereabouts, she had strayed away from some nomadic tribe in Servia, persecuted by the soldiers for its thefts. Reaching Belgrade, she was befriended and adopted by a wealthy Armenian merchant, who took her with him to Constantinople. Through him she obtained some education. Later on, the merchant's younger brother, Gabriel Dalenes, a man much her senior, married her, and for some years she lived with him in luxury, meanwhile pouring out the unsatisfied longings of her love-sick heart in passionate Armenian, Turkish, and Romany poems. One day she met her fate in a young Albanian, named Gregor Korachon, who induced her to elope with him, afterward telling her that her husband had been found murdered, and that she was suspected of the crime. From this time onward, the life of the beautiful gypsy became a checkered one, in which were woven many amours. Her last lover, who appears to have been honestly and passionately fond of her, was a rich Jew, named Jakob Hornstein. He was a cultured man, devoted to science, art, and literature, and possessed a splendid library.

Needs of the Dutch Army.—*Onze Eeuw* (Haarlem), the Dutch monthly review, has a study of the army of the Netherlands and its organization. This army, the writer believes, is not strong enough for an independent power. It is especially weak in artillery. How to increase the effective strength of the army without swelling the cost, is the problem that the writer seeks to solve. One of his suggestions is the introduction of volunteers; another is to give the soldiers time to attend to work, so that conscription may not entail the disadvantages shown in some other countries, where a young man's commercial career may be spoiled by having to serve two years just when he is able to take a responsible position.

SCIENCE IN FOREIGN PERIODICALS.

The Automobile on Water.—A description of what it calls naval automobilism is given in the scientific department of *La Revue*. It quotes some French scientific writer as declaring that the automobile will play an important *rôle* in future maritime wars. This writer calculates that a steam torpedo boat, costing from a million to a million and a half francs ($300,000 to $5[illegible]0,000), would carry twenty men. An automobile torpedo boat of the same or greater speed would not cost more than 37,000 to 38,000 francs ($7,400 to $7,600). Six boats of this kind could carry as many men as one operated under the present system; that is, for the price of one steam torpedo boat, as at present constructed, nations could have six torpedo boats carrying six times as many men.

Artificial Coloring of Natural Flowers.—According to a long scientific article in *Cosmos*, natural flowers are successfully colored by artificial means in France and other European countries. More than a century ago, the writer points out, tuberoses were colored red by artificial means. To-day, thanks to our knowledge of organic coloring matter, the violet, jacinth, orange blossom, iris, chrysanthemum, and the camellia are now susceptible of color changes. The method is quite simple. It consists simply in the preparation of a solution of the desired color in water, in which the flower is plunged.

A French Dish-Washing Invention.—In the *Hojas Selectas* (Barcelona) is described and illustrated a simple and practical dish-washer invented by Paul Hédon, of Roubaix, France. It consists of a circular galvanized-iron tank with a heater at the bottom. A removable rack with compartments for securely holding the dishes is in large models raised by a cable attached to a pulley arrangement. When the water is heated, the dishes are inserted and the rack lowered. A few turns of a crank washes both sides of the dishes by means of brushes and rapidly moving water. Raising the rack and removing the clean dishes, the operation is then repeated. The domestic size takes four dishes at once, and will wash eight a minute, or five hundred an hour. The larger sizes for hotels and institutions contain twelve to twenty-four dishes, and have a capacity of fifteen hundred an hour. Forks and spoons may be washed as well. Without the rack, the machine can be used as a vegetable washer.

The Electric Conductivity of the Human Body.—Whereas measurements of the conductivity of the human body once upon a time were frequently made use of with a view to ascertaining the sound or morbid condition of the latter, this practice has been gradually abandoned as the great variability of the conductivity and the special difficulties attending an accurate determination were realized. The observations recently made by Mr. E. K. Müller (see the *Schweizerische Elektrotechnische Zeitschrift*) on the connection between the conductivity of the human body and its psychical and physiological condition are therefore worthy of special interest. Mr. Müller shows, in the first place, the high variability of the conductivity of the body according to the hour of the day at which the experiment is made, and according to the meals taken by the person experimented on. Accurately identical figures will occur very frequently in series of experiments lasting from ten to fifteen minutes with the same minutes and the same person, even in the case of experiments separated by an interval of some days. The magnitude of the conductivity, as well as the regularity in the behavior of the different series, are highly influenced by the presence of a third person; whenever anybody enters the room or a noise is produced, the resistance of the person experimented on is found to undergo a spontaneous variation of extraordinary magnitude. Outside of objective causes, any psychical influence, either internal or external, will result in an immediate oscillation of a sometimes enormous magnitude. Any sensation or psychical emotion of a certain intensity will reduce the resistance of the human body instantaneously to a value three to five times less. Whenever the person experimented on is talked to or caused to concentrate his attention in some way or other, oscillations of the resistance will be produced. Any effort made for hearing a distant noise, any volition, any effect of self-suggestion, will exert a material influence, the same being true of any excitation of the senses, any light rays striking the closed eye, any body the smell of which is perceived (even where the smell or the body is fictitious). Any psychological action of some intensity, such as breathing, stopping the breath, etc., is found to exert an analogous effect. By making experiments both before and during the sleep, the author states some characteristical variations according to the character of the latter and the vivacity of the dreams. Any pain, either real or suggested, will modify the resistance, the sensation of pain being preceded and followed by an oscillation. The individual resistance of the human body depends also on the nervous susceptibility, and on the conditions the person is living in. Nervous persons, as well as strong smokers and drinkers, show an extremely low electrical resistance. The variability and temporary behavior of the resistance is also shown to depend on these factors.

Half a Century of the French Alcohol Trade.—An extended study of the manufacture of alcohol and the trade in that product in France, from 1850 to 1903, is given in a recent number of the *Bulletin des Statistiques*. In the first-named year, we are informed that the manufacture of alcohol was 940 hectoliters, while in 1900 the figures were 2,656,000 hectoliters. In 1854, the price of alcohol reached its maximum—214 francs per hectoliter. In 1902, the price of pure alcohol was at its lowest point—31 francs ($6.20) per hectoliter.

Chemical Industry in Japan.—According to a Japanese Government publication, there are at present 840 factories manufacturing chemical products in the Japanese Empire. This number includes, not only the chemical factories in the strict sense of the word, but also gives manufactories, paper mills, and factories for the manufacture of ceramic products. There are 75 factories making salt; 43, pharmaceutical products; 95, illuminating oils; 40, matches; 53, coloring products; 4, gas; 6, incense. The entire industry in Japan employs 38,591 workers, of whom 19,583 are women. The government conducted, in 1902, seventy-nine laboratories for the utilization of fish products,

RECENT BIOGRAPHY AND MEMOIRS.

THERE is no little significance in the fact that almost two-thirds of the "Recollections and Letters of General Robert E. Lee," by his son, Robert E. Lee (Doubleday), is devoted to the great Confederate commander's all too brief life as a private citizen,—the five years that he was able to give, after the close of the Civil War, to the upbuilding of his shattered country and the education of her youth. If Robert E. Lee



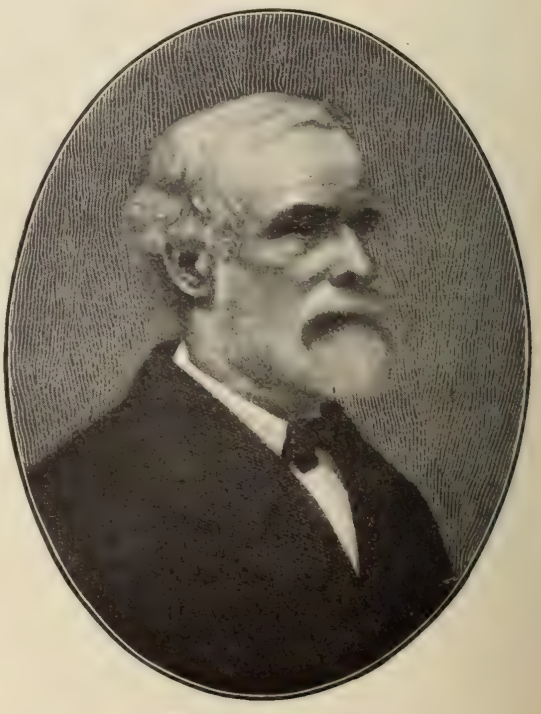
MRS. ROGER A. PRYOR.

(From a miniature painted in Rome in 1855.)

was a great military chieftain,—and who can name a greater since Washington?—he was even a nobler leader in the walks of peace. One cannot read this book without being convinced of the man's disinterested motives and nobility of character, nor can we wonder that he developed qualities of leadership that might have meant much for the South's civic advancement had he survived the "reconstruction" era. General Lee's son and namesake, the author of this volume, was himself a captain in the Confederate army.

General Gordon's "Reminiscences" had presented the military side of the Confederacy's struggle in some of its phases more fully than earlier works of that class, nor is much added to that aspect of the subject by General Lee's family letters. Military memoirs of a high order are contained in the volume entitled "Four Years Under Marse Robert," by Maj. Robert Stiles, of Lee's artillery (Washington and New York: Neale Publishing Company). Not only does this book give a clear account of the actual movements of the Army of Northern Virginia, but the daily life of the soldier in the ranks is vividly described. Northern veterans may find much entertainment in this well-written story of "Johnny Reb's" ups and downs.

In Mrs. Roger A. Pryor's "Reminiscences of Peace and War" (Macmillan) are presented other phases of the great conflict of 1861–65. The wife of a Virginian who became a Confederate general, Mrs. Pryor kept her home near Petersburg, within range of the Union shells, through all the fighting. None knew better than she the privations of the Confederate women and other non-combatants. None has told the story of those bitter years more sympathetically or with more delicate touches of humor. The first part of her book is given up to an exceedingly interesting account of social life in Washington before the war, in which Mrs. Pryor herself played a prominent part, her husband being a member of the federal Congress. After Lee's surrender, General Pryor (who had resigned his commission in 1862 and served in the ranks until taken prisoner by the Federals) went to New York, and achieved distinction in the practice of law, serving for some years as a justice of the Supreme Court. The



GEN. ROBERT E. LEE.

lives of these Virginians, filled as they have been with dramatic incident, are yet only typical of many careers which were wrenched from their natural courses by the strain of the Civil War.

Even the frankest of autobiography sometimes hesitates to reveal the inconsistencies and contradictions in the subject's career. Not so with Moncure Daniel Conway's "Autobiography, Memoirs, and Experiences" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). In Mr. Conway's case, indeed, to have left out the contradictions would have



MONCURE D. CONWAY.

been like leaving *Hamlet* out of the play. A son of slave-holding Virginians, he became, in the strength of his youth, an Abolitionist,—a Methodist preacher of the early fifties, he lived to attain leadership among the "freethinkers" of two continents. Fully half of his mature life was passed in England, where he served as a Unitarian clergyman and took a hand in London journalism. An early associate of Emerson, Thoreau, Holmes, Hawthorne, and Theodore Parker, this unanglicized American before many years had passed enjoyed the friendship of Thackeray, Burne-Jones, Gladstone, Beaconsfield, and Palmerston. Perhaps no other living American has had such an experience, and few there are who know so intimately the inner life of the two nationalities. A man who has lived in such times and amid such associations must from the nature of the case have an interesting story to tell. Fortunately, Mr. Conway is too good a literary craftsman to let the story suffer in the telling.

Edward Everett Hale's "Memories of a Hundred Years," two volumes in one, have been issued (Macmillan) in a new edition with three additional chapters, which round up a life still almost twenty years short of a century, it is true, but unusually full, comprehensive, and rich in incident. Most of the material appeared originally in the *Outlook* some time ago. It has since been revised and enlarged. The volume is packed full of reminiscences, anecdotes, and most interesting portraits of famous people whom Mr. Hale has known personally in the course of his long life,—how long may be vividly imagined from the fact that he took five-o'clock tea at the White House with Mrs. President John Tyler, in 1841.

In the "English Men of Letters" series, which is edited by Mr. John Morley (Macmillan), the latest addition is the life of Thomas Hobbes, of Malmesbury, author of the "Leviathan," written by the late Sir Leslie Stephen. In the same series there recently appeared a new life of Adam Smith, the economist, by Francis W. Hirst.

The publication of Herbert Spencer's autobiography seems to have stimulated rather than discouraged the writing of reviews and estimates of his life-work. The latest attempt in this line is a little book by Prof. Josiah Royce, of Harvard (New York: Fox, Duffield & Co.). Perhaps no living scholar, certainly no American scholar, is better qualified to write on "Spencer's Contribution to the Concept of Evolution," or on his educational theories, than Professor Royce. These essays are the more valuable because they have been written since the publication of the autobiography. By way of personal reminiscence of Spencer, a chapter is contributed to the same volume by James Collier, who was for nine years the amanuensis, and for ten years the assistant, of Herbert Spencer.

A new edition of Mathilde Blind's "George Eliot," one of the best-known biographies of the famous novelist, contains a critical estimate of George Eliot's writings, supplementary chapters on "George Eliot at Work" and "Her Friends and Home Life," and a bibliography, by Frank Waldo and G. A. Turkington (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.). The material that has come to light since the appearance of the first edition, more than twenty years ago, seemed to require the publication of this expanded volume.

A pleasant chapter in Thackeray's life is disclosed by his "Letters to an American Family" (Century Company). These letters were written in the years 1852–56. About half of them bear American dates, for in this period Thackeray was a visitor to the United States; and the revelation which these letters make of his interest in Americans and American institutions is the chief claim that they have on our present attention. Numerous unpublished sketches and bits of verse accompany the letters.

Kindly your virgin life's begun
And still, we pray, that Heaven may send
A genial air, a ripening sun,
A happy time a happy end.
Fair child of Spring! wher'er your place,
In father's hall, or husband's home,
Live on, expanding into bloome,
Developing in modest grace!

W. M. T.

LINES WRITTEN BY THACKERAY TO AN AMERICAN GIRL.

"Dames and Daughters of the French Court" (Crowell) is the title of a volume made up of readable sketches of Mesdames de Staël, de Lafayette, Récamier, Le Brun, and other notable French women. The writer, Miss Geraldine Brooks, had already shown her ability in portraiture through her "Dames and Daughters of Colonial Days" and "Dames and Daughters of the Young Republic." The new book, like the others, is charmingly written.

NEW VOLUMES OF HISTORY.

"THE United States of America," in two volumes, by Dr. Edwin Erle Sparks (Putnams), is not a history at all in the usual sense of the term, but rather a commentary on history. All readers will find the book interesting, and to many it will give a wholly new point of view for the consideration of American history. What that point of view is has been clearly brought out in the earlier works by this author. Dr. Sparks prefers to treat American history as the story of our national expansion. The work of individual statesmen and military heroes is never so strongly emphasized in his books as is the play of natural forces resulting in the steady and persistent growth of national institutions. A suitable sub-title of his present work would be "A Study of National Development." Much interest is imparted to the text by the skillful use of illustrative materials. Facsimiles of ancient records, broadsides, and cartoons serve to enforce the discussion of topics which otherwise might lack the atmosphere of actuality.

A beautifully printed "History of the United States and Its People," by Elroy M. Avery, is just issuing from the press (Cleveland: The Burrows Brothers Company). This work is to be completed in twelve volumes, the first four of which will be devoted to the period of discovery and colonization; the fifth to the War of the Revolution; the next five to the period of national development and expansion, extending from the adoption of the Constitution to the outbreak of the Civil War; a single volume to that war itself, and the final volume to "reconstruction" and the subsequent history of the nation down to the present time. We would especially commend in this work the faithful effort of the author and publishers to secure accuracy, not only in the text, but in the many maps and illustrations which are interspersed throughout the work. While foot-notes have been omitted from the pages,—and for this readers will be generally disposed to give thanks,—there is an abundance of bibliographical data in the form of appendices, which all scholars, and those who wish to pursue historical investigations, will find particularly useful. The fact that especial pains have been taken to secure authenticity in the illustrations adds greatly to the interest of the work, as well as to its instructive value. The maps, also, are more satisfactory than those which commonly appear in American works of this character.

The third volume of Mr. Lang's "History of Scotland" (Dodd, Mead & Co.) begins with the reign of Charles I. (1625), and describes in much detail the wars of the Scotlanders and other uprisings down to the year 1689. Several maps of battlefields accompany the text. Mr. Lang's history is not a bare narrative of events, but includes much discussion of a personal character and many accounts of romantic adventures.

In a three-volume work entitled "The History of Matrimonial Institutions" (Chicago: University of Chicago Press), Prof. George E. Howard deals chiefly with the matrimonial institutions of the English race, prefacing his treatment of the subject with an analysis of the literature and the theories of primitive matrimonial institutions. Professor Howard's treatise covers practically every phase of the subject that calls for treatment, and gives elaborate biographical data relating, not only to the institution of marriage itself, but to almost every conceivable phase of the sex problem that has been treated in our literature. In view of the present interest in the divorce question, it is probable that Dr. Howard's volume will be read by an increasing number of students.

In "The Political History of Virginia During the Reconstruction" (Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press), Mr. Hamilton J. Eckenrode concerns himself almost altogether with the political parties of the reconstruction era. He relates the history of the Alexandria government, about which very little is known beyond the borders of Virginia, and discusses quite fully President Johnson's attitude toward the Southern States at the close of the Civil War; while not the least interesting portion of his monograph is the chapter in which he shows that the Republican party in Virginia was for the most part opposed to unlimited negro suffrage, until the Philadelphia convention of 1866, when "manhood" suffrage became a party measure. Mr. Eckenrode maintains that the reconstruction, as he calls it, of Virginia was due to the joint action of the conservatives and of the Republicans hostile to extreme radicalism.

In "A History of Military Government in Newly Acquired Territory of the United States" (New York: Columbia University Press), Prof. David Y. Thomas discusses, not only the legal status of the new territory and the legal basis for military government, but also presents an account of the actual management of new acquisitions from the time of occupation until the organization of Territorial or State governments. Dr. Thomas contents himself with a statement of the facts connected with our military occupation of Porto Rico and the Philippines, and attempts to give no verdict as to the character and accomplishments of the military governments.

"Last Hours of Sheridan's Cavalry," by Henry E. Tremain (New York: Bonnell, Silver & Bowers), is a reprint of memoranda made by General Tremain during or soon after the close of the Civil War. These notes, which were said to contain many facts that would not elsewhere have been presented to the public, were rescued from oblivion by Gen. John Watts de Peyster, to whom the present volume is dedicated by the author. Additional chapters more recently prepared by General Tremain are incorporated in the same volume.

In commemoration of the one-hundred-and-fiftieth anniversary of the founding of King's College in New York City, a history of Columbia University has been prepared (New York: University of Columbia Press). This work has been done under the direction of an editorial committee, of which Prof. Brander Matthews was chairman. The histories of King's College and Columbia College, the university and the non-professional graduate schools, the professional schools, the affiliated colleges, and the library are separately traced, and the appendix has a brief account of the Greek-letter fraternities at Columbia. Nothing could better illustrate than this volume the multifarious interests of the present-day Columbia in its new home on Morningside Heights as contrasted with the humble beginnings of King's College in the middle of the eighteenth century.

DESCRIPTIONS OF PEOPLES AND COUNTRIES.

AN English rendering of Mr. Hugo Ganz's "Land of Riddles" (meaning Russia) has been made by Mr. Herman Rosenthal, and published by the Harpers. The book is made up of a series of sketches, the result of a special visit by Mr. Ganz, who is a well-known Viennese journalist and review writer, and who, moreover, was provided with the best of introductions to various circles of Russian society. Mr. Ganz found Russia a land of remarkable contradictions, his general impression being that she is content to remain in a state of semi-barbarism which might be looked for in the Middle Ages. Even the conservatives, the supposed supporters of the autocratic *régime*, this Austrian journalist found to be fully aware of the rotten condition of Russian political and economic life. The majority of thinking Russians, he ascertained, are hoping for defeat at the hands of Japan, in order that some measure of reform may be realized. One prominent governmental official was quoted as saying: "If God helps us, we shall lose the war in the East. Do not allow yourself to be deceived by any official preparations. Every good Russian prays, 'God help us and permit us to be beaten.'" Mr. Rosenthal's translation is excellently well done. The style is smooth and interesting. It is a little unfortunate that the book was not placed on the American market before the assassination of von Plehve and the birth of an heir to the imperial throne, since conditions in the empire have been altered to a certain extent by these events. As the translator declares in his preface, however, it is evident that, even with the best of intentions, the new minister of the interior will hardly be able to effect much improvement until the entire system of the Russian Government is changed.

A descriptive volume about one of the most interesting of the extreme Oriental countries has appeared under the title "The Kingdom of Siam" (Putnams), prepared by the Siamese ministry of agriculture, as

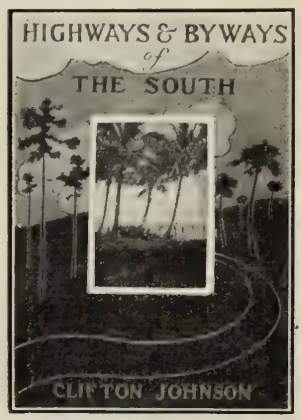


THE KING AND QUEEN OF SIAM.

represented at the St. Louis Exposition, the whole work being edited by Mr. A. Cecil Carter, secretary-general of the Royal Siamese Commission. This volume is adequate and comprehensive—and, of course, authoritative. It is copiously illustrated.

"Roma Beata" is the title of a book descriptive of modern Italian life, written by Maud Howe (Mrs. John Elliott), the youngest daughter of Mrs. Julia Ward Howe (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.). Mrs. Elliott is the wife of an American artist, and has lived much in Rome; and the materials for her book were drawn from letters and diaries written during several summers spent in Rome, Tuscany, and other parts of Italy. Mrs. Elliott has recorded her observations of Italian life in an entertaining manner, and has observed closely the features most likely to interest the American reader. The book is illustrated from drawings by Mr. Elliott and from photographs.

An interesting souvenir of General Grant's tour of the Nile is a book written by the Hon. Elbert E. Farman, formerly United States consul at Cairo (New York: Grafton Press). This work not only preserves a full account of what to General and Mrs. Grant was a memorable journey, but abounds in important information concerning a part of the world with which Mr. Farman became familiar through years of residence and close association. American visitors to the Nile country are more numerous in these days than they were at the time of General Grant's journey, and they are likely to find many helpful suggestions in Mr. Farman's book, which is illustrated from photographs.



Cover design (reduced).

The scene of Mr. Clifton Johnson's latest rambles was in our own Southland. In a volume entitled "Highways and Byways of the South" (Macmillan), he gives a record of his impressions as transmitted by both pen and camera. Mr. Johnson in this volume hardly touches on the town-life or the manufacturing interests of the South, and he leaves the field of romance and sentiment largely to the novelists, contenting himself with the commonplace phases of existence in the fields and woodlands, the small villages, and among the scattered farmhouses, writing almost wholly of rustic life and nature.

In a little book entitled "Far and Near" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), Mr. John Burroughs treats of Alaska, which he visited several years ago as a member of the Harriman Expedition; of the island of Jamaica, and of the wild life around his own cabin in the Hudson River region. Everybody is pleased that the prediction made by Mr. Burroughs in the preface to "Riverby," that that would be his last outdoor book, has failed of fulfillment. His many readers will rejoice in the promise made in the preface of the present volume of another book in the course of the coming year.

A study of the "New Forces in Old China" (Revell), by Arthur Judson Brown has just been issued in book form. Dr. Brown is author of "The New Era in the Philippines," and has contributed a number of articles

to the pages of this REVIEW, one entitled "The Opened World," appearing in the October number. What will come of the unwelcome but inevitable awakening of Old China? And will the outer world strangle her, or galvanize her into fresh life? This is Dr. Brown's text.

A volume on "Swedish Life in Town and Country," which the Putnams have just issued in their series "Our European Neighbors," has been written by O. G. von Heidenstan. The general plan of this series has already been described in this magazine. The volume on Swedish life appears well up to the average, and, moreover, has evidently been prepared by a patriotic Swede.

George William Knox has written the volume "Japanese Life in Town and Country" for the series "Our Asiatic Neighbors" (Putnams). Dr. Knox has nothing very new to say about the Japanese, but his volume is a succinct summary of Japanese history, religion, and life. It is illustrated.

Busy men who overestimate the amount of time, money, and preliminary preparation required for a trip abroad will find a good many helpful suggestions and a great deal of interesting reading in John U. Higenbotham's "Three Weeks in Europe" (Herbert S. Stone). This little volume, which is illustrated from snap-shots taken by the author, is built up on a series of notes; in fact, the author's diary. It opens with an itinerary which shows what can be done in a six weeks' vacation, nineteen days of which were spent on the ocean. The author saw a great deal, and evidently appreciated it. The pictures are good.



Illustration (reduced) from "The Romance of Modern Exploration."

A book that may be placed without apology in every boy's library, and many a young girl might welcome it too, is the "Romance of Modern Exploration" (Lippincott), of which the sub-title, "with descriptions of curious customs, thrilling adventures, and interesting discoveries of explorers in all parts of the world," is more truthful than many sub-titles. It is by Archibald Williams. It has no less than twenty-six chapters, and almost as many illustrations.

NEW VOLUMES OF SHAKESPEARIANA.

IT is a very unusual book season which does not count among its literary contributions at least half-a-dozen volumes of Shakespeariana. Among the texts of the present season are "Love's Labour's Lost" and "Macbeth," in the Variorum Shakespeare, edited by Dr. Horace Furness. This edition is issued by the Lippincotts, and each volume has at least one illustration from an old print, generally reproduced from Rowe's edition of 1709, for the sake of the costume. Other new editions are "Romeo and Juliet" and "As You Like It" in the "Thumb Nail Series" (Century Co.). The latter follow the Cambridge text, have frontispiece illustrations, and are handsomely bound in embossed leather.

A new edition of Dr. William J. Rolfe's monumental "Life of Shakespeare" has been issued by Dana Estes. Dr. Rolfe's work is too well known to need characterization here. This edition is an excellent one typographically, and the illustrations, which are etchings and photogravures, are particularly noteworthy. The same publisher brings out Alexander Dyce's Shakespeare glossary. This one-volume edition of the work of the famous English clergyman and Shakespearean critic (1798–1869) has been revised and improved as a work of reference. Both volumes are excellent typographically.

Readers of the *Outlook* will remember Mr. Hamilton Wright Mabie's life of Shakespeare, which appeared serially in that publication some years ago. This has been recast and published in book form under the title "William Shakespeare, Poet, Dramatist, and Man" (Macmillan). Mr. Mabie has succeeded in presenting a more vivid picture of the man Shakespeare than any other modern writer.



DR. WILLIAM J. ROLFE.

Mr. A. Hamilton Thompson, the English critic, has edited the late Sir Isaac Elton's "William Shakespeare:

His Family and Friends" (Dutton), and Andrew Lang has written a memoir of the author. This work is a large and scholarly one, with perhaps more of detail about the great poet's life and surroundings than would be essential to such an idea of the man himself as is given by Mr. Mabie in his picture. Mr. Elton's volume, however, will be welcomed by scholars.

A very attractive volume of Shakespeariana is Anna Jameson's "Shakespeare's Heroines" (Dutton), which is a series of character pictures of the great poet's women, illustrated (partly in color) by W. Paget. The text is plentifully sprinkled with appropriate quotations from the poet.

Of actual studies of the texts, perhaps the most noteworthy publication of the season is Mr. William H. Fleming's "How to Study Shakespeare," series four, comprising studies of the plays "Richard II.," "Cymbeline," first and second parts of "King Henry IV.," and the "Taming of the Shrew," which has just been issued (Doubleday, Page), with an introduction by Dr. William J. Rolfe. Mr. Fleming is the author of "A Bibliography of the First Folios" and a number of well-known Shakespeare editions, among them the famous Bankside edition.

Dr. H. C. Beeching's edition of Shakespeare sonnets, in the Athenæum Press Series (Ginn), is addressed primarily to students of Elizabethan literature. All the recent theories of the sonnet are discussed, and a number of historical and explanatory notes are appended.

In the "Stories from Shakespeare's Plays for Children," retold by Alice Spencer Hoffman (published by Dent, of London, and imported by Dutton), we have seen "The Story of the Tempest," with illustrations by Walter Crane, and "The Story of King Richard II.," with illustrations by Dora Curtis.

POEMS—NEW EDITIONS AND CRITICISM.

DR. HENRY VAN DYKE'S verse is perhaps not so well known as his prose, but the same felicity of thought and polish of style that characterize his beautiful, clear-cut tales are qualities also of his poems. To the two volumes already issued, "The Toiling of Felix and Other Poems" and "The Builders and Other Poems," Dr. van Dyke has added "Music and Other Poems" (Scribners). Dr. van Dyke's creed is given in the poem "God of the Open Air," in the prayer "Lead me out of the narrow life to the peace of the hills and the skies, God of the open air."

There is a wholesomeness and light-heartedness about Mr. Frank Dempster Sherman's lyrics not usually found in the verse of the magazine poets. Mr. Sherman's third book of verse, "Lyrics of Joy" (Houghton, Mifflin), has just appeared. There is a great deal of promise and much performance in this volume of verse. The same spirit is breathed from Mrs. Mary Mapes Dodge's work. Her latest collection of verse, "Poems and Verses" (Century), is full, also, of the human sympathy which has made her writings so popular in the past.

The poems of that rising young negro poet, William Stanley Braithwaite, have been collected under the general title "Lyrics of Life and Love" (Herbert B. Turner). Mr. Braithwaite's verse is musical, clear, and forceful.

Mr. Frederic Lawrence Knowles can write poetry as well as collect and criticise it. His "Love Triumphant" (Dana Estes) is a noteworthy little collection of lyrics of love, religion, and patriotism.

Among other noteworthy collections of verse, "Poems, Lyric and Dramatic," by Ethel Louise Cox (Richard G. Badger), should be mentioned.

A new translation from the original of Dante's "Inferno," with a commentary, has been made by Dr. Marvin R. Vincent, professor of sacred literature in the Union Theological Seminary (Scribners). Dr. Vincent announces that he has made a literal translation based on the Oxford text of Dr. Moore. His aim, he declares, has been to help make the study of Dante what it should be,—a part of the curriculum of every theological institution. The "Purgatorio," he announces, is almost ready for the press.

Mr. Frank L. Stanton's "Little Folks Down South" (Appletons) is like a dose of warm sunshine. The bright, optimistic verses "Just from Georgia" which have been coming to us for a number of years are among the few newspaper poems that have been well worth doing. The keynote of this little book may be found in the stanza:

"Why should a fellow
Of winter complain
When love leads the roses
To sunshine again."



MR. FRANK L. STANTON.

Mr. William Everett's "Italian Poets Since Dante" (Scribners), consisting of a series of lectures, would make good supplementary reading to Dr. Vincent's study of the "Inferno."

A study and analysis of English poetry, with representative masterpieces and notes, has been prepared by Dr. Charles Mills Gayley, professor of English in the University of California, and Clement C. Young, of the Lowell High School, San Francisco, under the title "The Principles and Progress of English Poetry" (Macmillan). This book is designed to serve, not only as a manual for students and teachers, but for the general reader.

E. W. Mumford's "Smiles and Rimes" (Penn Publishing Co.) is a collection of grotesque more or less clever verse of the sort known as limericks.

A very handsome edition of Mrs. Browning's "Sonnets from the Portuguese," with illustrations and decorations by Adrian J. Iorio, has been issued by H. M. Caldwell. It is bound in white and gold.

SOCIOLOGY, ECONOMICS, AND POLITICS.

THE widespread interest in practical sociology is made manifest in the large number of books dealing with various phases of this science that are constantly coming from the press. One of the most important scientific treatises of this character recently written is Dr. Edward T. Devine's volume on "The Principles of Relief" (Macmillan). Dr. Devine, whose experience as general secretary of the New York Charity Organization Society has put him in close touch with the most practical aspects of this subject, gives in this volume, in addition to a succinct statement of the principles of charity relief, a clear exposition of many illustrative cases that have come within his own observation, together with an historical survey of England's experience with the poor law, and of public and private outdoor relief in America. There are also interesting chapters describing the actual process of relief in great disasters that have befallen this country, from the Chicago fire, in 1871, to the *Slocum* disaster of last June. An appendix contains a model draft of a constitution for a charity organization society. Thus, Dr. Devine's book is a manual at once of theory and of practice.



DR. EDWARD T. DEVINE.

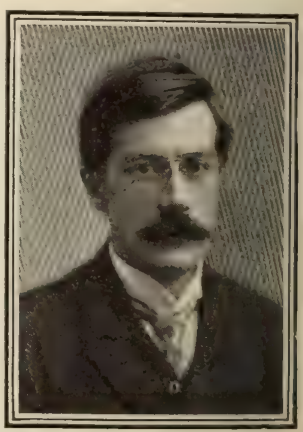
"Out of Work" is the title of an interesting study of employment agencies, by Miss Frances A. Kellor (Putnams). In this volume, Miss Kellor describes the treatment to which the unemployed are subjected by employment agencies, and the influence of such institutions upon homes and business. The book is published for the Inter-Municipal Committee of Household Research. Miss Kellor began her researches for this work in the city of New York, two years ago, but extended them to the cities of Boston, Philadelphia, and Chicago, under a fellowship of the College Settlements Association. Miss Kellor's investigations in New York City, which were supported by members of the Woman's Municipal League, resulted in the enactment of a new State law regulating employment agencies. The value of Miss Kellor's book lies largely in the undoubted authenticity of the information on which it is based. For each one of the seven hundred and thirty-two agencies visited by her, there is a record, affidavit, or other documentary evidence. The book should be read by all who are interested in reforming the abuses of employment agencies in American cities.

Under the title "Organized Labor and Capital" (Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs Company) are published four lectures on the William L. Bull foundation of the Philadelphia Divinity School, delivered during the past year. The introductory lecture, reviewing the past phases of the labor question, was delivered by the Rev. Dr. Washington Gladden. The subject assigned to Dr. Talcott Williams was corporations, while the Rev. George Hodges dealt with labor unions, and Dr. Francis G. Peabody set forth the people's side in the modern industrial conflict.

Mr. H. G. Wells has been taking a sort of inventory of sociological values, and the results of this process are presented in his book entitled "Mankind in the Making" (Scribners), which bears a relation of sequence to the same author's "Anticipations." Mr. Wells views the whole social and political world as "aspects of one universal evolving scheme," and places all social and political activities in a defined relation to that. His presentation of this point of view is, to say the least, suggestive.

All who have become familiar, through her magazine articles and books, with Mrs. Charlotte Perkins Gilman's social theories will be glad to have her conclusions summarized in a single volume. This she has done in "Human Work" (McClure, Phillips & Co.). Mrs. Gilman is to be reckoned among the comparatively few writers who are avowed social optimists.

Mr. W. J. Ghent, author of "Our Benevolent Feudalism," has written "Mass and Class: A Survey of Social Divisions" (Macmillan). In his present work, Mr. Ghent seeks to "analyze the social mass into its component classes; to describe these classes, not as they may be imagined in some projected benevolent feudalism, but as they are to be found here and now in the industrial life of the nation; and to indicate the current of social progress which, in spite of the blindness of the workers, the rapacity of the masters, and the subservience of the retainers, makes ever for an ultimate of social justice."



MR. W. J. GHENT.

"The Education of the Wage Earners" (Boston: Ginn & Co.) is the title of a little book which describes an educational experiment among wage-earners on the East Side of New York which resulted from a few lectures delivered by the late Thomas Davidson. The editor, Mr. Charles M. Bakewell, contributes an introductory chapter on Professor Davidson and his philosophy. Perhaps the most interesting part of the book is Professor Davidson's own account of the history of the experiment, which is given in Chapter IV.

In a volume published under the title "Facts and Figures" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), Mr. Edward Atkinson has collected several essays on the protective tariff and the cost of war and warfare.

Dr. Herbert Friedenwald has written an interpretation and analysis of "The Declaration of Independence" (Macmillan). As preliminary to his chapters on the adopting and signing of the Declaration, its purpose and philosophy, Dr. Friedenwald points out the close interrelation between the development of the authority and jurisdiction of the Continental Congress and the evolution of the sentiment for independence. He shows that as the authority and jurisdiction of Congress were extended it adopted various means to further the desire for independence; that the highest point of power was reached by the Congress on July 4, 1776, and that it was never again so powerful as on the day it declared independence of England.

It is in some respects unfortunate that Prof. Jesse Macy's book on "Party Organization and Machinery" (Century) could not have appeared at the beginning of the recent Presidential campaign instead of at its close. It would have been an extremely helpful book to put in the hands of first-voters. In certain quarters there has been no little criticism of American academic methods in political instruction, on the ground that the actual processes of government are not taught in the college or university class-rooms, or set forth in text-books. Professor Macy has attempted to fill this hiatus in a measure by treating of the American party system as an integral part of our political institutions. He describes party organization in its relation to Presidential, Congressional, and Senatorial leadership. In the presentation of State and local party machinery, certain typical States and localities were chosen for illustrating different phases of organization. Professor Macy emphasizes the necessity for thorough knowledge of party machinery, since this is the citizen's only means of access to other instruments of government. "The good citizens who do not believe in the party system should be made to realize that the maintenance of an attitude of aggressive ignorance toward the means of government now in use tends to render it extremely improbable that a superior agency will be discovered."



PROFESSOR JESSE MACY.

MUSIC AND MUSICAL INTERPRETATION.

THE musical season has brought with it the usual number of books about music and musicians. Mr. Lawrence Gilman's "Phases of Modern Music" (Harpers) is a study of the more important phases of music to-day, grouped about appreciative chapters on Richard Strauss, Edward MacDowell, Grieg, Wagner, Verdi, Edward Elgar, and Charles Martin Loeffler, with vigorous essays on "Parsifal and Its Significance" and "Women and Modern Music." Mr. Gilman has been the musical critic of *Harper's Weekly* since 1901. He writes with vividness and sympathy.

A sympathetic study of "The Symphony Since Beethoven," by Felix Weingartner, conductor of the Berlin Royal Symphony concerts, and of the Kaim Orchestra, at Munich, has been translated from the second German edition (Ditson) by Maud Barrows Dutton, with the author's permission. Dr. Weingartner regards Beethoven as unapproachable, and has only pity for modern composers who have attempted the symphony since Beethoven's time. It is interesting to note the fact that he himself, after writing this little book, composed two symphonies.

A manual of the analysis of the structural forms of music, under the title "Lessons in Music Form" (Ditson), has been compiled by Mr. Percy Goetschius, author of "The Theory and Practice of Tone Relation," "Applied Counterpoint," and other analytical works on music. This manual, he declares, treats of the structural designs of musical composition, not of the styles or species of music.

Of course, there is a book on "Parsifal." Mr. Richard Aldrich, in his "Guide to Parsifal" (Ditson), has given in brief space the origin of the drama, its story, and a description of the music, with illustrations from photographs taken of the opera as rendered last year in the Metropolitan Opera House, New York.

The best and most comprehensive dictionary of music is still the pioneer one,—that which first appeared in 1878, by Sir Charles Grove. "Grove's Dictionary of Music and Musicians" has become a standard work without a rival. This work, slightly revised and brought down to date, with many full-page illustrations, is now being issued by the Macmillans in five large volumes, edited by J. A. Fuller Maitland. All Sir Charles Grove's wishes made before his death have been carried out in these new volumes, and the scope of the dictionary has been enlarged. There has been no attempt, the editor says, in his preface, to usurp the field of the "British Musical Biography." Careful selection has made the work contain every important name in music without weighting it down with "the claims of the average country organist." The first volume has just come from the press. It brings the dictionary down to the letter "F."

Three new volumes of "The Musician's Library" (Ditson) are entitled "Wagner Lyrics for Soprano," "Wagner Lyrics for Tenor," and "Ten Hungarian Rhapsodies," by Franz Liszt. The Wagner lyrics are edited by Carl Armbruster. They contain as frontispieces full-page portraits, with autograph of the composer, and an introduction by the editor. The volume of Hungarian rhapsodies is edited by August Spanuth and John Orth. It also has an excellent portrait of the composer as a frontispiece, an introduction by the editor (in this case Mr. Spanuth), and a series of suggestions to the player. The special claims for these volumes of "The Musician's Library" are that they are "carefully edited by an authority on the subject, who is at the same time an enthusiast," and that they are accurate in text and adequate in typographical form. These claims, it must be admitted, are fully justified. All the volumes of this excellent series are beautifully printed.

ART BOOKS AND CHRISTMAS EDITIONS.

A MINIATURE encyclopædia of "Women in the Fine Arts" (Houghton, Mifflin) has been prepared by Clara Erskine Clement, author of "A Handbook of Legendary and Mythological Art." The work consists of brief biographical and descriptive sketches of women artists and sculptors from the seventh century B.C. to the present. The work is illustrated with many full-page reproductions of famous works of art by women.



"DANIEL BOONE."
(From "Women in the Fine Arts.")

Reproductions of nearly four hundred famous paintings of scenes in the life of Christ are included in the sumptuous collection entitled "The Gospels in Art" (New York: Siegel Cooper Company). The broad claim is made for the publishers that "no school of art and no famous painter through all the centuries from Fra Angelico to Puvis de Chavannes has been omitted." The introductory chapter, on "The History of Art in Its Relation to the Life of Jesus," was contributed by M. Leonce Benedite, director of the Luxembourg. The text relating to the childhood of Jesus was written by Dr. Henry van Dyke.

Miss Sarah Tytler's "Old Masters and Their Pictures" (Little, Brown) is intended to be "a simple account of the great old masters in painting of every age and country, with descriptions of their most famous work." The names and principal works of the masters are given, and also a vast amount of interesting detail respecting their birth, education, and daily life. The twenty full-page illustrations include the masterpieces of Murillo, Andrea del Sarto, Michel Angelo, Raphael, Titian, Mantegna, Albrecht Dürer, Correggio, Tintoretto, Guido, Rembrandt, Rubens, Velasquez, and other famous painters.

To the traveler in Italy for the first time, an Italian garden seems a paradox. It apparently has no flowers, and yet there is a witchery and a magic about Italian garden craft entirely independent from floriculture which is irresistible, and which leaves a permanent impress on the memory. The stone-work, the water, the evergreen foliage, the subtle, masterly artistic arrangement,—these make up the mind-picture. A good deal of this charm has been caught and presented in a book, "Italian Villas and Their Gardens" (Century), by Edith Wharton, illustrated with pictures by Maxfield Parrish, and also by photographs. The illustrations, which are in color, originally appeared in the *Century Magazine*. Mrs. Wharton's work appeals not only to the lover of art and beauty, especially to the one who knows Italian outdoor life, but also to the owners of artistic country places the world over.

The usual collection of attractive new editions of old standard works issued at holiday time by the T. Y. Crowell Company has come to our table.

The Library of Illustrated Biographies is made up of volumes bound in green cloth, with gilt tops. They are very satisfactory typographically, and are illustrated with full-page pictures. The "Life of Edgar Allan Poe" is by James A. Harrison, of the University of Virginia, editor of the standard Virginia Edition of Poe's works. The life of Charlotte Brontë is by Mrs. Gaskell. It includes a choice collection of portraits. The George Eliot life is one arranged and edited by her husband, J. W. Cross, from her own letters and journals. It contains some interesting portraits. Among the famous standard biographies which are issued in new editions are Irving's "Life and Voyages of Christopher Columbus" and "Life of Mahomet and His Successors;" John Lockhart's "Life of Sir Walter Scott," illustrated with a prefatory letter by J. Hope Scott, and the famous "Boswell's Johnson." This, the greatest biography ever written, is for the first time presented in a one-volume edition, which is copiously illustrated and has an introduction by Mowbray Morris. Dean Farrar's "Life of Christ" is also issued in this series, with special illustrations from scenes in the Holy Land. Among the handsome editions of the poets brought out by the same house are the poems of William Morris, selected and edited, with an introduction, by Percy Robert Colwell. Professor Colwell has supplied the volume with excellent bibliography, notes, and indexes. Mr. Nathan Haskell Dole's "Anthology of the Greek Poets" is also issued in holiday edition. In the Luxembourg editions, we have Jane Austen's "Pride and Prejudice," Charles Lever's "Harry Lorrequer," Bulwer-Lytton's "Rienzi," William Ware's "Zenobia," and Le Sage's "Gil Blas." This edition is illustrated. In the Handy Volume Classics, pocket editions, are Matthews' "Songs from the Dramatists," Mabie's "Addison's Essays," Matthews' "Sheridan's Comedies," Welsh's "Chesterfield Letters," and a collection of "The Hundred Best English Poems," selected by Adam L. Gowans. In the "What Is Worth While Series," we are presented with "The Lost Art of Reading," by Dr. W. Robertson Nicoll; "The Inner Life," by J. R. Miller; "How to Bring Up Our Boys," by S. A. Nicoll, and a reprint of Tolstoy's famous letter on the Russo-Japanese war, under the title "Bethink Yourselves!" In the Chiswick series, we have a "Browning Calendar," edited by Constance N. Spender; "The Face of the Master," by J. R. Miller; studies of "Ralph Waldo Emerson" and "Raphael Urbino," by Sarah K. Bolton, and "Richard Wagner," by Nathan Haskell Dole.

Among the holiday editions de luxe by the H. M. Caldwell Company are Tennyson's "Holy Grail," illustrated and ornamented, and bound in uncut leather, and "Selections from Epictetus," in pocket-size flexible binding.

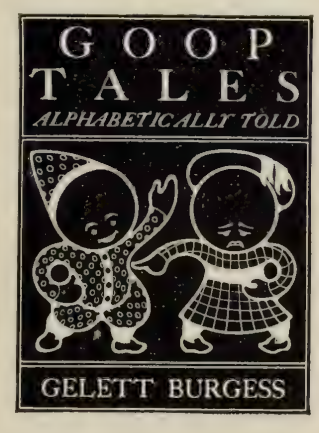
THE SEASON'S BOOKS FOR CHILDREN.

THE holiday season brings the children's books to us again. Nothing very novel comes this year; but sterling authors have not failed the young people. Here, too, are old friends among the picture books. "The Golliwogg" returns from Holland with a fully illustrated diary of his trip; "Buster Brown" comes back from abroad, and Mr. Outcault's pictures tell just what happened, Buster writing bulletins about just what he "resolved" when in gay Paris. Then there is more about "The Goops" and "The Brownies," and many of the story-books are sequels to preceding volumes. Miss Gilder's "Tomboy" has grown up, and we now may read of "The Tomboy at Work."

A CHRISTMAS SENTIMENT.

Dearest, the Christ-Child walks to-night, ‖ Bringing his peace to men, ‖ And he bringeth to you and to me the light of the old, old years again.—EUGENE FIELD'S "POEMS OF CHILDHOOD."

Jacob A. Riis' two dozen pages, bound under the title of "Is There a Santa Claus?" (Macmillan), can only by courtesy be called a book, it is so very slight. But call it a bound Christmas card, or a seasonable booklet, or what you will, the poetic sentiment that permeates it makes it a welcome companion to other Christmas sentiments of good-will that the literary world has cherished since the days of Dickens and Thackeray. Mr. Riis writes simply, but his words strike home.



Cover design (reduced) of "Goop Tales."

That the marginal illustration is sparingly used to-day is surprising when we remember what classical precedent there is for it, considering how prevalent it was with the illuminators of the Middle Ages, and how, in illustrating children's books particularly, the German illustrators have employed it for centuries. To-day, Ernest Thompson-Seton and his imitators have used it very effectively in books on natural history, but it is by no means overdone, and when we read on the title-page of Owen Wister's "Searching for Christmas-land" (Harpers) that it is illustrated by no less an authority on Western scenery than Frederic Remington, and we open the pages to find a wealth of vignettes printed in black and yellow, we anticipate an artistic treat indeed. Close scrutiny, however, leads to disappointment, for the sketches are slight and extremely perfunctory, lacking in the convincing local color that one would expect from Mr. Remington. Owen Wister's text is far richer in local color, and though his story is not an absorbing one, it is gracefully told and refreshing in effect.

OLD FRIENDS.

THE GOLLIWOGG.—THE BROWNIES.—BUSTER BROWN.—THE GOOPS.

The gingham dog and the calico cat ‖ Side by side on the table sat; ‖ 'Twas half-past twelve, and (what do you think!) ‖ Nor one nor t'other had slept a wink! —FIELD'S "POEMS OF CHILDHOOD."

This season the Golliwogg, with his manikin friends, has made his itinerary in Holland ("The Golliwogg in Holland." Pictures by Florence K. Upton, verses by Bertha Upton. Longmans, Green), and the pages of his chronicle blossom with red and yellow tulips, and cobalt tiles, and emerald-green *klompens*. Neither text nor verse is potently mirth-provoking, but the authors show their wisdom in shifting the scenes of adventure each year so that the series does not pall upon us.

In the lexicon of childhood, the word "Brownie" has become a name to be spelled in bold type. For, famous as are "The Golliwogg" and "Foxy Grandpa," they have never arrived at the rubber-stamp celebrity which is the apogee of all notoriety for a picture-book character. On looking on the fly-leaf of the "Brownies in the Philippines," by Palmer Cox (Century), we are surprised to learn that this is only the seventh book of the series; and yet, so familiar are they that it seems as if all children of the nineteenth century must have known the Brownies. The pictures appear to greater advantage in the book, given in black and white, than they did when printed in the gaudy colors of the daily newspaper. At times, the draughting of some of the pictures is far from being correct, and the decorative element, which such inventions need to make them art, is entirely missing; but the pictures are certainly lively, and the text equally vivacious.

Whatever the student of juvenile ethics may think of the influence of the "Buster Brown" pictures upon the morals of the small boy, there can be no doubt as to the popularity of the chronicles of this arch-mischief-maker's doings. His pranks for the past year have been practised upon the natives of Paris, and those who have missed their record in the pages of the New York *Herald* may find them all nicely collected in a bound volume entitled "Buster Brown Abroad," by R. F. Outcault (Stokes).



Illustration (reduced) from "The Golliwogg in Holland."

"The Goops" have never attained the celebrity of "The Brownies" and "Buster Brown," but there is much profound satire in Mr. Burgess' creation, and we are glad this season to welcome "Goop Tales Alphabetically Told," by Gelett Burgess (Stokes).

FAIRY TALES.

I was just a little thing ‖ When a fairy came and kissed me.—FIELD'S "POEMS OF CHILDHOOD."

Of the fairy-tale books, there are not so many as usual. By right of seniority, the first place must be given to this year's Lang book, which is entitled "The Brown Fairy Book" (edited by Andrew Lang; illustrated by H. J. Ford (Longmans, Green). This year, the stories come from far-away countries,—from New Caledonia and Brazil, for example,—and possess the same faults and the same virtues as most of the recent volumes of this series. That is, there is strong local color that differentiates the folk-lore from the less significant inventions of the modern writers, but at the same time there is an underlying vein of barbarity running through them.



Illustration (reduced) from "Adventures of Pinocchio."

"The Japanese Fairy Book," compiled by Yei Theodora Ozaki (Dutton), like the Lang books, has folk-lore as its basis, and the same intermixture of the barbarous. "'Tell me what it is you want for the Queen,' demanded Rin Gin. 'I want the liver of a wild monkey,' replied the Doctor," we read on page 192! The illustrations in this book, however, are rare treasures, being reproductions from the Japanese classics. Their directness in telling the story, their astounding action, and their perfection of decorative form cause them to represent the *ne plus ultra* of printed illustrations.

There are many references in the story of the animated manikin, "Pinocchio," to things and customs Italian that will not be understood by the American child, but the story has been written by the hand of a master humorist, and is deservedly an Italian classic, and may be characterized as one of those books which every child should read. It has been translated by Walter S. Camp, with editorial revision by Sara E. H. Lockwood, and many original drawings by Charles Copeland (Ginn).

"'What's the good of *talking?*' said Cyril. 'What I want is for something to happen,'" we read in "The Phœnix and the Carpet." Of course, Cyril, being a healthy, normal boy, wanted something to happen. Mrs. E. Nesbit keeps it in mind, and charmingly as she writes every-day dialogue, and charmingly as she describes the commonplace objects of home, she does not depend upon dialogue and description, but puts a goodly quota of action into "The Phœnix and the Carpet" (Macmillan), so that every child will find out ere the first chapter is finished that there is "something doing" in this story-book.



Illustration (reduced) from "Two in a Zoo."

"The Pedlar's Pack," by Mrs. Alfred Baldwin (Lippincott), has some slight but effective colored illustrations by Charles Pears. The stories, however, are a trifle heavy, and lack in convincing quality, though there is abundant wit in their telling.

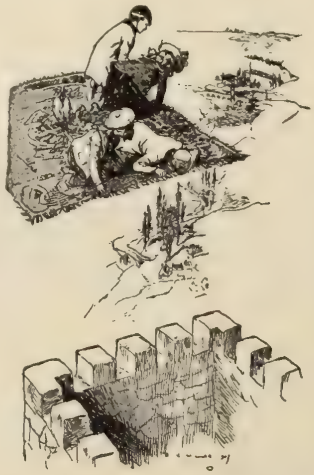


Illustration (reduced) from "The Phœnix and the Carpet."

The name of Oliver Herford as co-author (with Curtis Dunham) and sole illustrator of "Two in a Zoo" (Bobbs-Merrill) is a token that promises the book will be neither dull nor stupid, but unfortunately, though most pleasing in narration, the matter of the tales is very slight and a decided echo of Thompson-Seton and Kipling. The full-page pictures in wash are rather flat, being badly printed, but the pen drawings are in Mr. Herford's very best vein.

"In the Miz," by Grace E. Ward, illustrated by Clara E. Atwood (Little, Brown), is entirely lacking in originality and very verbose in narration, a pun a page seeming to be the author's average of humorous production. The illustrations are not poorly conceived, but are not any too convincing in execution.

OUTLANDISH PLOTS.

You say but the word to that gingerbread dog ‖ And he barks with such terrible zest ‖ That the chocolate cat is at once all agog, ‖ As her swelling proportions attest.—FIELD'S "POEMS OF CHILDHOOD."

"Fantasma Land," written and illustrated by Charles Raymond Macauley (Bobbs-Merrill), is an obvious imitation of "Alice in Wonderland." But Dickey, who is the hero of it, is such a "cheap"-looking boy,—a veritable "kid," according to the pictures,—that one is not as much tempted to follow him through the dizzy maze of impossible adventures as one is tempted to follow the refined and gentle Alice. The conception of the tale is rather above the average, and this sentence on page 10 is certainly promising. Fantasma says that they find "Realities" occasionally in his country—"long-haired Realities that come here for the purpose of kidnaping us, and putting us on canvas and paper, and even in stone. Artists and Authors, they call themselves. Architects, too; they steal Gargoyles, Atlantes, Caryatids, and heads to ornament buildings. Seen them, havn't you?"

Mr. Denslow follows last year's *début* as a maker of children's books with "Denslow's Scarecrow and the Tin-Man and Other Stories" (Dillingham). The colored printing is, from our point of view, objectionable in its crudeness; and the artist's conceptions are frequently vapid, as in his creation of "Simple Simon," though now and again he rises to a bit of graphicness, as in the ducks and geese in the "Barnyard Circus" and the cat paring apples in "Three Little Kittens."

Other books in which the impossible and outlandish

pervade the plot are "On a Lark to the Planets," by Frances Trego Montgomery, illustrated by Winifred D. Elrod (Saalfield Publishing Co.); "The Dream Bag," by Winifred A. Haldane, illustrated by Howard Heath (Laird & Lee), and "The King of Kinkiddie," by Raymond Fuller Ayers, illustrated by Walter Bobbett (Dutton). Somewhat in imitation of the "Golliwogg" books is "The Story of the Five Rebellious Dolls" (Dutton). The illustrations, by E. Stuart Hardy, however, are less spirited and not up to the standard of the text, by E. Nesbit.



Illustration (reduced) from Denslow's "Scarecrow and the Tin-Man."

"Mixed Beasts" (Fox, Duffield) are described in nonsense pictures and rhymes by no less a person than the celebrated painter, Kenyon Cox. Of the Policemanatee, we read:

"At the bottom of the sea
The Policemanatee
Keeps the little water-babies off the grass;
Checks the proudest Titon's course,
Makes him rein in his sea-horse,
To let the pretty mermaid pass."

Willard Bonte is responsible for "The Mother Goose Puzzle Book" (Dutton), the contents of which have appeared in the New York *Herald*. The designs are draughted with an architect's cleanness of line, but the figures and faces lack life.

FOR OLD AND YOUNG.

Shuffle-Shoon and Amber-Locks | Sit together, building blocks; | Shuffle-Shoon is old and gray, | Amber-Locks a little child, | But together at their play | Age and Youth are reconciled, | And with sympathetic glee | Build their castles fair to see.—FIELD'S "POEMS OF CHILDHOOD."

It is perhaps of no great moment that Maxfield Parrish has not kept strictly within the boundaries of the text when illustrating the "Poems of Childhood," by Eugene Field (Scribners). He has concocted such clever conceits in color that we forgive him because his "sugar-plumb tree" is far too dignified and somber in aspect to rain down "gumdrop and peppermint canes" at the "cavorting" of the "chocolate cat" instigated by the bark of the "gingerbread dog." No, the trees of this forest are more like those in Dante's "midway" forest at the entry to purgatory than like Field's fantastic vision. Again, in his illustration of the "Dinkey-Bird" he is far afield of the text. Possibly, should he dispute our challenge we might find it difficult to show just what botany gives the exact flora of the "amfalula tree," but we are quite certain that the convolution of its leaves must be different from those on Mr. Parrish's branches. Again, this artist's love of architectural adjunct is so great that in his buildings and bridges his realism is such that they seem true stone and mortar anchored substantially to *terra firma*. Hence, when he illustrates "Wynken, Blynken, and Nod," his background is so tangible and his boat so materialistic that his scene does not fit into the text that says:

"The little stars were the herring fish
That lived in the beautiful sea."

His scene is terrestrial, the author's celestial. Here, the colored printing has given us some nasty browns that remind one of underdone gingerbread, but in the



Illustration (reduced) from "The Japanese Fairy Book."

"Dinkey-Bird" we have just spoken of, and in the illustration of "Seein' Things," the colored printing is so novel and effective,—the one giving us a vision of great expanse of blue ether, the other the sable indigo of night,—that it seems hypercritical to complain.



Illustration (reduced) from "The Brown Fairy Book."

"The Trail to Boyland," by Wilbur D. Nesbit, illustrated by Will Vawter (Bobbs-Merrill), contains a number of poems much like those of Field and Riley, rather *about* the child than *for* him. Mr. Nesbit is not as terse as he might be, and rather suggests a diluted edition of Riley. But that he is capable of originality is shown in the laughable "Odyssey of K's," which chronicles his fruitless trips to Kankakee and Kokomo, when "he should have gone to Keokuk."

BOOKS "FOR BOYS AND SOME GIRLS."

Come, Harvey, let us sit a while and talk about the times ‖ Before you went to selling clothes and I to peddling rimes— ‖ The days when we were little boys.—FIELD'S "POEMS OF CHILDHOOD."

A sub-title for "Jack Tenfield's Star," by Martha James, illustrated by Charles Copeland (Lee & Shepard), is "A Story for Boys and Some Girls." This subhead appellation might equally well be applied to the following stories, all of which deal with every-day life:



Illustration (reduced) from "Poems of Childhood."

"Baby Elton Quarterback," by Leslie W. Quirk, illustrated (Century); "Two Young Inventors," by Alvah Milton Kerr, illustrated by G. W. Picknell (Lee & Shepard); "Prince Henry's Sailor Boy," by Otto von Bruneck, illustrated by George Alfred Williams (Holt); "Larry the Wanderer," by Edward Stratemeyer, illustrated by A. B. Shute (Lee & Shepard); "Making the Nine," by Albertus T. Dudley, illustrated by Charles Copeland (Lee & Shepard). The illustrations by Arthur E. Bechner in "The Mysterious Beacon Light" (Little, Brown) are most dramatic,—much above the average illustration. Indeed, they have qualities that belong to the best paintings, and the author, George Ethelbert Walsh, though rather too fond of description, has written a story that holds the interest to the end.

A book a little out of the ordinary is "Kibun Daizen;" or, "From Shark Boy to Merchant Prince," translated by Masao Yoshida from the Japanese by Gensai Murai, with illustrations by George Varian (Century). Here, the local color is very strong, but the climaxes are not worked up in the style of Occidental fiction. "A School Champion," by Raymond Jacberns, illustrated by Percy Tarrant (Lippincott), is a many-chaptered story of English school life, with from one to a dozen episodes in a chapter, so that the girl taking it up will be likely to get to the end before she realizes it. "Brought to Heel;" or, the "Breaking in of St. Dunstan's School," by Kent Carr, illustrated by Harold Copping, from the same publishers, is a similar kind of book for boys. Nor will the girls be likely to eschew the following merely because they are listed as boys' books: "The Young Vigilantes," by Samuel Adams Drake, illustrated by L. J. Bridgeman (Lee & Shepard); "The Blue Dragon" (Harpers), by Kirk Monroe, illustrated by W. E. Mears; "The Island Camp," by Captain Ralph Bonehill, illustrated by Jay Hambidge (Barnes). The Penn Publishing Company, whose list of juveniles is almost inexhaustible, also issues "The Eve of War," by W. Bert Foster, illustrated by F. A. Carter; "Finding a Fortune," by Horatio Alger, Jr., illustrated by W. S. Lukens; "Winning His Way to West Point," by Captain Paul B. Malone, illustrated by F. A. Carter, and "Freckles," by Gene Stratton-Porter, decorations by E. Stetson Crawford (Doubleday, Page & Co.).



Cover design (reduced) of "Mary's Garden and How It Grew."



Illus. (reduced) from "The Brownies in the Philippines."

BOOKS FOR GIRLS.

Oh, girls are girls, and boys are boys, ‖ And have been so since Abel's birth, ‖ And shall be so till dolls and toys ‖ Are with the children swept from earth.—FIELD'S "POEMS OF CHILDHOOD."

Last year, Miss Gilder published "Tomboy," a sort of autobiographical story which, like "Little Women," was strong in local color and vivid in personality, and,



Illustration (reduced) from "The Tomboy at Work."

as Miss Alcott followed up her success with "Joe's Boys," so Miss Gilder this year gives us, in "The Tomboy at Work" (Doubleday, Page), a picture of her heroine now arrived at a period of early womanhood when she is forced to become a bread-winner. The story is spiritedly illustrated by Florence Scovel Shinn.

Stories of every-day life about girls and for girls are "An Honor Girl," by Evelyn Raymond, illustrated by Bertha G. Davidson; "Helen Grant's Friends," by Amanda W. Douglas, illustrated by Amy Brooks and "Randy's Good Times," by Amy Brooks, illustrated by the author. John Bunyan, without a particle of artistic ability, was able, through sheer singleness of purpose, to write dialogue that has become classic. Without much art, but with similar singleness of purpose, Miss Nina Rhoades writes dialogue that carries with it strong conviction of reality, and in this year's volume, "The Children on the Top Floor," illustrated by Bertha G. Davidson (Lee & Shepard), a sequel to "Winifred's Neighbors," we have another sweet story telling of childish sacrifice and the beneficent results of wholesome actions. They are all published by Lee & Shepard.



Cover design (reduced) of "In Doublet and Hose."

The Penn Publishing Company have a long list of girls' books, among them "The Whirligig," by Evelyn Raymond, illustrated by Ruth Rollins; "Betty Wales, Freshman," by Margaret Warde, illustrated by Eva M. Nagle; "Mistress Moppet," by Annie M. Barnes, illustrated by Margaret F. Winner, and "Her Secret," by Mary A. Denison, illustrated by Isabel Lyndall.

IN OTHER TIMES THAN OURS.

The Injuns came last night ‖ While the soldiers were abed, ‖ And they gobbled a Chinese kite ‖ And off to the woods they fled! ‖ The woods are the cherry trees ‖ Down in the orchard lot, ‖ And the soldiers are marching to seize ‖ The booty the Injuns got.—FIELD'S "POEMS OF CHILDHOOD."



Illustration (reduced) from "Minnows and Tritons."

Hairbreadth adventures in other times than ours are narrated in "The Laurel Token," by Annie M. Barnes, illustrated by G. W. Picknell (Lee & Shepard); "A Lass of Dorchester," by Annie Mr. Barnes, illustrated by Frank T. Merrill (Lee & Shepard), and "In Doublet and Hose," by Lucy Foster Madison, illustrated by Clyde O. Deland (Penn Pub. Co.). "The Story of Rolf and the Viking's Bow" (Little, Brown), by Allen French, is illustrated by B. J. Rosenmeyer, and is written in a painstaking manner, so that the boy who reads it gets some history and some poetic lore as well as an exciting story.



Illustration (reduced) from "Comedies and Legends for Marionettes."

For little folk who like their books in big print, we have "Dorothy Dainty at School," by Amy Brooks, illustrated by the author (Lee & Shepard), and "The Making of Meenie," by Edith L. Gilbert, illustrated by Margaret Goddard (Lee & Shepard). Gertrude Smith, "Little Precious" (Harper Bros.), appreciates perfectly the value of repetition, and while her pages might therefore be a trifle monotonous to the old folk beguiled by the little ones to read from them, no doubt the narrative is clearer to the infantile minds than a majority of books written for them. Of the illustrations, little may be said; they are woefully lacking in simplicity and grace. Psychological truth is found in the story that comes to us from England (via Dodd, Mead & Co.), entitled "Minnows and Tritons," by B. A. Clark, illustrated by Harold Copping. The humor of this

book reminds us much of Anstey ; it is more than excellent. "Lucy and Their Majesties" (Century Co.), a posthumous, we presume, story, by B. L. Farjeon, is less refreshing and human in its comedy, but is a good story for winter's night entertainment. "Comedies and Legends for Marionettes," by Georgiana Goddard King, illustrated by Anna R. Giles (Macmillan Co.), is a suggestive book, giving a number of short plays, with directions for making a marionette theater.



Illustration (reduced) from "The Alley Cat's Kitten."

In striking contrast to big folios are the tiny volumes in Dutton's "Miniature Picture Books," printed, in the style of Japanese books, on one side of the paper only, and not three inches square.

There are not as many animal books this year as usual, but what there are are very attractive. The "Alley Cat's Kitten," by Caroline M. Fuller, illustrated by the author from photographs (Little, Brown), shows the keen observation of a true nature-lover.

The colored drawings in "Billy Wiskers, Jr.," by Frances Thego Montgomery, illustrated by W. H. Fry (Saalfield), are as crude and gaudy as the most flaming circus poster. But still we must admit that adventure follows adventure in a way that must certainly interest.



Illustration (reduced) from "The Heroes."

There is much regard for truth and sequence in the books of to-day. The latter quality is to be welcomed in the alphabet-book called "A, B, C in Dixie : A Plantation Alphabet," by Louise Quarles Bonte, author, and George Willard Bonte, illustrator (Dutton).



Illustration from "Little Folks of Many Lands."

There seem to be fewer books than usual this year whose purpose is didactic ; but those that come under review certainly are admirable in purpose and are intelligent in method. Among these are "Mary's Garden : How it Grew" (Century), by Frances Duncan, illustrated by L. W. Zeiler, with a very attractive cover, by the way. "Little Folks of Many Lands," by Lulu Maud Chance (Ginn), has one or more pictures on every page, and must teach even the dullest child something about the round world and they that dwell therein. "Cyr's Graded Art Readers, Book Two," by Ellen M. Cyr (Ginn), contains woodcuts by Henry Wolf, the master of wood engraving, and other American artists of the burin, and some well-printed half-tones in two tints that make it above the average of the ordinary schoolbook. "The Child at Play" is an attempt to make a reader for little tots attractive by "up-to-date" illustrations; they are by Hermann Heyer. Verbal pictures of historical events are put before the reader in terse paragraphs by Miss Helen M. Cleveland, in her "Stories of Brave Old Times" (Lee & Shepard). The young person may consider the laconic paragraphs as a trifle bald, but if he has a taste for history he will find the book a storehouse of information.



Illustration (reduced) from "Making the Nine."

A number of authors have done the reading public the favor of turning aside from the beaten track of juvenile literature to make journeys into more or less undiscovered fields. Foremost among these should be mentioned Mary Austin's collection of tales entitled "The Basket Woman" (Houghton, Mifflin), which gives us folk-lore stories from the Sierra Nevadas. These are not, however, strictly for children. Mrs. Jessie Juliet Knox's "Little Almond Blossoms" (Little, Brown), a book of Chinese stories for children that come from San Francisco. An abridged story of "Little Paul," from "Dombey and Son," edited by F. L. Knowles (Dana Estes), makes delightful reading for the young or old.

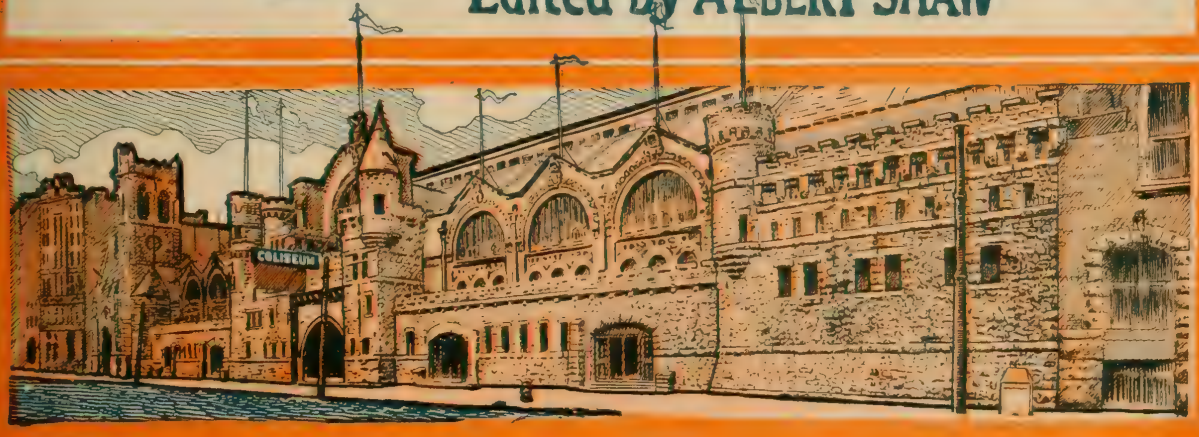


Illustration (reduced) from the "Mixed Beasts."

"Snowland Folk," by Robert E. Peary, and "The Snow Baby" (F. A. Stokes) introduces (it is one book) us into scenes near (approximately) the North Pole, and the pictures are strikingly novel. Equally authentic and information-giving is "Stories of Inventors," by Russell Doubleday (Doubleday, Page & Co.).

The printing is very good of the color pictures in "Pets," by Alice Calhoun Haines, pictures by Louis Rhead (F. A. Stokes), and there are lots of animals in them, so they are pretty sure to interest the young folks.

THE
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July
1904
Edited by ALBERT SHAW



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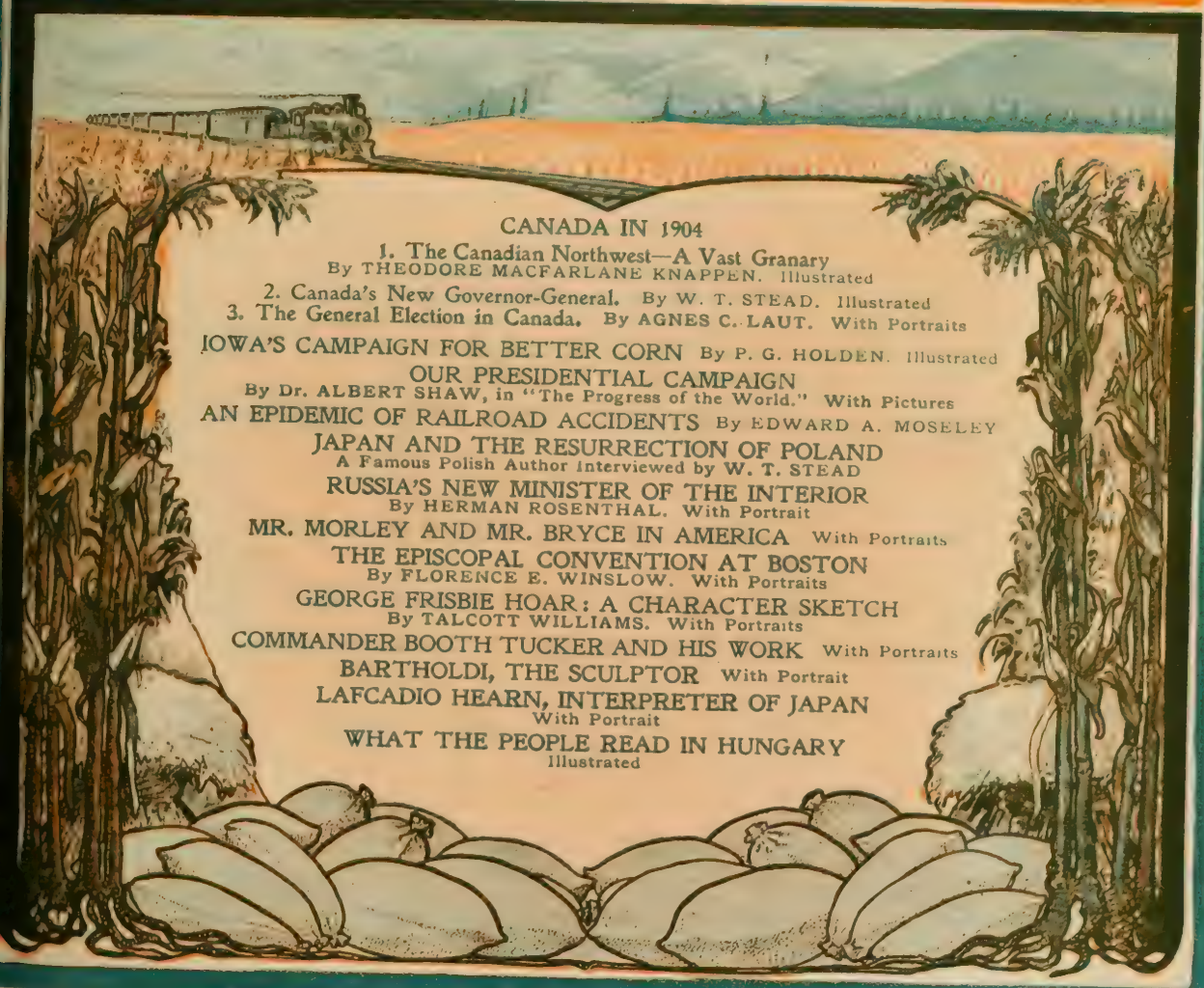
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